
PMechRP: Interpretable Deep Learning for Polar Reaction Prediction

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Abstract

1 In recent years, deep learning methods have been widely applied to chemical
2 reaction prediction due to the time consuming and resource intensive nature of
3 designing synthetic pathways. However, with the majority of models being trained
4 on the US Patent Office dataset, many proposed architectures lack interpretability
5 by modeling chemical reactions as overall transformations. These models map
6 directly from reactants to products, and provide minimal insight into the underlying
7 driving forces of a reaction. In order to improve interpretability and provide
8 insight into the causality of a chemical reaction, we train various machine learning
9 frameworks on the PMechDB dataset. This dataset contains polar elementary
10 steps, which model chemical reactions as a sequence of steps associated with
11 movements of electrons. Through training on PMechDB, we have created a new
12 system for polar mechanistic reaction prediction: PMechRP. Our findings indicate
13 that PMechRP is able to provide both accurate and interpretable predictions, with
14 a novel two-step transformer based method achieving the highest top-5 accuracy at
15 89.9%.

16 1 Introduction

17 Two main approaches exist for the prediction of chemical reactions: machine learning based methods,
18 and quantum chemistry based methods [1, 13, 5, 8]. While quantum chemistry models offer detailed
19 prediction of chemical properties, their computational demands render them feasible only for a
20 limited scope of reaction systems, precluding their use for broad-spectrum, high-throughput reaction
21 prediction. Conversely, ML models offer computational efficiency and scalability, making them
22 well-suited for application across larger chemical systems and datasets. Countless ML models have
23 been devised for tasks such as reaction yield prediction [16], reaction classification [14], chemical
24 property prediction [4, 2], and both forward and reverse reaction prediction [6, 20, 3, 10].
25

26 Although ML models offer a high-throughput and highly adaptable chemical prediction, a significant
27 drawback lies in their lack of interpretability when compared to quantum chemistry or simulation
28 based methods. The predominant approach of predicting reactions as overall transformations results
29 in a black-box scenario, where predicted products emerge directly from reactants without insight into
30 intermediate transition states. Although these models may achieve high accuracy on datasets like
31 the US Patent Office dataset [11], their outputs pose challenges for organic chemists, who typically
32 reason through chemical synthesis via arrow-pushing mechanisms rather than overall transformations.
33 An example of an overall transformation vs a mechanistic elementary step approach can be seen in
34 Figure 1. The elementary step approach breaks the overall transformation down into a sequence of
35 arrow pushing steps, which illustrate the flow of electrons and the shifting of atoms.

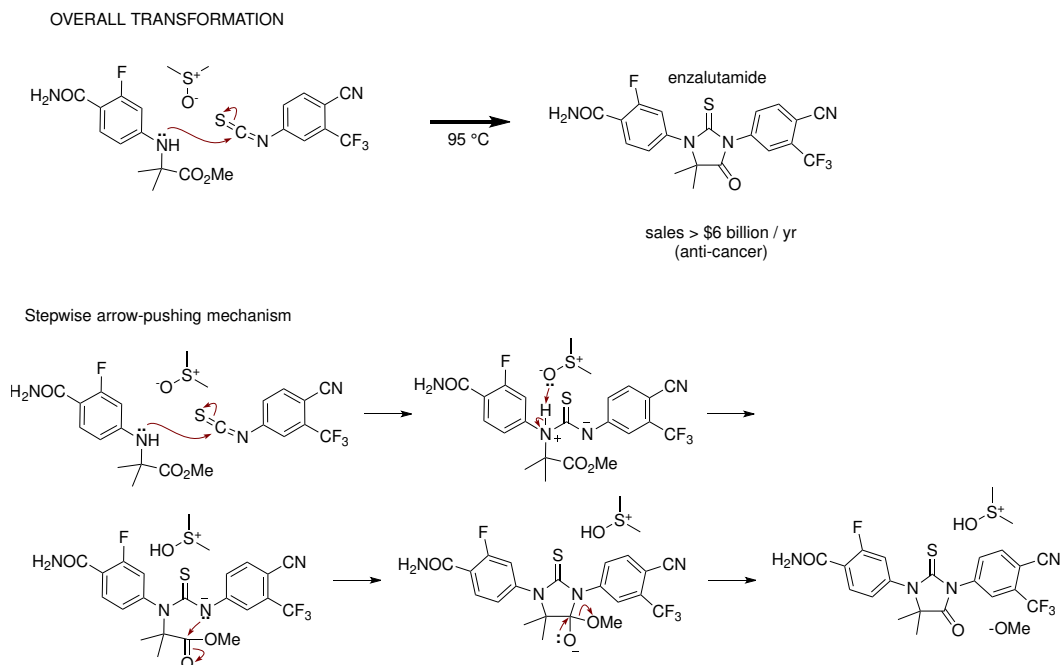


Figure 1: Example of an overall transformation vs an elementary step approach. This is the final reaction step in the synthesis of enzalutamide, a drug used to treat prostate cancer that generates over \$6 billion a year in revenue [21].

36 By thinking about reactions as occurring through many elementary steps, organic chemists are
 37 able to reason about the underlying driving forces of a reaction. When training ML models to
 38 forecast elementary step reactions, we effectively guide them to emulate an organic chemists' thought
 39 processes, thereby generating predictions that are readily interpretable and serve as practical aids for
 40 organic synthesis design.

41 2 Data

42 To develop predictive models for polar reaction mechanisms, we undertook training on the recently
 43 introduced PMechDB dataset. This dataset comprises more than 12,700 polar elementary steps,
 44 each balanced, partially atom mapped, and manually verified by a team of organic chemists. Each
 45 reaction represents a single elementary step polar reaction. These entries have been collected through
 46 manual curation from a diverse array of chemistry literature and textbooks [19]. These reactions
 47 are stored as smiles strings, and notably, the reactions contain arrow pushing information, providing
 48 insights into the reactivity of individual atoms within each reaction. Leveraging the manually curated
 49 reactions within the dataset, we conducted an 80/10/10 train/val/test split via random sampling from
 50 the "manually_curated_all.csv" file. For models which perform cross-validation, the validation data
 51 was combined with the training data.

52 3 Methods

53 Here we describe two different machine learning approaches for predicting polar elementary step
 54 mechanisms. Namely, we describe the reactive atom two-step approach, the single-step seq-to-seq
 55 prediction methods, and a spectator focused two-step transformer method.

56 3.1 Two-Step Prediction

57 The two-step prediction model comprises distinct phases. Initially, the model undertakes the task
58 of predicting reactive atoms within the given reaction. Subsequently, these identified reactive sites
59 are paired to formulate potential reaction mechanisms, followed by the application of a ranker
60 model to rank the plausibility of these proposed mechanisms. This architectural design yields
61 highly interpretable predictions, enabling a granular understanding of the model’s rationale. When
62 generating predictions, users can discern precisely which atoms are deemed reactive, and they can
63 view the precise arrow-pushing mechanism predicted by the model. From the view point of organic
64 chemists, the two-step architecture offers greater transparency compared to single-step approaches,
65 as the arrow pushing mechanism provides justification for why the final products were predicted.

66 3.1.1 Siamese Architecture

67 The two-step siamese architecture [6] comprises three distinct models, each serving a specific function.
68 Initially, two separate reactive atom predictor models are instantiated. One model is specifically
69 trained for predicting source atoms, while the other is trained for predicting sink atoms. To train
70 the source and sink models, the electron-donating atom from the intermolecular arrow is labeled
71 as the source atom, while the electron-accepting atom is labeled as the sink atom. This labeling
72 process employs the reactive sites identification method as detailed in [6]. Atoms are represented
73 by continuous vectors derived from predefined atomic and graph-topological features, utilizing a
74 neighborhood of size 3. Subsequently, both source and sink classifiers are trained to categorize these
75 feature vectors accordingly. After the trained reactive atom classifiers predict source and sink atoms,
76 these atoms are paired together to enumerate possible arrow pushing mechanisms. Afterwards, a
77 siamese architecture is used as a plausibility ranker model, which then ranks the plausibility of each
78 potential mechanism to generate a final set of predictions. A visual representation of the source and
79 sink pair is provided in Figure 2.

80 3.1.2 OrbChain

81 A polar elementary step reaction Rxn can be modeled as the following: a set of reactant molecules
82 $R = \{r_0, r_1, \dots, r_n\}$, a set of product molecules $P = \{p_0, p_1, \dots, p_n\}$, and a set of arrows $\alpha =$
83 $\{a_0, a_1, \dots, a_m\}$, which transforms R into P. We consider a molecular orbital (MO) $m_i^{(*)}$ to be
84 associated with four parameters: $m = (a, e, n, c)$, where a represents the atom corresponding to the
85 molecular orbital, e denotes the number of electrons contained in the MO, n corresponds to the atom
86 adjacent to atom a in the case of a bond orbital, and c represents a possible chain of filled or unfilled
87 MOs. Based on the methods described in [6, 9, 18], we model a polar mechanism as an interaction
88 between two reactive molecular orbitals $(m_1^{(*)}, m_2^{(*)})$, where one orbital is the "source" orbital and
89 acts as a nucleophile, while the other orbital is the "sink" orbital and acts as the electrophile. Given
90 atom mapped reactants and products, and A, we can uniquely determine the reactive pair of orbitals
91 in R used to create P. Conversely, given the reactive pair of orbitals $(m_1^{(*)}, m_2^{(*)})$ and the reactants R,
92 we can generate P given R.

93 3.1.3 Reactive Atom Prediction and Plausibility Ranking

94 We enumerate over all molecular orbitals found in reactants R, and divide orbitals into reactive
95 and non-reactive orbitals. These positive and negative examples are used to train the source and
96 sink identification models. Rather than directly predicting the reactive MOs, we perform a binary
97 classification prediction on the label of atom a, which is associated with the molecular orbital. We
98 adopt the reactive sites identification method from [6] and represent atoms using continuous vectors
99 based on predefined graph-topological and physiochemical features. We train two models: a source
100 model and a sink model. The source model predicts a binary classification label for whether or not an
101 atom is a source, while the sink predicts a binary classification for whether or not an atom is a sink.
102 The training data was constructed by extracting the labeled source, and the labeled sink atom from
103 each reaction as positive examples, and then randomly sampling non-source or non-sink examples to
104 use as negative examples.

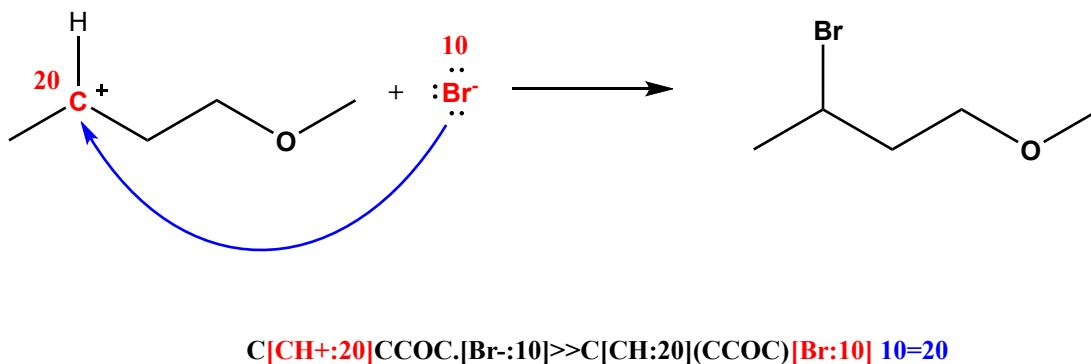


Figure 2: An example of a simple polar elementary step. The electron pushing arrows can be seen in blue, while the source and sink sites are seen in red. The bromine atom labeled 10 is the source atom. The carbon atom labeled 20 is the sink atom. The corresponding SMILES string and arrow codes can be seen below.

105 3.2 Plausibility Ranking

106 Once a set of source atoms and sink atoms are predicted, these two sets are paired together to generate
 107 pairs of molecular orbitals. A siamese network is used to rank the resulting molecular orbital pairs to
 108 generate the final reaction mechanism predictions.

109 3.3 Seq-to-seq Prediction

110 In addition to exploring two-step models, we also explore the performance of text-based models. An
 111 exceedingly common representation of chemical reactions is in the form of SMILES strings (simplified
 112 molecular-input line-entry system), which is a text-based representation. This representation lends
 113 itself towards NLP models such as transformers. These architectures model reaction prediction as a
 114 translation problem, wherein they are translating from reactant SMILES to product SMILES. These
 115 models have achieved state-of-the-art accuracies when predicting overall chemical transformations.
 116 However, these models possess several drawbacks in that they are more difficult to interpret and do
 117 not explicitly encode important molecular information such as invariance to atom permutations. This
 118 means that the same reaction can be represented by a large number of different SMILES strings, and
 119 additional strategies such as data augmentation may be needed to prevent a transformer model from
 120 making different predictions for identical sets of reactants.

121 3.3.1 Molecular Transformer

122 We utilize the innovative text-based reaction predictor, Molecular Transformer [15], which employs a
 123 bidirectional encoder and autoregressive decoder coupled with a fully connected network to generate
 124 probability distributions over potential tokens. The pre-trained Molecular Transformers underwent
 125 training using various versions of the USPTO dataset. We did not separate reactants and reagents,
 126 so the model pre-trained using the USPTO_MIT_mixed dataset was selected and subsequently fine
 127 tuned on the PMechDB dataset.

128 3.3.2 Chemformer

129 In addition to the molecular transformer, we also adopt the Chemformer model [7], which is another
 130 transformer-based reaction predictor. The Chemformer model also employs a bidirectional encoder
 131 and autoregressive decoder with a fully connected network to generate probability distributions
 132 over potential tokens. The Chemformer model was pre-trained on molecular reconstruction and
 133 classification tasks using a dataset of 100M SMILES strings from the ZINC-15 [17] dataset. Af-
 134 terwards, the model was fine-tuned on various downstream tasks including forward prediction and
 135 retrosynthesis. The pre-training substantially improved the model's generalizability and convergence
 136 times on downstream tasks, such as USPTO forward prediction, compared to randomly initialized
 137 models. We chose to start from the model fine-tuned on USPTO-mixed since reactants and reagents

138 are not separated in the PMechDB dataset. This model was subsequently fine-tuned on the PMechDB
139 dataset for mechanistic-level predictions. The vocabulary of the model was expanded by 66 tokens to
140 account for unseen atoms in the PMechDB dataset.

141 3.3.3 Two-Step Transformer Architecture

142 During experiments, all models were observed to exhibit a significant decrease in performance
143 in reaction prediction as the size of the reactants grows. A quantitative analysis of the effects
144 of spectators, and the number of atoms can be found in Figure 5 and Figure 6 respectively. To
145 combat this, we propose a novel two-step architecture for transformers. Firstly, we use the source
146 and sink reactive atom models from the siamese architecture to predict top-2 reactive atoms of
147 the model. Reactant molecules which contain the predicted reactive atoms are considered to be
148 non-spectator molecules. Since we take top-2 predictions from the source and sink models, we
149 predict at most 2 sink molecules, and at most 2 source molecules. Pairing the sinks and sources
150 together, we can have at most 4-unique source-sink combinations. After the combinations are
151 generated, we run a top-5 prediction using our best performing transformer on each combination.
152 Hence a fine-tuned chemformer model was used on each combination, as well as on the original
153 reactants. After generating predictions for the source-sink combinations, the molecules which were
154 deemed as spectators and removed are added back into the predicted products. If there are fewer than
155 4-unique source-sink combinations, more predictions are made on the original reactants until 5 total
156 predictions are generated. For each reaction, we take the output predictions, canonicalize them, and
157 then perform a simple majority vote with ties being broken randomly.

158
159

160 This architecture takes inspiration from common practices in organic chemistry. Often times when
161 an organic chemist aims to predict the outcome of a set of reactants, they quickly look through all
162 reactant molecules, and filter away molecules which are likely to be spectators or non-reactive, before
163 focusing on a few molecules of interest. By performing a two-step prediction, we are able to first
164 filter away potential spectator ions, then predict the reaction mechanism after reducing the space of
165 possible reactions exponentially. A considerable performance increase was observed after performing
166 this method of ensembling. The results can be seen in Table 3 and Table 4.

167 3.4 Multi-task learning

168 Due to the highly related nature of many chemistry prediction tasks, multitask learning can be used to
169 develop robust models which may demonstrate improved learning efficiency and prediction accuracy.
170 T5Chem is one such model, which leverages multitask learning on a transformer architecture to
171 perform 5 different tasks. The T5Chem multi-task transformer architecture is able to perform forward/backwards prediction, reaction yield prediction, reaction classification, and reagents prediction [12]. This architecture was first pretrained with a BERT-like MLM objective on 97 million PubChem molecules. Then, the model was further fine-tuned on 5 different tasks using the USPTO_500_MT dataset. We selected this model, and fine-tuned it using the 80/10/10 split of the manually curated PMechDB reactions.

177 4 Results and Discussion

178 4.1 Performance on PMechDB Dataset

179 We assess the performance of the two-step prediction method, comprising reactive sites identification
180 and plausibility ranking. The top-N accuracy of the reactive sites identification on PMechDB is
181 presented in Table 7. Reactive site identification is considered correct if both the source and sink
182 atom were correctly identified within the top-N predictions of each model.

Table 1: Reactive Atom Classification for Siamese Architecture

Top-1	Top-2	Top-3	Top-5	Top-10
53.8	79.0	86.8	91.8	94.4

183 The source and sink ranking models are able to predict the reactive atoms with relatively high
184 accuracy. Although the reactive atom models are able to filter down the number of potentially reactive
185 atoms significantly, due to the large number of atoms and aromatic structures contained in the polar
186 reactions, enumerating all possible molecular orbital pairs leads to a large number of possible reaction
187 mechanisms fed into the ranker model. Several reaction fingerprints were used for plausibility ranking.
188 The results can be found in Table 2.

Table 2: Plausibility Ranking for Two-Step Architecture

Model Type	Top-1	Top-2	Top-3	Top-4	Top-5
reactionFP	39.5	56.3	65.6	70.3	73.0
DRFP	37.3	52.2	60.1	67.1	72.5
rxnfp	35.1	51.3	60.5	66.1	70.0

189 In order to perform two-step prediction, both reactive site identification and plausibility ranking must
190 be performed. Thus for the best performing two-step model, we use the reactionFP fingerprint for
191 plausibility ranking. Therefore in Table 3, we consider this as the best two-step siamese model. For
192 the Chemformer, MolTransformer, and T5Chem models, we fine-tuned the pretrained models on the
193 PMechDB dataset. The results comparing all the trained models can be seen in Table 3

Table 3: Top-N Accuracy of Trained Models

Model Type	Top-1	Top-3	Top-5	Top-10
Best Two-Step Siamese	39.5	65.6	73.0	76.6
MolTransformer	59.1	66.3	69.2	70.1
T5Chem	56.6	69.1	73.7	77.5
Chemformer	74.0	84.1	85.2	87.2
Two-Step Transformer	80.6	88.8	89.9	91.0

194 Although the Siamese two-step model allows for improved interpretability due to its direct prediction
195 of arrows, the models based on Chemformer yield the most accurate predictions, with the two-step
196 transformer model outperforming all other models significantly. The effects of various ensemble
197 sizes can be seen in Table 4.

Table 4: Effects of Ensemble Size on Top-N Accuracy

<i>ensemble size</i>	Top-1	Top-3	Top-5	Top-10
2	71.8	85.8	86.9	87.7
3	77.8	87.5	88.5	89.2
4	79.8	88.7	90.0	90.7
5	80.6	88.8	89.9	91.0

198 4.1.1 Pretraining

199 Pretraining the Chemformer models made a large difference in performance, the effects of pretraining
200 can be seen in Table 5.

201 The large increase in performance from the pretraining, indicates overlap between the USPTO
202 dataset and the PMechDB dataset. This is in stark contrast to radical mechanisms, which exhibited
203 lower performance when using a pretrained model [18]. This suggests that radical reactions are
204 underrepresented in USPTO datasets compared to polar reactions, and that pre-trained transformer
205 models would be expected to have higher performance on polar reactions.

206 4.2 Pathway Search

207 In addition to predicting single-step elementary reactions, further work is being done to evaluate and
208 improve the model’s performance on predicting polar mechanistic pathways. This involves chaining

Table 5: Top-N Accuracy of Chemformer Models

Model Type	Top-1	Top-3	Top-5	Top-10
no-pretraining	39.9	55.6	58.7	60.4
pretrained on zinc	74.9	77.0	82.8	84.5
pretrained on zinc and USPTO Mixed	74.0	84.1	85.2	87.2

209 several elementary steps together to transform a list of starting reactants to a list of target products.
 210 An example of a simple two-step mechanism correctly predicted by the ensemble transformer model
 211 can be seen in Figure 3.

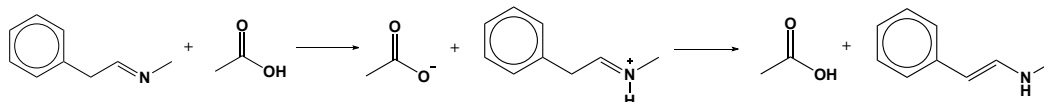


Figure 3: A simple 2-step mechanism correctly predicted by ensemble transformer model.

212 Although the transformer architectures outperform all other models in single step predictions on
 213 the test dataset, the reactions contained in PMechDB are mostly 1-2 reactant reactions, and contain
 214 very limited spectator ions. This results in the transformer models having a strong performance on
 215 reactions which contain 1-2 reactants, but inconsistent performance on reactions with one or more
 216 spectator ions. An example of this can be seen in the following elementary step which contains a
 217 spectator benzene ring. 4

218 When the chemformer model is asked to predict on Step A, it does not recover the correct products,
 219 while on Step B with spectators removed, it ranks the products as the top-1 prediction. Interestingly,
 220 the two-step transformer model is able to correctly predict this step. Comparing the various methods
 221 numerically, the two-step models appear to demonstrate significantly less performance degradation in
 222 predicting elementary steps with spectator molecules. Figure 5 demonstrates the top-5 accuracies of
 223 the various models as the number of reactant molecules is varied, while Figure 6 demonstrates the
 224 top-5 accuracies as the number of atoms contained in the reactants is varied.

225 The two-step transformer model can be seen to outperform both the chemformer and siamese
 226 architectures. When comparing the models, it seems that the number of reactant atoms has a much
 227 smaller effect on the prediction accuracy of the transformer models when compared to the siamese
 228 architecture. Perhaps this indicates that the transformer models are able to implicitly learn which
 229 reactive atoms it should pay attention to without being distracted by large unreactive substructures.
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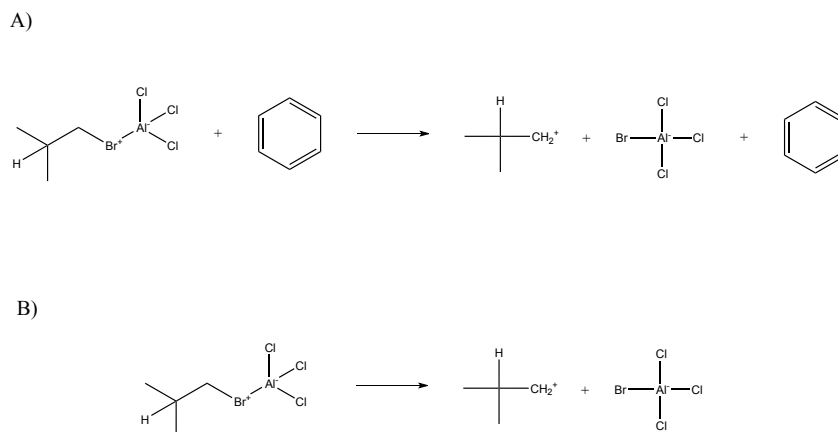


Figure 4: Step A represents the elementary step with the spectator molecule benzene included. Step B represents the elementary step with the benzene ring excluded.

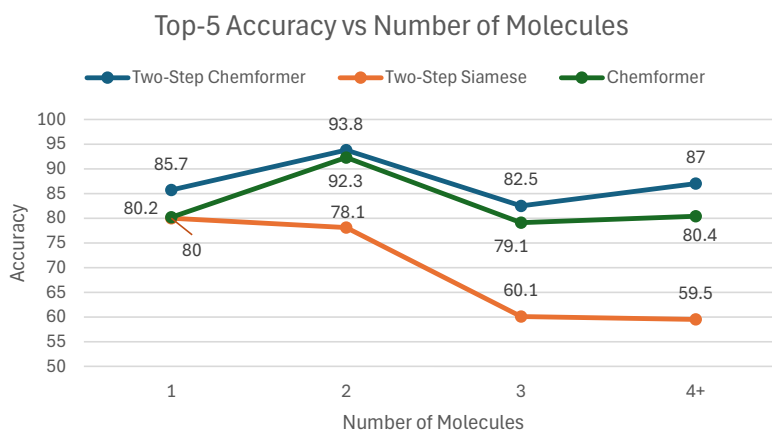


Figure 5: Comparing the top-5 accuracies of both the transformer and two-step models as number of reactant molecules is varied.

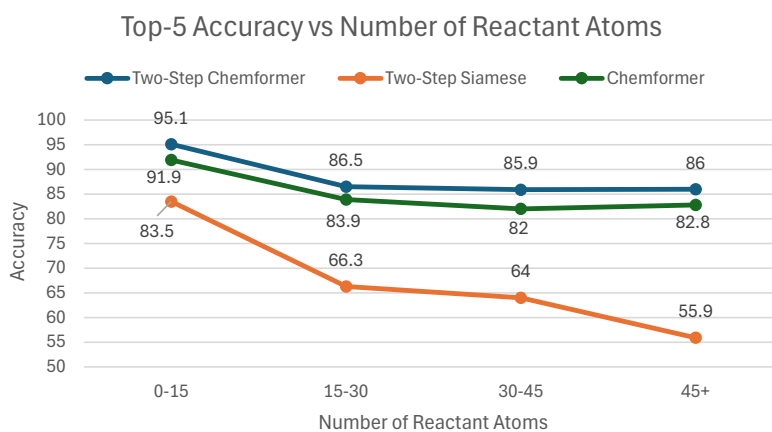


Figure 6: Comparing the top-5 accuracies of both the transformer and two-step models as number of reactant atoms is varied.

231 Notably, the two-step transformer model strongly outperforms the chemformer model when
232 it views reactions which contain more than 2 reactant molecules. This suggests the first step
233 manages to filter away the spectator ions to some extent and makes the prediction task easier for the
234 transformer model.

235 5 Limitations

236 Lastly, we note there are several limitations with the current state of the PMechRP polar reaction
237 system. Firstly, the PMechDB dataset includes less than 13,000 steps. This means the dataset is
238 relatively small for training large architectures, and it may be difficult for these models to generalize
239 well to all forms of experimental chemistry. Secondly, the transformer models directly translate from
240 reactants to products, without generating the arrow pushing mechanisms. Although the elementary
241 step predictions still offer significant interpretability, the two-step siamese method offers greater
242 insight into the causality of a reaction by directly showing the flow of electrons. Additional methods
243 could be developed to predict arrow codes or reactive orbitals using a transformer architecture in
244 order to offer predictions with arrow pushing mechanisms.

245 6 Conclusion

246 We developed and compared several reaction prediction systems for polar reaction mechanisms.
247 Through our analysis, we have created the reaction prediction system, PMechRP. This predictor offers
248 a fresh perspective on reaction prediction by specifically targeting polar reactions and operating at
249 the mechanistic reaction level. From the viewpoint of organic chemists, mechanistic level reaction
250 prediction offers immense interpretability benefits, and has a lot of potential to aid in the prediction of
251 synthetic pathways. We utilized PMechDB datasets to train and develop a wide range of architectures.
252 Our findings demonstrate that the most accurate models are based on a two-step process, where
253 spectators are filtered out to generate a variety of reactants before they are fed into an ensemble
254 transformer architecture. Leveraging PMechDB datasets, our polar predictor marks a significant step
255 towards interpretable reaction prediction.

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316 **A Appendix / supplemental material**

317 In this appendix, we provide additional details about the experiments and models trained.

318 **A.1 Compute Resources**

319 All models were trained using a single NVidia Titan X GPU.

320 A.2 PMechDB Dataset

321 Here we provide some Figures 7, 8 displaying the the number of atoms and atom types found in the
322 PMechDB dataset [19]

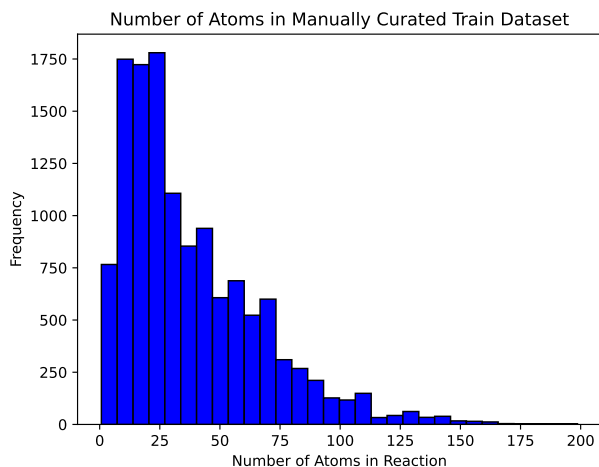


Figure 7: The distribution of the total number of atoms contained in each reaction for the manually curated training dataset.

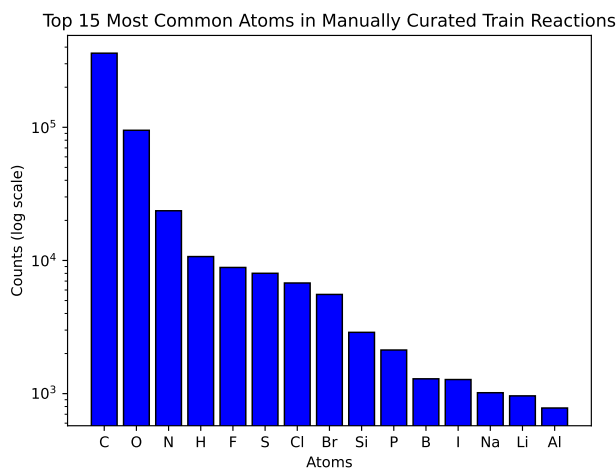


Figure 8: The distribution of atoms for the reactions in the manually curated training dataset.

323 A.3 Reactive Atom Prediction

324 A fingerprint of length 800 is constructed for each atom. This fingerprint includes 700 graph-
325 topological features. These features are extracted using a neighborhood of size 3 with the method
326 described in [6]. The remaining features consist of physiochemical properties such as valence number,
327 electronegativity, etc.

328 The source and sink prediction models are trained using the "manually_curated_all.csv" file, where
329 a 90/10 train/test split was performed. Each training reaction is processed to extract the atom
330 fingerprints, the atom is given a label 1 if it is reactive, and 0 if it is non-reactive. The final output
331 layer performs a binary classification on a reactive atom. The parameters of the source and sink
332 prediction models can be seen below:

Table 6: Source and Sink Model Parameters

Batch Size	Num Layers	Layer Dim	Act	Reg
64	5	512-256-128-164-1	RELU	L2

333 **A.4 Plausibility Ranking**

334 We tested 3 fingerprints. The reactionFP fingerprint is extracted using the features explained in [6]
335 to create a fingerprint of length 3200. For the rxnfp fingerprint, we use the default configuration to
336 create a fingerprint of size 256. We use the DRFP fingerprint with a size of 2048 with the default
337 configuration.

338 The parameters of the ranker models can be seen below:

Table 7: Source and Sink Model Parameters

Batch Size	Num Layers	Layer Dim	Act	Reg
200	3	360-360-1	Tanh	Dropout (0.5)

339 **NeurIPS Paper Checklist**

340 The checklist is designed to encourage best practices for responsible machine learning research,
341 addressing issues of reproducibility, transparency, research ethics, and societal impact. Do not remove
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- 350 • Please provide a short (1–2 sentence) justification right after your answer (even for NA).

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355 The reviewers of your paper will be asked to use the checklist as one of the factors in their evaluation.
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371 Answer: [Yes]

372 Justification: The paper clearly outlines its contributions and scope. All contributions are
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