



UniGM: Unifying Multiple Pre-trained Graph Models via Adaptive Knowledge Aggregation

Jintao Chen
Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
chenjintao@zju.edu.cn

Siwei Tan
Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
siweitan@zju.edu.cn

Meng Xi
Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
ximeng@zju.edu.cn

Fan Wang
Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
fanwang97@zju.edu.cn

Mingshuai Chen*
Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
m.chen@zju.edu.cn

Jianwei Yin*
Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
zjuyjw@cs.zju.edu.cn

Shengye Pang
Zhejiang University
Hangzhou, China
pangsy@zju.edu.cn

Tiancheng Zhao
Binjiang Institute of Zhejiang
University
Hangzhou, China
tianchez@zju-bj.com

Abstract

Recent years have witnessed remarkable advances in graph representation learning using Graph Neural Networks (GNNs). To fully exploit the unlabeled graphs, researchers pre-train GNNs on large-scale graph databases and then fine-tune these pre-trained Graph Models (GMs) for better performance in downstream tasks. Because different GMs are developed with diverse pre-training tasks or datasets, they can be complementary to each other for a more complete knowledge base. Naturally, a compelling question is emerging: *How can we exploit the diverse knowledge captured by different GMs simultaneously in downstream tasks?* In this paper, we make one of the first attempts to exploit multiple GMs to advance the performance in the downstream tasks. More specifically, for homogeneous GMs that share the same model architecture but are obtained with different pre-training tasks or datasets, we align each layer of these GMs and then aggregate them adaptively on a per-sample basis with a tailored Recurrent Aggregation Policy Network (RAPNet). For heterogeneous GMs with different model architectures, we design an alignment module to align the output of diverse GMs and a meta-learner to decide the importance of each GM conditioned on each sample automatically before aggregating the GMs. Extensive experiments in various downstream tasks from 3 domains reveal our dominance over each single GM. Additionally, our methods (UniGM) can achieve better performance with moderate computational overhead compared to alternative

*Corresponding author.

Permission to make digital or hard copies of all or part of this work for personal or classroom use is granted without fee provided that copies are not made or distributed for profit or commercial advantage and that copies bear this notice and the full citation on the first page. Copyrights for components of this work owned by others than the author(s) must be honored. Abstracting with credit is permitted. To copy otherwise, or republish, to post on servers or to redistribute to lists, requires prior specific permission and/or a fee. Request permissions from permissions@acm.org.

MM '24, October 28–November 1, 2024, Melbourne, VIC, Australia

© 2024 Copyright held by the owner/author(s). Publication rights licensed to ACM.

ACM ISBN 979-8-4007-0686-8/24/10

<https://doi.org/10.1145/3664647.3681018>

approaches including ensemble and model fusion. Also, we verify that our methods are not limited to graph data but could be flexibly applied to multiple modalities. The codes are available at <https://github.com/monica309673/UniGM>.

CCS Concepts

• **Computing methodologies** → **Neural networks; Learning latent representations.**

Keywords

Graph analysis, pre-trained models, ensemble, model fusion

ACM Reference Format:

Jintao Chen, Fan Wang, Shengye Pang, Siwei Tan, Mingshuai Chen, Tiancheng Zhao, Meng Xi, and Jianwei Yin. 2024. UniGM: Unifying Multiple Pre-trained Graph Models via Adaptive Knowledge Aggregation. In *Proceedings of the 32nd ACM International Conference on Multimedia (MM '24)*, October 28–November 1, 2024, Melbourne, VIC, Australia. ACM, New York, NY, USA, 10 pages. <https://doi.org/10.1145/3664647.3681018>

1 Introduction

Fine-tuning a pre-trained Language Model (LM) has become the de facto standard for Natural Language Processing (NLP) [4, 6]. Inspired by the prosperity, tremendous efforts have been devoted to pre-trained GMs to exploit abundant knowledge of unlabelled graphs [17, 49]. For the pre-training stage, researchers train the GNN encoder with various pretext tasks [33]. For the fine-tuning stage, researchers replace the top layer of the pre-trained models with a task-specific sub-network and train the new model with the labeled data of the downstream tasks. Pre-training techniques can help GNNs capture the potential laws of graph data that are conducive to downstream tasks [17, 49]. Intuitively, different off-the-shelf GMs are obtained with diverse pre-training tasks or datasets and thus they capture diverse knowledge and possess different abilities. Take molecular graphs as examples, given that motifs in molecular graphs usually correspond to functional groups that

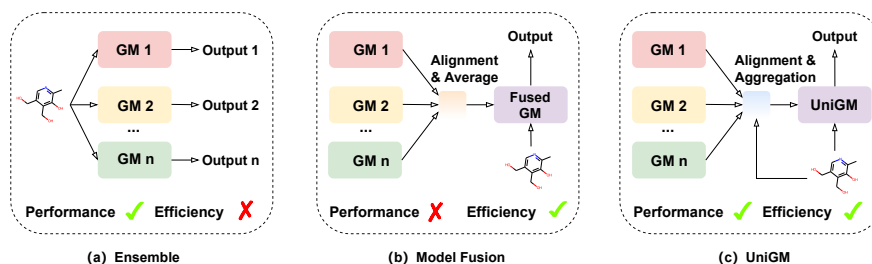


Figure 1: Comparison of the ensemble, model fusion, and UniGM.

are indicative of molecular properties, some researchers pre-train GNNs with motif-driven pre-training strategy [57] to capture the information of functional groups. Now, we are naturally motivated to ask the following question: *How can we exploit the diverse knowledge captured by different GMs simultaneously in downstream tasks?*

There are several possible approaches to achieving this goal. For example, the easiest way is to adopt all the pretext tasks to pre-train only one model on various datasets. However, it is impractical because the downstream users are often only accessible to the off-the-shelf pre-trained GMs rather than the pre-training datasets or tasks. Worse still, pre-training a new model from scratch with multiple tasks and datasets is computationally prohibitive. Therefore, we consider unifying the off-the-shelf pre-trained GMs during model adaptation. Ensemble Learning [9] is a prevalent technique that can unify multiple models. Despite the effectiveness, we have to fine-tune each GM and then use the averaged outputs of them for downstream tasks, which is inconvenient and suffers from heavy computational overhead. Model fusion [1, 30, 36] is another alternative solution to this problem, which aligns neurons across different models before averaging their associated parameters in a data-free way. While model fusion enjoys higher efficiency than ensemble learning, there is a flaw that causes poorer performance: it treats all the samples equally by letting them share the same aggregation policy. However, in practice, each sample holds specific relations with diverse pre-trained models [52] and the aggregation policy should depend on each sample. Additionally, existing evidence reveals that the lower pre-trained layers learn more general features while the higher layers closer to the output specialize more to the pre-training tasks [19, 56]. Therefore, for some downstream tasks that are more similar to pre-training tasks, the aggregation should emphasize the higher layer and vice versa. Overall, an ideal aggregation policy should be both sample-dependent and layer-dependent. Also, tremendous efforts have been devoted to designing pre-training strategies for GNNs so far. However, how to leverage pre-trained GNNs remains under-explored.

To remedy the above drawbacks, we propose UniGM to exploit multiple GMs effectively and efficiently during fine-tuning. We show the schematic diagrams of our UniGM and the above-mentioned approaches in Figure 1. Specifically, for homogeneous GMs that share the same GNN backbone, we aggregate each layer of them adaptively on a per-sample basis with a tailored RAPNet, which includes a Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) [29] to explicitly model the layer-based relations. For the heterogeneous GMs with different GNNs backbones, we devise an alignment module to align

the output of heterogeneous GMs and a meta-learner to decide the importance of each GM for the downstream task conditioned on per sample automatically. Here, ‘Heterogeneous GMs’ denote the pre-trained graph models that differ from each other in terms of GNN backbones, instead of heterogeneous graph data or heterogeneous GNNs [55]. Different from some recent works that aim to combine several self-supervised tasks to pre-train GNNs [12, 21], we attempt to unify multiple off-the-shelf pre-trained GMs for a more complete knowledge base. We highlight the following contributions:

- Currently, the community focuses on designing self-supervised pre-training strategies for GNNs, however, it remains under-explored how to utilize pre-trained GMs more effectively or efficiently. To the best of our knowledge, we make one of the first attempts to unify multiple GMs for better performance in downstream tasks.
- We present two effective and efficient techniques to unify homogeneous and heterogeneous GMs, respectively. Our methods can also be flexibly applied to various modalities (validated in section 4.5).
- Extensive experiments validate that UniGM can consistently outperform each single GM, and achieve state-of-the-art performance with moderate computational consumption compared with competitive alternatives.

2 Related Work

2.1 Pre-training Graph Neural Networks

As dominant tools for graph representation learning, GNNs require expensive annotations and barely generalize to unseen graphs, which poses a hurdle to practical applications. To remedy these deficiencies, tremendous efforts have been devoted to pre-training GNNs. One line of these works follows the contrastive paradigm [13, 32, 41, 58]. For example, GraphCL [54] and its variants [10, 25, 39, 40, 44, 47, 53] embed augmented versions of the anchor graph close to each other and push the embeddings of other graphs apart. The other line of work adopts generative or predictive pretext tasks. Typically, GPT-GNN [18] introduces an attributed graph generation task to pre-train GNNs so that they can capture the structural and semantic properties of the graph. Additionally, [17], [24] and [16] conduct attribute and structure prediction at the level of individual nodes as well as entire graphs. To capture the rich information in molecular graph motifs, GROVER [33] and MGSSL [57] propose to predict or generate the motifs. The diverse pre-training methods and datasets make these GMs mutually complementary. To this

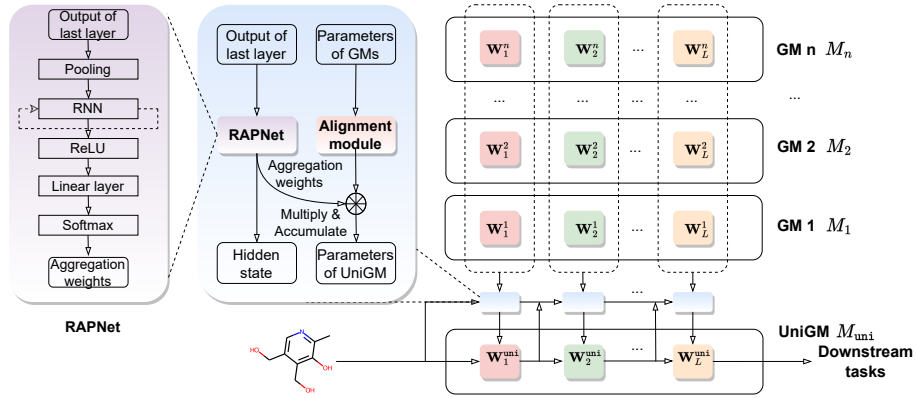


Figure 2: Schematic diagram of UniGM for homogeneous GMs.

end, we propose UniGM to integrate multiple GMs into a unified one for better performance.

2.2 Ensemble Learning and Model Fusion

Ensemble Learning has achieved spectacular achievements in history [35, 45]. They combine the outputs of different models to improve performance. In the pretrain-then-finetune paradigm, we have to finetune all the pre-trained models and then run each of them during inference to average their outputs, which is laborious. Alternatively, Model Fusion aims to merge multiple trained networks into a single one in a data-free manner. The simplest way of model fusion is vanilla averaging the parameters of pre-trained networks [42]. However, vanilla averaging only works in the case when the weights of individual networks are relatively close in the weight space. As effective remedies, FBA-Wagging [1], FedMA [43] and OTFusion [36] align the neurons of each layer before applying vanilla averaging. Although model fusion runs several magnitudes faster than ensemble learning, the fusion process is independent of the input sample while each sample holds specific relations with diverse models, which accounts for its poorer performance. Compared with them, our UniGM achieves better performance with moderate computational cost.

3 Method

3.1 Unifying homogeneous GMs (UniGM)

As shown in Figure 2, given n homogeneous GMs $\mathcal{M} = \{M_1, M_2, \dots, M_n\}$ with the same backbone, we aggregate their parameter matrices layer-wisely following the ‘Alignment-then-Aggregation’ paradigm. We consider that i -th GM M_i consists of L layers whose parameter matrices are $\mathbf{W}_1^i, \mathbf{W}_2^i, \dots, \mathbf{W}_L^i$. Next, taking j -th layer as an example, we elaborate on the alignment and aggregation modules to obtain the j -th layer parameter matrix \mathbf{W}_j^{uni} of the unified model M_{uni} .

Alignment Module. Since the homogeneous GMs are pre-trained with different tasks or datasets, so even the parameters at the same layer of them may contain different semantic meanings, which hinders direct aggregation. To tackle this issue, we can feed the parameter matrices to linear layers to project them to a shared weight

space to align them. However, this way will incur heavy computation with multiple matrix multiplications. Hence, we use lighter convolution. Specifically, given n parameters matrices $\mathbf{W}_j^{\{1,2,\dots,n\}}$ for j -th layer, each of which are of scale $H_{in} \times H_{out}$, we resize them as a $1 \times n \times H_{in} \times H_{out}$ tensor $\overline{\mathbf{W}}_j$ and feed it to a pointwise convolution layer including n filters $\mathbf{C}_j^{\{1,2,\dots,n\}}$, each of which is with kernel size $n \times 1 \times 1$. The output $\widehat{\mathbf{W}}_j$ of size $n \times H_{in} \times H_{out}$ are regarded as the aligned parameter matrices. The process can be formulated as $\widehat{\mathbf{W}}_j^i = \mathbf{C}_j^i * \overline{\mathbf{W}}_j$, where “*” is the convolution with time complexity $\mathcal{O}(n^2 H_{in} H_{out})$. It is superior to the linear layer of size $H_{out} \times H_{out}$ with complexity $\mathcal{O}(n H_{in} H_{out}^2)$ because $H_{out} \gg n$ in practice. Kindly note that we initialize the convolution as an identical mapping for a warm-up from pre-trained parameters.

Aggregation Module. As we discuss in the introduction section, the aggregation policy should be both sample-dependent and layer-dependent. To this end, we introduce a Recurrent Aggregation Policy Network (RAPNet) which is conditioned on the input feature of each layer to learn the aggregation policy for the aligned parameter matrices. The term “aggregation policy” refers to the weights used to linearly combine the aligned parameter matrices into unified ones. Specifically, for each layer, we first apply a global pooling to transform the input feature into a one-dimensional embedding vector, which will be fed into the RNN [29] to model the dependencies between different layers. Namely, we regard the one-dimensional embedding vector of each layer as the input for a timestamp in RNN and the hidden state of RNN will be propagated to the next layer. Formally, for j -th layer, given that the input feature (after pooling) is \widehat{h}_j , we can obtain the output of RNN o_j by,

$$s_j = \tanh(\mathbf{P}\widehat{h}_j + \mathbf{Q}s_{j-1} + b), o_j = \tanh(\mathbf{R}s_j + c), \quad (1)$$

where s_j is the hidden state of layer j and we initialize s_0 with zeros. $\mathbf{P}, \mathbf{Q}, \mathbf{R}$ are the parameters of the RNN. b and c are the bias terms. Finally, we transform the output of the RNN (o_j) to the aggregation weights (policy) with a fully-connected layer followed by a softmax function, i.e., $A_j(h_{j-1}) = \text{Softmax}(\text{Linear}(\text{ReLU}(o_j)))$. The i -th dimension of $A_j(h_{j-1})$ is $A_j^i(h_{j-1})$, which denotes the learned aggregation weights (policy) for the j -layer parameter matrix of

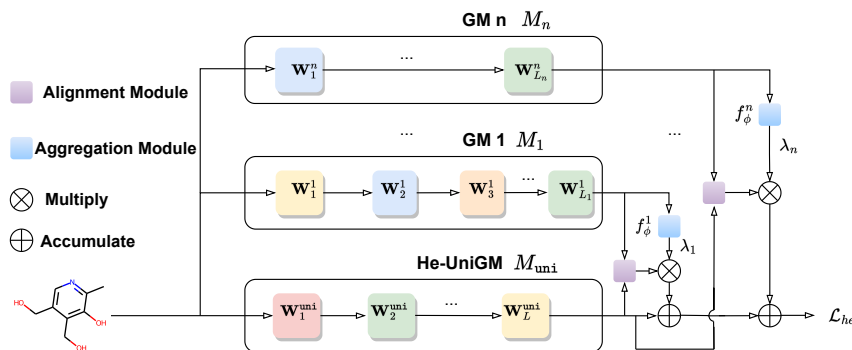


Figure 3: The schematic diagram for unifying heterogeneous GMs (He-UniGM).

the i -th pre-trained model (\widehat{W}_j^i). Finally, we can obtain the j -th layer parameter matrix W_j^{uni} of the unified model by re-weighting the aligned matrices with the learned aggregation policy,

$$W_j^{uni} = \sum_{i=1}^n A_j^i (h_{j-1}) \widehat{W}_j^i. \quad (2)$$

With the aggregated parameters in the unified model $M_{uni}(\cdot; \mathbf{W}_1^{uni}, \mathbf{W}_2^{uni}, \dots, \mathbf{W}_L^{uni})$, we can formulate the loss as,

$$\mathcal{L} = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \sim \mathcal{D}} \ell(M_{uni}(\mathbf{x}; \mathbf{W}_1^{uni}, \mathbf{W}_2^{uni}, \dots, \mathbf{W}_L^{uni}), \mathbf{y}), \quad (3)$$

where $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y})\}$ denotes the dataset of downstream tasks and \mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y} denote the sample and label. ℓ is the loss of downstream tasks. We provide two variations for UniGM. The first one, dubbed UniGM-F, is to freeze the pre-trained parameters of GMs and only tune the parameters of alignment and aggregation modules. The other one named UniGM-T is to tune all the parameters. Unlike ensemble learning, UniGM is more efficient because the samples are only required to pass through the unified model while the samples in ensemble learning need to pass through all the GMs. Compared with model fusion, UniGM aggregates parameters of GMs adaptively depending on the sample and layer, leading to better performance.

3.2 Unifying heterogeneous GMs (He-UniGM)

Although most current open-sourced GMs for the same domain share the same GNN encoder, future GMs may adopt more powerful GNNs. However, UniGM-T and UniGM-F cannot unify heterogeneous GMs. As a remedy, we develop another effective strategy (He-UniGM) to integrate heterogeneous GMs into a unified one, whose general pipeline can be seen in Figure 3.

Alignment Module. Since heterogeneous GMs are separately pre-trained with different networks or datasets, both the semantics and dimensions of their outputs are not well-aligned. We introduce the following strategy to overcome this issue. Specifically, let $M_i(\cdot), M_{uni}(\cdot)$ be the output of i -th GM and He-UniGM respectively, we minimize the following ℓ_2 objective to align their feature space,

$$\|R_\omega(M_{uni}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{uni})) - M_i(\mathbf{x}; \theta_i)\|_2^2, \quad (4)$$

where $R_\omega(\cdot)$ is a linear transformation parameterized by ω . Different from homogeneous settings, the parameters θ_{uni} of the unified

model are initialized randomly and updated with the following aggregation module.

Aggregation Module. Considering that diverse GMs contribute unequally to the downstream task, we introduce a learnable parameter λ_i to automatically decide the importance of GM M_i . We set $\lambda_i = f_\phi^i(M_i(\mathbf{x}; \theta_i))$ in order to model the importance of M_i conditioned on the input \mathbf{x} , where $f_\phi^i(\cdot)$ is a light meta-learner (1-layer fully-connected network in practice) parameterized by ϕ . We can then formulate the loss of aggregation as,

$$\mathcal{L}_{agg} = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \sim \mathcal{D}} \sum_{i=1}^n \lambda_i \|R_\omega(M_{uni}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{uni})) - M_i(\mathbf{x}; \theta_i)\|_2^2, \quad (5)$$

where n is the number of GMs. And then, the optimization objective of He-UniGM is,

$$\mathcal{L}_{he} = \mathcal{L}_{task} + \alpha * \mathcal{L}_{agg}, \quad (6)$$

where α is a hyper-parameter and \mathcal{L}_{task} is the loss of downstream task,

$$\mathcal{L}_{task} = \mathbb{E}_{(\mathbf{x}, \mathbf{y}) \sim \mathcal{D}} \ell(M_{uni}(\mathbf{x}; \theta_{uni}), \mathbf{y}). \quad (7)$$

Then, we utilize φ to denote both the parameters of linear transformation ω and unified model θ_{uni} for convenience. We can solve above problem with following bilevel scheme [2, 11, 20],

$$\min_{\phi} \mathcal{L}_{task}(\varphi^*), \text{ s.t. } \varphi^* = \operatorname{argmin}_{\varphi} \mathcal{L}_{he}(\varphi, \phi). \quad (8)$$

In practice, we can choose gradient descent (GD) to approximately solve the inner optimization,

$$\varphi_{t+1} = \varphi_t - \beta \nabla_{\varphi} \mathcal{L}_{he}(\varphi_t, \phi), \quad (9)$$

where β is the learning rate. Now we consider solving the outer optimization with gradient-based methods. The prerequisite is the gradients of \mathcal{L}_{task} w.r.t ϕ . Let φ_T is the approximate optimal solution obtained with T steps GD in Eq.(9), we can then re-write the gradients as,

$$\nabla_{\phi} \mathcal{L}_{task}(\varphi_T) = \nabla_{\varphi} \mathcal{L}_{task}(\varphi_T) \nabla_{\phi} \varphi_T, \quad (10)$$

where the gradient $\nabla_{\phi} \varphi_T$ can be computed by unrolling the dynamics of the inner loop from φ_T to φ_0 . In the forward computation, successive parameters $\varphi_0, \dots, \varphi_T$ are cached. In the backward call, the cached parameters are used to compute gradients in a series of

vector-jacobian products. During the reverse computation, the gradient starting from the $\nabla_{\phi} \varphi_T$ can be propagated to the intermediate parameters φ_t through $\nabla_{\varphi_t} \varphi_{t+1}$:

$$\nabla_{\varphi_t} \varphi_{t+1} = 1 - \beta \nabla_{\varphi_t}^2 \mathcal{L}_{\text{he}}(\varphi_t), \quad t \in \{0, \dots, T-1\}, \quad (11)$$

where $\nabla_{\varphi_t}^2$ is the Hessian. We can then obtain the gradients $\mathcal{L}_{\text{task}}$ w.r.t ϕ with,

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla_{\phi} \mathcal{L}_{\text{task}}(\varphi_T) &= \nabla_{\varphi} \mathcal{L}_{\text{task}}(\varphi_T) \sum_{t=T-1}^0 [\nabla_{\varphi_{t+1}} \varphi_T] \nabla_{\phi} \varphi_{t+1} \\ &= -\beta \nabla_{\varphi} \mathcal{L}_{\text{task}}(\varphi_T) \sum_{t=T-1}^0 [\nabla_{\varphi_{t+1}} \varphi_T] \nabla_{\phi} (\nabla_{\varphi_t} \mathcal{L}_{\text{he}}(\varphi_t, \phi)), \end{aligned} \quad (12)$$

where $\nabla_{\varphi_{t+1}} \varphi_T$ can be iteratively derived with Eq. (11). Kindly note that the bilevel optimization can be done efficiently with PyTorch [31] because (1) φ only includes the parameters of the linear transformation and the unified model; (2) $T = 2$ is enough in our experiments. Compared with the ensemble, He-UniGM is computationally cheaper because (1) the parameters of multiple GMs are frozen during the training stage; (2) He-UniGM only uses the unified model (one model) for inference.

4 Experiments

4.1 Experimental Settings and Baselines.

Following previous works on the topic of pre-training GNNs [17, 28], we evaluate UniGM on 3 downstream tasks from 3 domains: molecular property prediction in chemistry, protein function prediction in biology, and research field prediction in the bibliography.

For the first task, we adopt the 8 binary classification datasets contained in MoleculeNet [46]. For the second task, we use protein-protein interaction (PPI) networks consisting of 88K proteins from 8 different species. For the third task, we predict the research field with 299,447 labeled subgraphs from 6 different categories. We randomly split the downstream data and evaluate test performance with micro-averaged F1 score. For homogeneous UniGM, we unify recent open-sourced GMs including GraphCL, MGSSL, SimGRACE, and GraphMVP in chemistry and Infomax, EdgePred, ContextPred, AttrMask for both the biology and bibliography domains. For heterogeneous GMs in chemistry, we first pre-train different GNNs with the pre-training tasks proposed in the above works. And then, we integrate the obtained GMs into a unified one with He-UniGM. For alternatives which can also utilize multiple GMs, ‘Vanilla Average’ refers to we use the average of the weights of GMs to initialize a new model for prediction. ‘Concatenation’ denotes the baselines that we take the graph embeddings from the pre-trained models, concatenate them, and pass them into a single linear layer to fine-tune w.r.t the downstream task.

For model fusion, we adopt the most advanced method OTFusion [36] so far. For homogeneous GMs, we set the learning rate as 1×10^{-3} . The hidden size of RNN in RAPNet is set as 8 and the number of layers is 2. *Note that we only aggregate the fully-connected layers of GNNs. The embedding layers and the batch normalization layers of each GM are not integrated into a unified one.* For the chemistry and biology domains, we adopt a 5-layer Graph Isomorphism Networks (GINs) [50] whose hidden dimension is 300 as the backbone architecture. All the above models are trained with Adam

optimizer with a learning rate of 0.001 and we evaluate test performance on downstream tasks using ROC-AUC. All experiments are conducted on Tesla V100 GPUs.

4.2 Results and Analysis

Table 1, Table 2, and Table 3 document the main results in terms of accuracy. Table 4 and Table 5 compare the computational efficiency, from which we make the following observations (Obs):

Obs 1. Variants of UniGM achieve notable improvements over every single model. However, they inevitably introduce extra computational costs.

Obs 2. Variants of UniGM achieve better performance while enjoying higher efficiency than ensemble in most cases. Although model fusion is more efficient than UniGM, its performance is unsatisfactory and even sometimes inferior to the single model. Moreover, model fusion cannot work in heterogeneous settings. Overall, UniGM achieves better performance with moderate computational budgets.

Obs 3. UniGM-F performs better than UniGM-T in datasets with smaller scales while the latter is superior in larger-scale datasets. This phenomenon coincides with the observations of a recent work [48]: the over-parameterized models tend to overfit the limited labeled graphs. UniGM-T with more learnable parameters is more likely to overfit the small-scale datasets.

4.3 Case Study

In this section, we study whether UniGM can possess the specialized abilities of the GMs it is composed of. We adopt two tasks: 3D Diameter Prediction [26] and Atom Type Prediction [17]. The former means using 2D molecular graph to predict the 3D diameter, which is challenging with respect to the 2D topology but straightforward using 3D geometry because the 2D and 3D landscapes of some molecules are considerably different (Figure 4). The latter means predicting atoms’ type. As shown in Figure 4, GraphMVP [26] performs the best in 3D Diameter Prediction because it can capture the 3D geometry. Analogously, AttrMask [17] is better at Atom Type Prediction. UniGM composed of GraphMVP and AttrMask possesses their unique abilities, which verify that UniGM constitutes a more complete knowledge base.

4.4 Ablation Study

GMs’ diversity. Although UniGM achieves impressive results, it remains to be explored: What the performance gains can be attributed to? The GMs’ diversity or more learnable parameters? In Table 6, we substitute diverse GMs in UniGM-T and UniGM-F with the same one and keep the number of GMs unchanged. ‘4 × MGSSL’ means that we substitute 4 GMs in UniGM-T or UniGM-F with 4 MGSSL models. In this way, we keep the number of learnable parameters unchanged while observing the role of GMs’ diversity. We can draw the following conclusions: (1) More parameters are not necessarily conducive for downstream tasks. Since most datasets in experiments are insufficiently labeled, over-parameterized models will over-fit the scarce samples; (2) The performance gains can be attributed to GMs’ diversity because UniGM outperforms ‘4×MGSSL’ by large margins.

Table 1: Results for molecular property prediction tasks (homogeneous setting). We report the mean (and standard deviation) ROC-AUC of 10 seeds with scaffold splitting. The best results and the second best are highlighted with bold and bold, respectively. We also highlight the performance of the GMs that UniGM contains with the gray background. ‘No pretrain’ means training from scratch. The original papers marked with ‘ \diamond ’ did not follow the standard fine-tuning settings. For fairness, we reproduce their fine-tuning results following the settings of the pioneering work [17]. Considering that the std is relatively large on small-scale molecular datasets, we highlight the results that outperform the best baselines with ≥ 0.5 std / ≥ 2 std with ‘ \star ’ and ‘+’ respectively to show how statistically significant the improvement is.

	Tox21	ToxCast	Sider	ClinTox	MUV	HIV	BBBP	Bace	Average
# graphs	7,831	8,575	1,427	1,478	93,087	41,127	2,039	1,513	-
No pretrain	74.6 (0.4)	61.7 (0.5)	58.2 (1.7)	58.4 (6.4)	70.7 (1.8)	75.5 (0.8)	65.7 (3.3)	72.4 (3.8)	67.15
InfoGraph [38]	73.3 (0.6)	61.8 (0.4)	58.7 (0.6)	75.4 (4.3)	74.4 (1.8)	74.2 (0.9)	68.7 (0.6)	74.3 (2.6)	70.10
EdgePred [17]	76.0 (0.6)	62.8 (0.6)	60.4 (0.7)	64.1 (3.7)	75.1 (1.2)	76.3 (1.0)	67.3 (2.4)	77.3 (3.5)	70.08
AttrMasking [17]	75.1 (0.9)	63.3 (0.6)	60.5 (0.9)	73.5 (4.3)	75.8 (1.0)	75.3 (1.5)	65.2 (1.4)	77.8 (1.8)	70.81
GPT-GNN [18]	74.9 (0.3)	62.5 (0.4)	58.1 (0.3)	58.3 (5.2)	75.9 (2.3)	65.2 (2.1)	64.5 (1.4)	77.9 (3.2)	68.45
ContextPred [17]	73.9(0.5)	62.8(0.3)	59.9(1.6)	74.3(3.2)	72.4(1.8)	75.6(1.0)	70.8(1.4)	78.5(1.3)	71.03
GraphLoG \diamond [51]	75.0(0.6)	63.4(0.6)	59.6(1.9)	75.7(2.4)	75.5(1.6)	76.1(0.8)	68.7(1.6)	78.6(1.0)	71.56
G-Contextual [33]	75.3(0.4)	62.4(0.5)	58.5(1.1)	60.3(4.8)	72.3(0.9)	76.5(1.3)	69.7(1.8)	78.2(1.2)	69.33
G-Motif [33]	73.2(0.6)	62.0(0.8)	61.1(1.2)	77.5(2.5)	73.4(1.6)	73.3(1.5)	66.6(2.6)	73.3 (3.1)	70.05
AD-GCL [40]	74.6(0.2)	63.6(0.4)	61.4(0.8)	76.3 (2.4)	72.4(1.5)	75.8(1.0)	69.5 (0.6)	75.5(1.2)	71.14
KCL [10]	74.5(0.3)	62.7(0.7)	59.6(0.9)	65.5(5.5)	73.4(2.6)	75.7(0.6)	65.0(1.1)	74.0 (1.5)	68.80
GraphMAE \diamond [16]	75.2(0.9)	63.6(0.3)	60.5(1.2)	76.5(3.0)	76.4(2.0)	76.8(0.6)	71.2(1.0)	78.2(1.5)	72.30
D-SLA \diamond [22]	75.3(0.4)	63.2(0.3)	60.8(1.2)	76.6(2.8)	76.2(1.5)	76.6(1.4)	69.8(0.8)	78.3(1.4)	72.10
JOAO [53]	74.8 (0.6)	62.8 (0.7)	60.4 (1.5)	66.6 (3.1)	76.6 (1.7)	76.9 (0.7)	66.4 (1.0)	73.2 (1.6)	69.71
SimGRACE [47]	74.4 (0.3)	62.6 (0.7)	60.2 (0.9)	75.5 (2.0)	75.4 (1.3)	75.0 (0.6)	71.0 (1.1)	74.9 (2.0)	71.15
GraphCL [54]	75.1 (0.7)	63.0 (0.4)	59.8 (1.3)	77.5 (3.8)	76.4 (0.4)	75.1 (0.7)	67.8 (2.4)	74.6 (2.1)	71.16
MGSSL [57]	75.2(0.6)	63.3(0.5)	61.6(1.0)	77.1(4.5)	77.6(0.4)	75.8(0.4)	68.8(0.6)	78.8(0.9)	72.28
GraphMVP [26]	75.9(0.5)	63.1(0.2)	60.2(1.1)	79.1(2.8)	77.7(0.6)	76.0(0.1)	70.8(0.5)	79.3(1.5)	72.76
Vanilla Average	73.8(1.0)	60.2(0.7)	58.5(1.3)	57.0(5.2)	71.5(0.9)	75.2(1.7)	65.6(1.1)	70.9(1.8)	66.59
Concatenation	75.5(0.7)	62.7(1.0)	62.8(0.9)	77.8(3.5)	76.3(0.6)	75.7(1.3)	70.3(0.7)	77.9(1.1)	72.38
Ensemble	76.1(0.1)	64.3(0.2)	63.1(1.0)	78.2(1.5)	77.8(0.2)	77.1(0.3)	<u>71.4(0.5)</u>	77.6(0.8)	73.20
Model Fusion	75.7(0.3)	63.0(0.1)	60.7(0.7)	77.4(2.1)	77.3(0.2)	75.8(0.5)	70.4(0.5)	76.3(1.0)	72.08
UniGM-F (RNN)	<u>77.2</u> ⁺ (0.4)	<u>64.9</u> ⁺ (0.5)	64.6 [*] (0.9)	80.3 [*] (1.8)	<u>78.9</u> ⁺ (1.1)	<u>77.6</u> [*] (0.8)	71.3(0.5)	<u>80.4</u> [*] (1.4)	<u>74.40</u>
UniGM-T (RNN)	78.0 ⁺ (0.5)	65.3 ⁺ (0.3)	<u>64.2</u> [*] (1.3)	<u>79.5</u> [*] (2.7)	79.7 ⁺ (0.7)	78.2 ⁺ (1.0)	71.9 [*] (0.9)	81.3 [*] (1.2)	74.78

The number of GMs. We also study the influence of the number of GMs by sequentially adding the following six GMs: EdgePred, InfoGraph, SimGRACE, GraphCL, GraphMVP, and MGSSL. We conduct experiments on Toxcast dataset. ‘Best single model’ refers to the GM whose performance is the best in the models’ pool. As shown in Table 7, UniGM consistently outperforms the best single model. Additionally, UniGM performs better with more GMs. However, the memory consumption which increases with the number of GMs linearly will limit the practical applications.

Alignment, aggregation module, and RAPNet. For the alignment module of UniGM, we remove it and observe performance

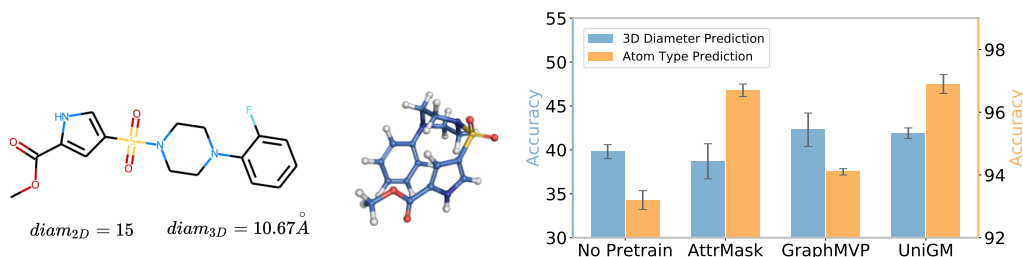
drops in Table 8. Additionally, we substitute RAPNet with an MLP-based policy network. Specifically, the MLP takes the output of the last layer as input and outputs the aggregation policy followed by softmax function. Also, we try various RNNs for RAPNet. RAPNet with RNNs outperforms MLP-based policy networks, verifying that modeling the dependency between different layers is necessary and conducive. Secondly, RAPNet with RNN performs better than LSTM and Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) in general. For both UniGM and He-UniGM, we replace the adaptive aggregation with vanilla average and random aggregation. The results indicate that the learned importance of each GM is meaningful.

Table 2: Results for heterogeneous GMs. Model fusion and vanilla average cannot work in this setting.

	Tox21	ToxCast	Sider	ClinTox	MUV	HIV	BBBP	Bace	Average
GraphCL (6-layer GCN)	74.2(0.6)	61.5(0.7)	61.3(1.7)	75.0(3.6)	76.3(0.9)	74.6(0.7)	65.6(2.1)	71.2(3.9)	70.01
GraphMVP (3-layer GIN)	72.6(0.4)	60.2(0.4)	58.3(1.1)	63.6(3.6)	72.1(1.1)	74.2(0.6)	64.1(1.5)	65.7(2.2)	66.35
SimGRACE (5-layer GIN)	74.4 (0.3)	62.6 (0.7)	60.2 (0.9)	75.5 (2.0)	75.4 (1.3)	75.0 (0.6)	71.0 (1.1)	74.9 (2.0)	71.15
MGSSL (4-layer GraphSAGE)	73.8(0.5)	61.8(0.3)	59.1(1.5)	66.2(4.2)	76.2(1.2)	73.6(0.5)	68.6(1.2)	72.6(2.1)	68.99
Concatenation	75.0(0.4)	61.6(0.7)	61.9 (1.0)	75.0(4.2)	77.5(0.6)	75.4(0.9)	71.0(1.5)	74.8(2.0)	71.53
Ensemble	75.3(0.2)	62.9(0.2)	62.5(1.4)	76.6(4.1)	77.3(0.3)	76.0(0.4)	70.3(0.3)	75.4(1.7)	72.04
He-UniGM (5-layer GIN)	76.7⁺(0.7)	63.8⁺(0.5)	63.6[*](0.7)	75.4(2.5)	78.5⁺(1.2)	77.6⁺(0.8)	71.6⁺(1.2)	77.5[*](1.4)	73.08

Table 3: Results for protein function prediction and research field prediction.

Methods	No pre-train	Infomax	EdgePred	ContextPred	AttrMask	Concatenation	Model Fusion	Ensemble	UniGM-F	UniGM-T
Protein function prediction	64.8(1.0)	64.1(1.5)	65.7(1.3)	65.2(1.6)	64.4(1.3)	66.1(0.9)	64.9(1.7)	66.4(0.8)	68.1(1.2)	68.6(1.4)
Research field prediction	69.01(0.23)	69.54(0.08)	69.43(0.07)	69.37 (0.21)	68.61(0.16)	69.91(0.25)	68.14(0.09)	70.21(0.11)	71.69(0.20)	72.85(0.17)

**Figure 4: Left: An example of 3D Diameter Prediction task in [26]. Right: The performance of GraphMVP, AttrMask and UniGM in the two tasks. UniGM acquire the specialized abilities of AttrMask and GraphMVP.****Table 4: Comparisons of training and inference time on the same device in the homogeneous setting.**

Methods	ToxCast		Sider	
	Training	Inference	Training	Inference
Single GM	368.3 s	102.8 s	88.1 s	37.6 s
Model Fusion	531.2 s	115.5 s	120.8 s	39.9 s
Ensemble	1536.7 s	442.8 s	370.1 s	135.4 s
UniGM-T	981.2 s	211.7 s	215.6 s	64.8 s
UniGM-F	778.4 s	195.6 s	176.5 s	56.5 s

Table 5: Comparisons of training and inference time on the same device in the heterogeneous setting.

Methods	ToxCast		Sider	
	Training	Inference	Training	Inference
GraphCL (6-layer GCN)	415.9 s	116.8 s	95.4 s	46.3 s
GraphMVP (3-layer GIN)	222.6 s	64.5 s	54.6 s	25.8 s
SimGRACE (5-layer GIN)	368.3 s	102.8 s	88.1 s	37.6 s
MGSSL (4-layer GraphSAGE)	235.7 s	68.9 s	61.8 s	29.3 s
Ensemble	1482.5 s	361.2 s	329.7 s	151.8 s
He-UniGM	916.6 s	98.5 s	205.7 s	36.3 s

4.5 Results for Pre-trained Models in Multiple Modalities

As we mentioned in the main text, our approaches are not limited to GNNs scenarios but could be flexibly applied to various scenarios such as in NLP or computer vision (CV). In this section, we unify the pre-trained models in CV and NLP. For pre-trained vision models, we unify 5 representative pre-trained vision models: (1) Supervised pre-trained models on ImageNet [34]; (2) Unsupervised pre-trained

Table 6: The influence of GMs' diversity for UniGM.

Methods	4 × MGSSL (UniGM-T)	4 × MGSSL (UniGM-F)	UniGM-F	UniGM-T
Sider	62.0(0.9)	61.5(1.3)	64.6(0.9)	64.2(1.3)
Toxcast	63.1(0.8)	63.0(0.1)	64.9(0.5)	65.3(0.3)
Tox21	76.6(0.1)	75.8(0.5)	77.2(0.4)	78.0(0.5)

Table 7: The influence of the number of GMs.

Num. of GMs	2	3	4	5	6
Best single model	62.8(0.6)	62.8(0.6)	63.0(0.4)	63.1(0.2)	63.3(0.5)
UniGM-F	63.3(0.5)	64.2(0.2)	64.5(0.3)	64.0(0.6)	64.5(1.1)
UniGM-T	63.7(0.1)	64.8(0.5)	65.3(0.3)	65.9(0.5)	65.5(0.7)

Table 8: Ablations on alignment, RAPNet of UniGM, and the aggregation of He-UniGM.

Methods	Tox21	Toxcast	Sider
UniGM-T w/o alignment	75.4(1.0)	63.8(0.1)	61.5(2.1)
UniGM-T with MLP	76.7(0.2)	63.6(0.7)	63.0(1.5)
UniGM-T with GRU	77.2(0.2)	64.5(0.5)	62.9(0.7)
UniGM-T with LSTM	77.7(0.6)	64.8(0.3)	63.8(1.0)
UniGM-T (Vanilla average)	76.6(1.0)	63.0(0.7)	62.1(1.2)
UniGM-T (Random aggregation)	76.4(0.8)	63.5(0.9)	62.6(0.6)
UniGM-T	78.0(0.5)	65.3(0.3)	64.2(1.3)
UniGM-F w/o alignment	75.1(0.7)	63.6(1.1)	61.7(1.3)
UniGM-F with MLP	75.9(0.7)	63.4(0.9)	63.5(0.9)
UniGM-F with GRU	76.5(0.6)	63.8(0.1)	64.1(0.7)
UniGM-F with LSTM	77.5(0.8)	64.3(0.4)	64.3(1.1)
UniGM-F (Vanilla average)	75.6(1.3)	63.2(0.5)	62.4(1.5)
UniGM-F (Random aggregation)	75.4(1.1)	63.0(0.7)	62.0(1.6)
UniGM-F	77.2 (0.4)	64.9(0.5)	64.6(0.9)
He-UniGM (Vanilla average)	75.8(0.1)	62.2(0.6)	62.8(1.6)
He-UniGM (Random aggregation)	75.4(0.7)	62.5(0.3)	62.5(1.1)
He-UniGM	76.7(0.7)	63.8(0.5)	63.6(0.7)

Table 9: UniGM for pre-trained vision models (top-1 accuracy).

Models	CIFAR-100	COCO-70
ImageNet Supervised	81.18	81.97
MOCO	75.31	75.66
Mask R-CNN	79.12	81.64
DeepLabV3	78.76	80.70
Keypoint R-CNN	76.38	76.53
Model Fusion	80.77	81.74
Ensemble	82.18	82.42
UniGM-F	83.56	83.86
UniGM-T	83.83	84.69

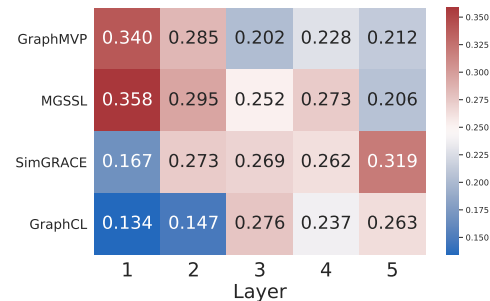
Table 10: UniGM for pre-trained language models.

Models	SST-2 (Acc.)	RTE (Acc.)
BERT	92.1	65.8
RoBERTa	92.9	68.9
UniLM	93.3	70.6
Model Fusion	93.5	71.9
Ensemble	93.8	72.7
UniGM-F	94.2	74.8
UniGM-T	94.6	75.7

models with MOCO [14] on ImageNet; (3) Mask R-CNN [15] model

for detection and instance segmentation; (4) DeepLabV3 [5] model for semantic segmentation; (5) Keypoint R-CNN model for keypoint detection, pre-trained on COCO-2017 challenge datasets of each task. All these pre-trained models are from torchvision or original implementation. For pre-trained language models, we combine BERT [7], RoBERTa [27] and UniLM [8]. We conduct experiments on two text datasets with different sizes. The first one is SST-2 [37], which is a benchmark for text sentiment classification. The second one is RTE [3], which is a widely used dataset for natural language inference. The results can be seen in Table 9 and Table 10, from which we can observe that UniGM consistently outperforms each single model and competitive baselines including ensemble and model fusion. Compared with the graph domain, the superiority of UniGM in CV or NLP domains is even more pronounced.

4.6 Visualization Analysis

**Figure 5: Visualization of the learned aggregation policy.**

We visualize the learned aggregation policy for diverse GMs on Toxcast dataset in Figure 5. As can be observed, the policies vary significantly across different GMs and layers, which coincides with previous literatures that claim different pre-trained models have different relations to the downstream tasks and different layers can capture different knowledge [23, 56]. Concretely, GMs such as GraphMVP and MGSSL that introduce external knowledge outweigh the contrastive GMs including SimGRACE and GraphCL. Additionally, the higher layer of SimGRACE and GraphCL are generally more important for downstream tasks.

5 Conclusion

In this paper, we make one of the first attempts to unify multiple pre-trained GMs for better performance in downstream tasks. Specifically, we propose UniGM whose variants can integrate both homogeneous and heterogeneous pre-trained models into a unified one in an effective and efficient manner. The empirical results suggest that UniGM can achieve better performance in various downstream tasks. Currently, tremendous efforts are devoted to designing pre-training strategies for multiple modalities. Despite the fruitful progress, exploring more effective and efficient ways to leverage pre-trained models warrant further research in the future.

Acknowledgments

This work has been partially supported by the ZJNSF Major Program under grant No. LD24F020013, by the National Key R&D Program of China under grant No. 2022YFF0902600, by the Fundamental Research Funds for the Central Universities of China under grant No. 226-2024-00140, and by the ZJU Education Foundation's Qizhen Talent program.

References

- [1] Stephen Ashmore and Michael Gashler. 2015. A method for finding similarity between multi-layer perceptrons by Forward Bipartite Alignment. In *2015 International Joint Conference on Neural Networks (IJCNN)*. IEEE, 1–7.
- [2] Jonathan F Bard. 2013. *Practical bilevel optimization: algorithms and applications*. Vol. 30. Springer Science & Business Media.
- [3] Luisa Bentivogli, Peter Clark, Ido Dagan, and Danilo Giampiccolo. 2009. The Fifth PASCAL Recognizing Textual Entailment Challenge. In *TAC*.
- [4] Tom Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared D Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, et al. 2020. Language models are few-shot learners. *Advances in neural information processing systems* 33 (2020), 1877–1901.
- [5] Liang-Chieh Chen, Yukun Zhu, George Papandreou, Florian Schroff, and Hartwig Adam. 2018. Encoder-decoder with atrous separable convolution for semantic image segmentation. In *Proceedings of the European conference on computer vision (ECCV)*. 801–818.
- [6] Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2018. Bert: Pre-training of deep bidirectional transformers for language understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805* (2018).
- [7] Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. 2019. BERT: Pre-training of Deep Bidirectional Transformers for Language Understanding. *north american chapter of the association for computational linguistics* (2019).
- [8] Li Dong, Nan Yang, Wenhui Wang, Furu Wei, Xiaodong Liu, Yu Wang, Jianfeng Gao, Ming Zhou, and Hsiao-Wuen Hon. 2019. Unified language model pre-training for natural language understanding and generation. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 32 (2019).
- [9] Xibin Dong, Zhiwen Yu, Wenming Cao, Yifan Shi, and Qianli Ma. 2020. A survey on ensemble learning. *Frontiers of Computer Science* 14, 2 (2020), 241–258.
- [10] Yin Fang, Qiang Zhang, Haihong Yang, Xiang Zhuang, Shumin Deng, Wen Zhang, Ming Qin, Zhuo Chen, Xiaohui Fan, and Huajun Chen. 2022. Molecular Contrastive Learning with Chemical Element Knowledge Graph. In *Proceedings of the Thirty-Sixth AAAI Conference on Artificial Intelligence (AAAI)*.
- [11] Luca Franceschi, Michele Donini, Paolo Frasconi, and Massimiliano Pontil. 2017. Forward and reverse gradient-based hyperparameter optimization. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*. PMLR, 1165–1173.
- [12] Xueting Han, Zhenhuan Huang, Bang An, and Jing Bai. 2021. Adaptive Transfer Learning on Graph Neural Networks. In *Proceedings of the 27th ACM SIGKDD Conference on Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*. 565–574.
- [13] Kaveh Hassani and Amir Hoseni Khasahmadi. 2020. Contrastive Multi-View Representation Learning on Graphs. In *Proceedings of International Conference on Machine Learning*. 3451–3461.
- [14] Kaiming He, Haoqi Fan, Yuxin Wu, Saining Xie, and Ross Girshick. 2020. Momentum contrast for unsupervised visual representation learning. In *Proceedings of the IEEE/CVF Conference on Computer Vision and Pattern Recognition*. 9729–9738.
- [15] Kaiming He, Georgia Gkioxari, Piotr Dollár, and Ross Girshick. 2017. Mask r-cnn. In *Proceedings of the IEEE international conference on computer vision*. 2961–2969.
- [16] Zhenyu Hou, Xiao Liu, Yukuo Cen, Yuxiao Dong, Hongxia Yang, Chunjie Wang, and Jie Tang. 2022. GraphMAE: Self-Supervised Masked Graph Autoencoders. *arXiv e-prints* (2022), arXiv–2205.
- [17] Weihua Hu*, Bowen Liu*, Joseph Gomes, Marinka Zitnik, Percy Liang, Vijay Pande, and Jure Leskovec. 2020. Strategies for Pre-training Graph Neural Networks. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*. <https://openreview.net/forum?id=HJlWVJ5FDH>
- [18] Ziniu Hu, Yuxiao Dong, Kuansan Wang, Kai-Wei Chang, and Yizhou Sun. 2020. Gpt-gnn: Generative pre-training of graph neural networks. In *ACM SIGKDD International Conference on Knowledge Discovery & Data Mining, KDD*. 1857–1867.
- [19] Hang Hua, Xingjian Li, Dejing Dou, Cheng-Zhong Xu, and Jiebo Luo. 2021. Noise stability regularization for improving BERT fine-tuning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2107.04835* (2021).
- [20] Simon Jenni and Paolo Favaro. 2018. Deep bilevel learning. In *Proceedings of the European conference on computer vision (ECCV)*. 618–633.
- [21] Wei Jin, Xiaorui Liu, Xiangyu Zhao, Yao Ma, Neil Shah, and Jiliang Tang. 2022. Automated Self-Supervised Learning for Graphs. In *ICLR*. OpenReview.net.
- [22] Dongki Kim, Jinheon Baek, and Sung Ju Hwang. 2022. Graph Self-supervised Learning with Accurate Discrepancy Learning. In *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, Alice H. Oh, Alekh Agarwal, Danielle Belgrave, and Kyunghyun Cho (Eds.). <https://openreview.net/forum?id=JY6fLgR8Yq>
- [23] Honglak Lee, Chaitanya Ekanadham, and Andrew Ng. 2007. Sparse deep belief net model for visual area V2. *Advances in neural information processing systems* 20 (2007).
- [24] Pengyong Li, Jun Wang, Yixuan Qiao, Hao Chen, Yihuan Yu, Xiaojun Yao, Peng Gao, Guotong Xie, and Sen Song. 2021. An effective self-supervised framework for learning expressive molecular global representations to drug discovery. *Briefings in Bioinformatics* 22, 6 (2021), bbab109.
- [25] Sihang Li, Xiang Wang, An Zhang, Yingxin Wu, Xiangnan He, and Tat-Seng Chua. 2022. Let Invariant Rationale Discovery Inspire Graph Contrastive Learning. In *ICML (Proceedings of Machine Learning Research, Vol. 162)*. PMLR, 13052–13065.
- [26] Shengchao Liu, Hanchen Wang, Weiyang Liu, Joan Lasenby, Hongyu Guo, and Jian Tang. 2022. Pre-training Molecular Graph Representation with 3D Geometry. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*. <https://openreview.net/forum?id=xQUe1pOKPam>
- [27] Yinhan Liu, Myle Ott, Naman Goyal, Jingfei Du, Mandar Joshi, Danqi Chen, Omer Levy, Mike Lewis, Luke Zettlemoyer, and Veselin Stoyanov. 2019. Roberta: A robustly optimized bert pretraining approach. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1907.11692* (2019).
- [28] Yuanfu Lu, Xunqiang Jiang, Yuan Fang, and Chuan Shi. 2021. Learning to Pre-train Graph Neural Networks. In *AAAI*. AAAI Press, 4276–4284.
- [29] Larry Medsker and Lakhmi C Jain. 1999. *Recurrent neural networks: design and applications*. CRC press.
- [30] Dang Nguyen, Khai Nguyen, Dinh Phung, Hung Bui, and Nhat Ho. 2021. Model Fusion of Heterogeneous Neural Networks via Cross-Layer Alignment. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2110.15538* (2021).
- [31] Adam Paszke, Sam Gross, Francisco Massa, Adam Lerer, James Bradbury, Gregory Chanan, Trevor Killeen, Zeming Lin, Natalia Gimelshein, Luca Antiga, et al. 2019. Pytorch: An imperative style, high-performance deep learning library. *Advances in neural information processing systems* 32 (2019).
- [32] Jiezhong Qiu, Qibin Chen, Yuxiao Dong, Jing Zhang, Hongxia Yang, Ming Ding, Kuansan Wang, and Jie Tang. 2020. GCC: Graph Contrastive Coding for Graph Neural Network Pre-Training. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.09963* (2020).
- [33] Yu Rong, Yatao Bian, Tingyang Xu, Weiyang Xie, Ying Wei, Wenbing Huang, and Junzhou Huang. 2020. Self-supervised graph transformer on large-scale molecular data. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 33 (2020), 12559–12571.
- [34] Olga Russakovsky, Jia Deng, Hao Su, Jonathan Krause, Sanjeev Berneise, Sean Ma, Zhileng Huang, Andrej Karpathy, Aditya Khosla, Michael Bernstein, et al. 2015. Imagenet large scale visual recognition challenge. *International journal of computer vision* 115, 3 (2015), 211–252.
- [35] Robert E Schapire. 1999. A brief introduction to boosting. In *Ijcai*, Vol. 99. Citeseer, 1401–1406.
- [36] Sidak Pal Singh and Martin Jaggi. 2020. Model fusion via optimal transport. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 33 (2020), 22045–22055.
- [37] Richard Socher, Alex Perelygin, Jean Wu, Jason Chuang, Christopher D Manning, Andrew Y Ng, and Christopher Potts. 2013. Recursive deep models for semantic compositionality over a sentiment treebank. In *Proceedings of the 2013 conference on empirical methods in natural language processing*. 1631–1642.
- [38] Fan-Yun Sun, Jordan Hoffman, Vikas Verma, and Jian Tang. 2020. InfoGraph: Unsupervised and Semi-supervised Graph-Level Representation Learning via Mutual Information Maximization. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*. <https://openreview.net/forum?id=r1Hf2NYvH>
- [39] Mengying Sun, Jing Xing, Huijun Wang, Bin Chen, and Jiayu Zhou. 2021. MoCL: Contrastive Learning on Molecular Graphs with Multi-level Domain Knowledge. *KDD* (2021).
- [40] Sushel Suresh, Pan Li, Cong Hao, and Jennifer Neville. 2021. Adversarial graph augmentation to improve graph contrastive learning. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 34 (2021).
- [41] Shantanu Thakoor, Corentin Tallec, Mohammad Gheshlaghi Azar, Mehdi Azabou, Eva L Dyer, Remi Munos, Petar Veličković, and Michal Valko. 2022. Large-Scale Representation Learning on Graphs via Bootstrapping. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*. <https://openreview.net/forum?id=0UXT6PpRpW>
- [42] Joachim Utans. 1996. Weight averaging for neural networks and local resampling schemes. In *Proc. AAAI-96 Workshop on Integrating Multiple Learned Models*. AAAI Press. Citeseer, 133–138.
- [43] Hongyi Wang, Mikhail Yurochkin, Yuekai Sun, Dimitris Papaliopoulos, and Yasaman Khazaeni. 2020. Federated Learning with Matched Averaging. In *International Conference on Learning Representations*. <https://openreview.net/forum?id=BkluqSFD5>
- [44] Yuyang Wang, Jianren Wang, Zhonglin Cao, and Amir Barati Farimani. 2022. Molecular contrastive learning of representations via graph neural networks. *Nature Machine Intelligence* 4, 3 (2022), 279–287.
- [45] David H Wolpert. 1992. Stacked generalization. *Neural networks* 5, 2 (1992), 241–259.
- [46] Zhenqin Wu, Bharath Ramsundar, Evan N Feinberg, Joseph Gomes, Caleb Geniesse, Aneesh S Pappu, Karl Leswing, and Vijay Pande. 2018. MoleculeNet: a benchmark for molecular machine learning. *Chemical science* 9, 2 (2018), 513–530.

- [47] Jun Xia, Lirong Wu, Jintao Chen, Bozhen Hu, and Stan Z. Li. 2022. SimGRACE: A Simple Framework for Graph Contrastive Learning without Data Augmentation. In *Proceedings of The Web Conference 2022*. Association for Computing Machinery.
- [48] Jun Xia, Jiangbin Zheng, Cheng Tan, Ge Wang, and Stan Z Li. 2022. Towards effective and generalizable fine-tuning for pre-trained molecular graph models. *bioRxiv* (2022).
- [49] Jun Xia, Yanqiao Zhu, Yuanqi Du, and Stan Z. Li. 2022. Pre-training Graph Neural Networks for Molecular Representations: Retrospect and Prospect. In *ICML 2022 2nd AI for Science Workshop*. <https://openreview.net/forum?id=dhXLLkrY2Nj3>
- [50] Keyulu Xu, Weihua Hu, Jure Leskovec, and Stefanie Jegelka. 2019. How Powerful are Graph Neural Networks?. In *ICLR*.
- [51] Minghao Xu, Hang Wang, Bingbing Ni, Hongyu Guo, and Jian Tang. 2021. Self-supervised graph-level representation learning with local and global structure. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*. PMLR, 11548–11558.
- [52] Jason Yosinski, Jeff Clune, Yoshua Bengio, and Hod Lipson. 2014. How transferable are features in deep neural networks? *Advances in neural information processing systems* 27 (2014).
- [53] Yuning You, Tianlong Chen, Yang Shen, and Zhangyang Wang. 2021. Graph contrastive learning automated. In *International Conference on Machine Learning*. PMLR, 12121–12132.
- [54] Yuning You, Tianlong Chen, Yongduo Sui, Ting Chen, Zhangyang Wang, and Yang Shen. 2020. Graph contrastive learning with augmentations. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 33 (2020), 5812–5823.
- [55] Chuxu Zhang, Dongjin Song, Chao Huang, Ananthram Swami, and Nitesh V Chawla. 2019. Heterogeneous graph neural network. In *Proceedings of the 25th ACM SIGKDD international conference on knowledge discovery & data mining*. 793–803.
- [56] Tianyi Zhang, Felix Wu, Arzoo Katiyar, Kilian Q Weinberger, and Yoav Artzi. 2020. Revisiting few-sample BERT fine-tuning. *arXiv preprint arXiv:2006.05987* (2020).
- [57] Zaixi Zhang, Qi Liu, Hao Wang, Chengqiang Lu, and Chee-Kong Lee. 2021. Motif-based graph self-supervised learning for molecular property prediction. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* 34 (2021), 15870–15882.
- [58] Yanqiao Zhu, Yichen Xu, Feng Yu, Qiang Liu, Shu Wu, and Liang Wang. 2021. Graph contrastive learning with adaptive augmentation. In *Proceedings of the Web Conference 2021*. 2069–2080.