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# MolSiam: Simple Siamese Self-supervised Representation Learning for Small Molecules

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## Abstract

1 We investigate a self-supervised learning technique from the Simple Siamese (Sim-  
2 Siam) Representation Learning framework on 2D molecule graphs. SimSiam does  
3 not require negative samples during training, making it 1) more computationally ef-  
4 ficient and 2) less vulnerable to faulty negatives compared with contrastive learning.  
5 Leveraging unlabeled molecular data, we demonstrate that our approach, MolSiam,  
6 effectively captures the underlying features of molecules and shows that those with  
7 similar properties tend to cluster in UMAP analysis. By fine-tuning pre-trained  
8 MolSiam models, we observe performance improvements across four downstream  
9 therapeutic property prediction tasks without training with negative pairs.

## 10 1 Introduction

11 Machine learning (ML) is a rapidly growing field that has significantly contributed to molecular  
12 design for drug discovery [1, 2], which is traditionally a complex and time-consuming process.  
13 Studies have shown that supervised machine learning algorithms can predict drug efficacy, toxicity,  
14 and side effects [3], providing a promising approach to reduce the number of failed drug candidates  
15 and lower the cost of development. Deep learning, particularly graph neural networks (GNN), has  
16 played a significant role in designing and characterizing small molecule therapeutics [4].

17 Despite the success of supervised learning in molecular property prediction, obtaining labeled  
18 experimental data can be costly and time-consuming. Given the scarcity of labeled data (typically  
19  $10^2 - 10^4$  examples per task), supervised learning methods usually face a significant obstacle to  
20 learning a generalized representation of the vast chemical landscape [5, 6].

21 Numerous approaches have been suggested to learn effective molecular representations. In [7, 8], the  
22 authors show pre-training on the graph is beneficial for downstream molecular property prediction.  
23 [9] reviews the variational autoencoder (VAE) as a tool for representation learning on SMILES strings.  
24 [10, 11] utilize SMILES strings with BERT-like [12] pretraining to learn molecular representations.  
25 [13] introduce ChemGPT for joint representation learning and generation for molecules using  
26 SELFIES. [14] propose a novel geometry-enhanced molecular representation learning method (GEM).

27 In recent years, self-supervised learning (SSL) with pairwise augmentation has also shown promising  
28 results on computer vision tasks [15, 16, 17, 18], as well as for pre-training with applications to graph-  
29 structured data [19, 20]. Among them, contrastive learning (CLR) has been explored [19] for learning  
30 molecular representations and pre-training for downstream tasks, while other SSL frameworks like  
31 Bootstrap Your Own Latent (BYOL) [16] [17] [18] for molecules drug discovery. [21, 22, 23]  
32 use contrastive learning on protein sequences and 3D structures. [24] used Barlow twins [25] and  
33 SimSiam for material property prediction. In this study, we investigate a self-supervised learning  
34 technique from the Simple Siamese (SimSiam) Representation Learning framework on molecular

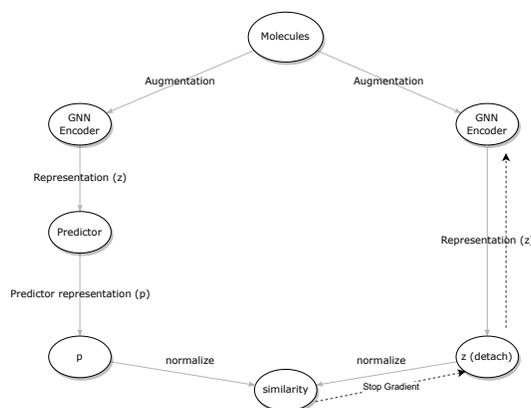


Figure 1: The MolSiam pipeline: we utilize Siamese GNN encoders for pre-training. One of the representations  $z$  from the encoder is further passed into the predictor MLP to get the predictor representation  $p$ . The loss function is the similarity between  $p$  and  $z$  while  $z$  is detached, which stops the gradient.

35 2D graphs. We demonstrate that molecular ML models pre-trained with SimSiam, herein called  
 36 MolSiam, can improve downstream performance on a number of molecular property prediction tasks  
 37 in drug discovery.

## 38 2 Related Work

### 39 2.1 Contrastive Learning and MolCLR

40 SSL is a widely-adopted approach for model pre-training [15, 17, 20, 18, 16]. A recent SSL approach,  
 41 Molecular Contrastive Learning of Representations (MolCLR), was demonstrated to be effective for  
 42 improving the performance of 2D GNNs in QM property prediction [19]. Common augmentation  
 43 tasks in graph processing involve techniques such as subgraph masking and randomly removing  
 44 nodes or edges. Graphs augmented from a shared source are considered positive pairs, whereas those  
 45 generated from distinct sources are regarded as negative pairs. The objective of pre-training is to  
 46 maximize the similarity between positive pairs and minimize the similarity between negative pairs in  
 47 the embedding space, known as the normalized temperature-scaled cross entropy loss (*NT-Xent loss*)  
 48 [15].

49 The contrastive objective may erroneously treat identical or similar augmented graphs from different  
 50 examples in a dataset as negative pairs. This is particularly relevant in small-molecule design, where  
 51 new designs may only be slight variations on a common scaffold. This raises the concern that  
 52 embeddings of very similar graphs may be separated, which goes against the spirit of contrastive  
 53 learning. For example, [26] found faulty negatives could hurt the performance of downstream tasks  
 54 in the MolCLR setting and hence incorporate cheminformatics similarities between molecule pairs.

55 SimCLR, SwAV[17], BYOL [16], and SimSiam are all self-supervised learning algorithms. SimCLR  
 56 uses contrastive learning techniques to maximize the agreement between augmented views of the  
 57 same sample and minimize the similarity between negative pairs. BYOL removes the necessity of  
 58 negative pairs but requires large batch sizes (e.g. 4096) to have a significant effect.

### 59 2.2 SimSiam (positive-only non-CLR)

60 SimSiam provides an elegant way to perform self-supervised learning with only positive pairs and  
 61 a smaller batch size (e.g., 256), making it an adequate framework for pre-training for most of the  
 62 use cases without access to substantial computational resources. SimSiam is an easily implemented  
 63 non-CLR mechanism widely used and studied in computer vision [18]. In both the CLR and SimSiam  
 64 methods, samples generated from the same data inputs are considered positive pairs, and the model  
 65 is trained to increase the cosine similarity between their embeddings. However, in SimSiam, no

66 negative pairs are introduced. A major question of non-CLR methods like SimSiam is how to avoid  
67 collapse in representation space without negative samples.

68 To prevent the representations from collapsing into identical vectors while minimizing the loss,  
69 the authors in [18] claim that the use of a stopgrad operation with a Projector MLP is crucial  
70 (see Section 4). Recent works have demonstrated the potential of using SimSiam on molecular  
71 graphs and crystal structures [27, 24, 28]. [29] demonstrate that incorporating SimSiam networks  
72 on augmented views of 3D molecular structures increases manifold smoothness during supervised  
73 learning. However, the protocol requires 3D point cloud structures, which are not easy to obtain for  
74 large unlabeled molecular datasets for representation learning. Therefore, in this work, we study the  
75 Simple Siamese (SimSiam) Representation Learning framework on molecular 2D graphs.

## 76 3 Data

### 77 3.1 Pre-training Dataset

78 For MolSiam pre-training, we utilized approximately 10 million unique SMILES of unlabeled  
79 molecules obtained from PubChem [30, 31]. The molecule graphs were constructed using RDKit  
80 [32]. Each node in the molecule graph represents an atom, while each edge represents a chemical  
81 bond. The pre-training dataset was randomly divided into a 95:5 ratio for training and validation sets.

### 82 3.2 Downstream Dataset

83 To validate the effectiveness of MolSiam, a handful of datasets were selected from MoleculeNet  
84 [33] and the Therapeutic Data Commons (TDC) [34] for evaluation. Below is a brief overview  
85 of each dataset, and we encourage the reader to visit the MoleculeNet<sup>1</sup> and TDC<sup>2</sup> websites and  
86 original references for more information. All the downstream tasks are binary classification, the loss  
87 function for fine-tuning the GNN encoders is binary cross entropy (BCE), and the evaluation metric  
88 is `roc_auc_score`.

#### 89 3.2.1 Pgp

90 The **Pgp** dataset consists of 1,212 molecules with affinity labels for binding to P-glycoprotein  
91 receptors [35].

#### 92 3.2.2 BACE

93 The **BACE** dataset provides quantitative  $IC_{50}$  and qualitative (binary label) binding results for a set of  
94 inhibitors of human beta-secretase 1 (BACE-1). All data are experimental values reported in scientific  
95 literature over the past decade, some with detailed crystal structures available. A collection of 1522  
96 compounds is provided, along with the regression labels of  $IC_{50}$ .

#### 97 3.2.3 HIV

98 The AIDS Antiviral Screen dataset (**HIV**) is a dataset of screens over tens of thousands of compounds  
99 for evidence of anti-HIV activity [36]. The available screen results are chemical graph-structured  
100 data of these various compounds with experimentally measured abilities to inhibit HIV replication.

#### 101 3.2.4 Bioavailability

102 The **Bioavailability** dataset contains 640 drugs in SMILES representation. The dataset records the  
103 rate and extent to which the active ingredient or active moiety is absorbed from a drug product  
104 and becomes available at the site of action. The task is to predict bioavailability given a drug  
105 representation.

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<sup>1</sup><https://moleculenet.org/>

<sup>2</sup>[https://tdcommons.ai/single\\_pred\\_tasks/overview/](https://tdcommons.ai/single_pred_tasks/overview/)

## 106 4 Approach and Methods

107 There exist several methods for augmentation on graph data [37, 38]. Following MolCLR[19], we  
108 adopt a mixture of three augmentation strategies: 1) node removal, 2) bond (edge) removal, and 3)  
109 subgraph removal. We augment each input with the above transformations to create pairs, which are  
110 passed to the GNN encoder for representation learning (*vide infra*).

### 111 4.1 GIN encoder

112 We used Graph Isomorphism Network (GIN) as our encoder network [39, 19]. GINs aim to solve the  
113 graph isomorphism problem, which is the task of determining whether two graphs are structurally  
114 equivalent. To do this, GINs define a neural network architecture that maps nodes of a graph to a fixed-  
115 length vector representation, and the GIN is trained such that isomorphic graphs are mapped to the  
116 same representation. This allows the GIN to be used for tasks such as graph classification and graph  
117 similarity computation. Unlike other GNN models, which typically use graph convolutional layers to  
118 propagate information, GINs use multi-layer perceptrons (MLPs) to update the node representations.  
119 The MLPs in a GIN are designed to be permutation-invariant, meaning that they produce the same  
120 output regardless of the order of the input elements.

121 Our GIN has five hidden layers, each of which are followed by batch normalization (BN) and ReLU  
122 activation. Our hidden and embedding layers are of dimension 512 and 300, respectively, and mean  
123 pooling is applied at the output for the GIN encoder.

### 124 4.2 Predictor

125 Our predictor is a two-layer MLP with bottleneck structure that was shown to be crucial to prevent  
126 representation collapse [18]. In this work, we kept the format of the predictor the same as in SimSiam.  
127 The prediction MLP ( $h$ ) has BN and ReLU applied to its hidden layers and not to the output layer.  
128 The dimension of  $h$ 's input and output ( $z$  and  $p$ ) is 512, and  $h$ 's hidden layer's dimension is 256,  
129 making  $h$  a bottleneck structure.

### 130 4.3 Loss function and stop gradient

131 For pre-training MolSiam, the loss for optimization combines symmetrized loss setting on representa-  
132 tion  $z$  and  $p$ . The term  $z$  is the direct output of the GNN encoder, and  $p$  is the output of  $h$ . We applied  
133 two augmentations on the same molecule graph to obtain  $(z_1, z_2)$  and  $(p_1, p_2)$ . The loss function is  
134 described as follows:

$$\mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}D(p_1, z_2) + \frac{1}{2}D(p_2, z_1), \quad (1)$$

$$\mathcal{D}(p, z) = - \left[ \frac{p}{\|p\|_2} \cdot \frac{z}{\|z\|_2} \right]. \quad (2)$$

135 We adopt the stopgrad operation on  $z$ . We use Adam as our pre-training optimizer. The batch size =  
136 512 and we train for 100 epochs with initial learning rate of 0.005 and weight decay of  $10^{-5}$ .

## 137 5 Results and Discussion

### 138 5.1 Representation Learning

139 To understand the molecular representations of MolSiam, learned through self-supervised learning,  
140 we first obtain the 512-dimensional molecular embeddings for the molecules of interest from the  
141 GIN-encoder. Then we use the UMAP algorithm [40] to reduce the dimensionality of the embeddings  
142 to a lower-dimensional space. Figure 3 shows the UMAP on the QM8 dataset[33], which has quantum  
143 energy labels. We notice that lower energy compounds (second-order approximate coupled-cluster,  
144 CC2, indicated by colorbar) tend to cluster together.

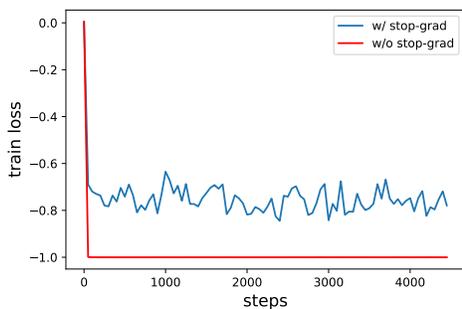


Figure 2: Training loss of the MolSiam during the pre-training stage. Without stop-gradient as the training starts, the loss function asymptotically approaches  $-1$  as soon as the training starts.

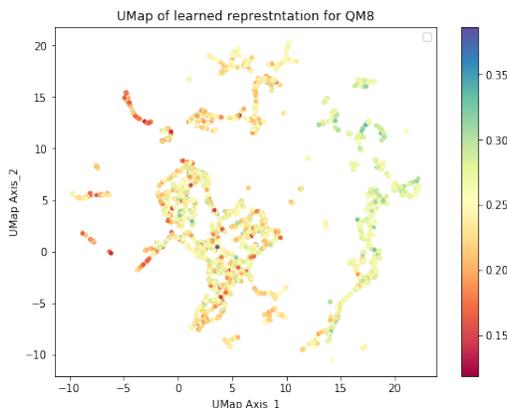


Figure 3: Visualization of molecular representations learned by MolSiam via umap with QM8 dataset.

## 145 5.2 Downstream task

146 As shown in Table 1, we found that pre-training with MolSiam improved performance in three of  
 147 the four downstream tasks, with the strongest improvement observed for **Pgp**. We also study the  
 148 difference in training loss function 1 similar to the ablation study done in [18] to understand the  
 149 impact of training with/without stopgrad. As shown in figure 2, without the stop-gradient, the loss  
 150 collapses immediately.

## 151 6 Conclusion and Outlook

152 We demonstrate MolSiam as an efficient and simple way of pre-training representation learners  
 153 for downstream molecular property prediction. For future work, there are many directions worth  
 154 exploring, including 1) augmentation strategy, 2) encoder architecture, 3) effect of the bottleneck in  
 155 prediction MLP, 4) effect of batch size, 5) effect of batch normalization on MLP heads, and 6) effect

Table 1: Downstream task RoC-AUC comparison of pre-trained MolSiam vs supervised-only models

Target	MolSiam	Supervised-only
BACE	<b>0.8523</b> $\pm$ <b>0.013</b>	0.8427 $\pm$ 0.019
HIV	0.7699 $\pm$ 0.039	<b>0.7731</b> $\pm$ <b>0.037</b>
Pgp	<b>0.7354</b> $\pm$ <b>0.011</b>	0.694 $\pm$ 0.026
Bioavailability	<b>0.6669</b> $\pm$ <b>0.025</b>	0.6595 $\pm$ 0.022

156 of (a)symmetrized loss hyper parameter. In addition, we plan to compare our approach with different  
157 baselines and more downstream tasks in future work.

158 In conclusion, we present MolSiam as a valuable approach to learning on molecular graphs. It  
159 benefits from vast amounts of unannotated chemical data, giving downstream models the potential  
160 to generalize to new chemical spaces and making it an attractive option for many applications in  
161 chemistry and drug discovery. With the increasing availability of large molecular datasets, self-  
162 supervised learning methods, including MolSiam, are likely to play a crucial role in advancing  
163 molecular representation learning and property prediction.

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