Bridging chemical modalities by aligning embeddings

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Abstract

Chemistry as a science is highly diverse in its ways of representing molecules, and many of these representations are highly abundant in the literature and, as such, underutilized. There is also a lack of frameworks that combine these different representations into a common one. Thus, we introduce the multimodal machine learning model MoleculeBind. It was trained with the goal of aligning five different modalities: SMILES, SELFIES, graphs, fingerprints, and 3D structures using contrastive learning. We investigate the retrieval metrics for the model and obtain high performance across all the different modalities. We also explore the potential of querying molecules with similar properties using the same approach. The retrieval of molecules with similar properties outperformed a random baseline significantly. We expect such a model to have a great impact on spectroscopy and improve the performance of existing generative methods.

1. Introduction

Chemical data is very diverse and highly complex. This is partly because different techniques are needed in different subfields to analyze specific phenomena. Even for representing one single small molecule, one can choose from plenty of options such as SELFIES (Krenn et al., 2020; 2022), SMILES (Weininger, 1988), IUPAC names, or InChI identifiers (Heller et al., 2015). Besides those line represen-

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tations, molecules are often also reported as 3D structures or used via molecular fingerprints (e.g., Morgan fingerprint (Morgan, 1965)) or molecular graphs in computational modeling. Experimental scientists more commonly deal with molecules characterized via spectroscopic measurements such as nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) and infrared (IR) spectroscopy. Thus, chemical data is highly fragmented across multiple modalities. This leads to massive underutilization of chemical data as, using current techniques, this multimodal data cannot be synergistically and jointly utilized. For instance, most machine learning models in the chemical sciences can only accept one input modality. In addition, most, if not all, research data management systems do not provide effective search functionalities across modalities, which would, however, lead to vast efficiency gains in chemical research. In this work, we build on contrastive embedding alignment techniques to bring chemical data into a shared data space. We show that this alignment allows us to perform effective cross-modal retrieval-even for pairs of modalities on which the model has not explicitly been trained.

Concretely, our main contributions are

- MoleculeBind: A model that aligns molecular graphs, 3D structures, molecular fingerprints, as well as SMILES and SELFIES, reusing existing encoder models.
- Demonstration of emergent cross-modal retrieval in chemical data: We demonstrate that our embeddings are performant even for recall across modality pairs for which the model has not been explicitly trained.

2. Related work

Binding embeddings through encoder alignment Outside the chemical domain, multimodal embedding alignment models have been introduced (Ma et al., 2022; Mu et al., 2022). Among these models, ImageBind (Girdhar et al., 2023) stands out for incorporating more than two modalities. The model was built from six existing encoders, and the embeddings were aligned using a symmetric InfoNCE loss (van den Oord et al., 2019) with respect to a central "binding" modality (e.g., images). ImageBind also introduced a term called *emergent alignment*, which represents

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the alignment of pairs of modalities on which the model has not been explicitly trained. This represented an important departure from conventional alignment approaches, in which pairs for each relevant modality are required. In ImageBind, only data paired with the "binding" modality is required. The resulting embeddings have been used in various downstream applications, for example, interfaced with large language models (Han et al., 2023; Su et al., 2023).

Multimodal models in chemistry Multimodal models for chemistry have been proposed in the literature. For example, Han et al. (2024) introduced a framework for polymer property prediction (graph and PSMILES); Kaufman et al. (2024) built a bimodal encoder-decoder model based on aligned text and 3D representations; Ock et al. (2024) introduced a bimodal model for catalysis, where the use of graph and language models into a single framework aided data efficiency for energy predictions tasks. Seidl et al. (2023) introduced CLAMP, a bimodal model based on text descriptions of assays and molecules (i.e., string notations, graphs, or fingerprints).

Cross-modal retrieval Cross-modal retrieval refers to retrieving semantically related data stored in one modality (e.g., images) by querying with another modality (e.g., text). Wang et al. (2016) provide an overview of cross-modal retrieval. Explicitly aligning chemical modalities was tried by Sanchez-Fernandez et al. (2023). Their CLOOME retrieval model includes microscopy images and text modalities. Liu et al. (2023) use cross-modal retrieval for text descriptions and small molecules for drug discovery. Xiao et al. (2024) introduced MolBind to align four chemistry-related modalities with the primary focus on proteins.

3. MoleculeBind Model

Architecure We built MoleculeBind using PyTorch and PyTorchLightning based on the architecture proposed by Girdhar et al. (2023). In contrast to their work, we utilized a simple InfoNCE loss without symmetrization for computational efficiency:

$$L_{R,M} = -\log \frac{\exp\left(\mathbf{q}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{k}_{i}/\tau\right)}{\exp\left(\mathbf{q}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{k}_{i}/\tau\right) + \sum_{i \neq j} \exp\left(\mathbf{q}_{i}^{\mathrm{T}}\mathbf{k}_{j}/\tau\right)},\tag{1}$$

where *R* is the central representation (modality) to which other modalities are aligned, and *M* is any other modality $M \neq R$.

We align five modalities: SELFIES (central modality), SMILES, 3D structures, molecular graphs, and Morgan fingerprints enhanced by 93 cheminformatics descriptors (e.g., QED, LogP) computed using RdKit. The model architecture is shown in Figure 1, highlighting the direct alignments (i.e., trained on) and a part of the emergent alignments (i.e., not trained on).



Figure 1. MoleculeBind architecture. Purple arrows indicate emergent alignment, and black arrows indicate direct alignment (i.e., pairs of modalities on which the model is explicitly trained). For illustration purposes, not all emergent links between modalities are shown. The hidden state sizes for the models are as follows: SELFIES, SELFIES, fingerprint - 768, graphs - 256, 3D structures - 128. All the embeddings are projected into a 1024-dimensional hidden state.

Encoders The model is built using five encoders available in the literature. For encoding the central modality SELFIES, we use SELFormer (Yüksel et al., 2023). As the structure encoder, we use Dimenet (Gasteiger et al., 2020). We use ChemBERTa from (Chithrananda et al., 2020) to encode SMILES strings, and MolCLR (Wang et al., 2022) for graph encoding. To encode molecular fingerprints, we trained a variational autoencoder (VAE) (Higgins et al., 2017; Kingma & Welling, 2022). Besides the fingerprint-VAE, all the model configurations are based on the original implementation. All encoders except the SMILES and SELFIES transformers were trained from scratch.

3.1. Data

The data that has been used in this work comes from multiple sources.

3D Structures For the training of the structure encoder, we sampled 100k molecules from the QMugs dataset (Isert et al., 2022). The target property of choice was the HOMO-LUMO gap computed with DFT single-point calculations on structures optimized with the semi-empirical GFN2-xTB method (Grimme et al., 2017; Bannwarth et al., 2019; 2021).

Graph For the graph model, we used 100k molecules that were presented as an example by Wang et al. (2022) for training MolCLR. The full model has been trained on \approx 10M molecules.

SELFIES and SMILES 200k SELFIES and SMILES strings were sampled from the CHEMBL (v30) database (Gaulton et al., 2017), 100k from the QMugs dataset (Isert et al., 2022) and 100k from the ChemNLP IUPAC-SMILES dataset (Jablonka, 2024). The total number of unique molecules ended up at ca. 393k.

MoleculeBind dataset Starting from SELFIES or SMILES, the dataset for MoleculeBind is prepared as follows. We compute graphs based on SMILES at runtime. For structures, we load 3D geometries from SDF files (one per SMILES or SELFIES) as provided by Isert et al. (2022). We precompute the Morgan fingerprints and descriptors using the RdKit package (Landrum et al., 2013) and concatenate these to form a fingerprint of length 2141 (2048 bits, 93 descriptors).

4. Results

Retrieval metrics The *top-1* and *top-5* retrieval recall have been assessed on a complete validation set (i.e., all modality pairs are complete). These metrics are shown in Table 1. Since the loss we used is not symmetric, different results were obtained for the same pair of modalities but with swapped query modalities. For example, when building the vector database from SELFIES embeddings and querying it with graph embeddings, the performance is lower than vice versa.

We observe emergent alignment between the pairs of modalities that the model was never trained on. For example, a retrieval rate of more than 80% is obtained for the pairs 3D structure - graph, graph - fingerprint, and fingerprint-3D structures. This highlights the efficiency of this architecture and how we can leverage data for which plenty of pairs are available to perform effective retrieval across modality pairs for which only little data is available.

Property space for queries Following Frey et al. (2023), we showcase a few examples of how MoleculeBind can assist in retrieving molecules with similar properties (see Figure 2). The average distance between the properties of the molecule used for queries and the queried molecules as a distance in the 2D property space is calculated using

$$d_{\rm prop} = \sqrt{\frac{(P_{1@20} - P_{1query})^2}{\mu_{P_1}} + \frac{(P_{2@20} - P_{2query})^2}{\mu_{P_2}}}$$

where P_1 and P_2 are property 1 and property 2, respectively. μ_{P1} and μ_{P2} are the means across the population for the properties. $P_{1@20}$ and $P_{2@20}$ are the means of respective properties P_1 and P_2 for the *top-20* retrieved molecules using a query molecule. On average, queries are within 0.30 distance (normalized) in the 2D property space of QED and LogP compared to 0.53 in a random baseline. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test shows that the difference between the two distributions is significant (p - value = 0).



Figure 2. Property queries examples. The *top-20* retrieved molecules are displayed as a kernel density estimation (KDE). The figure shows the retrieval between graph and SELFIES embeddings, for which the dataset sizes can be found in Table 1.

5. Conclusions

MoleculeBind is the first model to align five different chemical modalities. We obtained high performance on retrieval recall metrics on the validation set. Weobserved an emergent alignment of the embeddings between pairs

Modality Pair	Recall@1	Recall@5	Random Recall @5
SELFIES - SMILES	0.941	0.997	0.000
SELFIES - Graph	0.807	0.956	0.001
SELFIES - Fingerprint	0.819	0.964	0.000
SELFIES - 3D structure	0.947	0.998	0.000
SMILES - SELFIES	0.947	0.998	0.000
SMILES - Graph	0.900	0.983	0.000
SMILES - Fingerprint	0.872	0.976	0.000
SMILES - 3D structure	0.943	0.997	0.000
Graph - SELFIES	0.846	0.977	0.000
Graph - SMILES	0.926	0.992	0.000
Graph - Fingerprint	0.845	0.969	0.000
Graph - 3D structure	0.885	0.987	0.000
Fingerprint - SELFIES	0.828	0.969	0.000
Fingerprint - SMILES	0.882	0.986	0.000
Fingerprint - Graph	0.817	0.960	0.000
Fingerprint - 3D structure	0.862	0.981	0.000
3D structure - SELFIES	0.955	0.999	0.000
3D structure - SMILES	0.944	0.998	0.000
3D structure - Graph	0.842	0.967	0.001
3D structure - Fingerprint	0.866	0.978	0.000

Table 1. Recall rates for different molecular representations and their combinations (\approx 10k molecules). The second modality in the pair represents the query, while the embeddings of the first are used to create the vector database. Text colors correspond to either direct or emergent alignment, as shown in Figure 1.

of modalities the model was never trained on. This has implications for how we leverage data. For example, in our study, we worked with a limited amount of structural data compared to the other modalities. However, the retrieval metrics for this modality were similar.

Moreover, we showcased how the embeddings MoleculeBind generated can be used to query molecules with similar properties and that we observed a significant performance increase from a random baseline.

This illustrates that an architecture such as MoleculeBind can be effective in bridging the multitude and diversity of embeddings we find in chemical data. Doing so will allow us to leverage the data collectively and, ultimately, might also enable researchers to uncover unknown links that have been recorded in different modalities.

6. Future work

Since it is likely that the performance of our approach can be improved by scaling models and datasets, we plan to evaluate the scaling laws for the model beyond the 393k dataset. Also, we aim to augment MoleculeBind with new modalities (e.g., nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR), infrared (IR), and Ultraviolet-visible (UV-VIS) spectroscopy). Importantly, our approach can be reused on modalities for other classes of compounds besides small molecules (e.g., in materials science or biochemistry). Having a general representation of molecules would be useful for the many subfields and applications that chemistry has found its way into.

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Appendix



Figure 3. Property distribution for the validation set of 9937 molecules shown in Table 1.

Retrieval methods

Before computing the retrieval metrics on the entire dataset, we compute embeddings for each batch and then aggregate them into one tensor per modality. The indexing for pairwise retrieval calculations is acquired from the stored binarized dataset. chromaDB is used as the vector database of choice due to ease of use and sufficient performance.