Supporting Information-1 for Critical insights into data curation and label noise for accurate prediction of aerobic biodegradability of organic chemicals

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S1 Definitions

S1.1 Chemical Abstracts Service Registry Number (CAS RN™)

CAS RN™ have been introduced as unique and unambiguous identifiers for chemical sub-stances by the Chemical Abstracts Service^{[1](#page-38-1)}. A CAS RN[™] is a distinct numeric identifier that represents a single substance and does not carry any chemical significance. CAS $\mathrm{RN}^{\mathbbm{M}}$ are assigned to substances as they enter the CAS Registry database. CAS $RN^{\uparrow\uparrow}$ typically consist of up to ten digits, divided into three parts by hyphens^{[1](#page-38-1)}. For example, the CAS RN™ of 7-Aminocephalosporanic acid is 957-68-6.

CAS $RN^{\uparrow\uparrow}$ have proven helpful in tracking and managing substances. They have the advantage that they are unique, easy to validate, and internationally accepted 1 . However, even though CAS RN[™] are unique, more than one CAS RN[™] can exist for a given substance because multiple CAS RN™ were assigned to a substance or due to deprecated CAS RN™. For example, 7-Aminocephalosporanic acid is also linked to the deprecated CAS RN™856652-38- 5, 856652-39-6, 13256-42-3, 23241-25-0, 70035-93-7, and 26328-10-9. Even though all these CAS RN™ are unique for 7-Aminocephalosporanic acid, the fact that multiple CAS RN™ exist for substances can lead to issues if this is not considered. These deprecated CAS $\mathrm{RN}^{\mathbb{M}}$ can often still be found in online references^{[2](#page-38-2)}.

S1.2 Simplified Molecular Input Line Entry Specification (SMILES)

The SMILES representation was introduced by Weininger [3](#page-38-3) and has since then become the most widely used line notation^{[3](#page-38-3)[–6](#page-38-4)}. It is obtained by assigning a distinct number to each atom in the molecule and then traversing the molecular graph using that specific order. However, due to multiple possible atom numberings for a given molecule, different SMILES notations can be generated while maintaining the same graph traversal algorithm. Therefore, SMILES are not unique^{[6](#page-38-4)}.

SMILES can be described as isomeric and canonical. Isomeric SMILES allow for the specification of isotopism and stereochemistry. Canonical SMILES are supposed to ensure that the same SMILES is generated for a given molecule. However, various algorithms have been developed to generate canonical SMILES. Therefore, multiple different canonical SMILES can exist for a substance^{[7](#page-38-5)}. The canonical SMILES of 7-Aminocephalosporanic acid is $CC(=0)$ $OCC1=C(N2C(C(C2=0)N)SC1)C(=0)$ and the isomeric SMILES is $CC(=0)$ $OCC1=C(N2[C@0H]$ ($[C@CH] (C2=0) N) SC1) C (=0) 0 according to $PubChem^2$. Furthermore, SMILES notation en [C@CH] (C2=0) N) SC1) C (=0) 0 according to $PubChem^2$. Furthermore, SMILES notation en [C@CH] (C2=0) N) SC1) C (=0) 0 according to $PubChem^2$. Furthermore, SMILES notation en$ counters challenges in describing certain complex structures that cannot be easily represented using molecular graphs, including organometallic compounds and ionic salts 6 .

S1.3 International Chemical Identifier (InChI[™])

The InChI™ string is a standardized, machine-readable string of symbols used to represent chemical compounds in an unambiguous manner^{[8](#page-38-6)}. It is a unique and automatically generated representation of a compound's molecular structure [8,](#page-38-6)[9](#page-38-7). The InChI adopts a layered format to encompass all relevant structural information for compound identification. Each layer contains specific types of structural details, with successive layers adding additional information. The layered design allows for the inclusion of various structural levels. The layers in the InChI string are separated by slashes followed by lower-case letters, arranged in a predefined order^{[8](#page-38-6)}. Table [S1](#page-5-1) shows the structure of an example $InChI^{\pi}$ and its layers and segments. The main layer of the InChI™ provides information about the core parent structure, including its chemical formula, atom connectivity (non-hydrogen), and hydrogen atom connectivity^{[10](#page-39-0)}. In addition to the full InChI[™] strings, the InChI[™]-main-layer was be used to identify substances with the same parent structure, independent of charge and stereochemistry.

It is important to note that any ambiguities or uncertainties in the original structure representation persist in the InChI^{[8](#page-38-6)}. Furthermore, unlike SMILES notation, InChI[™] do not

offer a guarantee of reversibility to reconstruct the original molecular graphs from which they originate^{[6](#page-38-4)}.

InChI=1S/C10H12N2O5S/c1-4(13)17-2-5-3-18-9-6(11)8(14)12(9)7(5)10(15)16/h6,9H,2- 3,11H2,1H3,(H,15,16) /p-1/t6-,9-/m1/s1

S1.4 Label

In the context of supervised machine learning (ML), labels are the target variable that the ML model is trying to predict. The label is the ground truth or the correct answer of each data point in the training and test set.

The data points used here to train a classifier to predict whether a substance was ready biodegradable or not were labeled with a 0 or 1. The label 0 indicates that the substance was not readily biodegradable (NRB), and the label 1 indicates that the substance is readily biodegradable (RB) according to the experimental study results.

S1.5 Feature

In order to train machine learning models, the data needs to be prepared in a format that the ML model can use for training and testing. The data is given to the ML model in form of features. Features are individual characteristics of the input data and represent the information that the model analyzes to learn patterns, relationships, and structures within the data. Features can be either categorical, for example, gender or nationality, or numerical ^{[11](#page-39-1)}. The quality and relevance of the features can significantly impact the performance of a ML model. Therefore, properly selecting, engineering, and managing features is a fundamental aspect of the ML process^{[12](#page-39-2)}.

S1.6 Data leakage

In ML, models are typically evaluated on test data that the model has not seen during training. This provides a reliable indication of how well the model will perform when deployed in real-world scenarios and helps detect potential issues such as overfitting or lack of generalization. If data appears both in the train and the test set, it is called data leakage. Data leakage can lead to overly optimistic model performance or invalid assessments of the model's generalization ability^{[13](#page-39-3)}.

S1.7 Molecular descriptors: Molecular Access System key (MACCS key)

Molecular descriptors can be categorized into two main classes: structural keys and hashed fingerprints (FPs). Structural keys are represented as bit strings, encoding the presence (1) or absence (0) of specific chemical groups. In contrast, chemical FPs are vectors containing indexed elements that encode various physicochemical or structural properties. The distinctive characteristic of hashed FPs is that each element is generated from the molecule itself, while in structural keys, predefined patterns are used 6 .

A widely used example of a key-based molecular descriptor is the MACCS key. In the MACCS keys, each bit corresponds to the presence or absence of a specific structural fragment. Different variants of the MACCS keys have been developed, with the most commonly utilized version being 167 bits long. This version encodes for the presence or absence of 166 structural fragments $6,14$ $6,14$.

S1.8 Balanced accuracy

The balanced accuracy is the arithmetic mean of the scores of sensitivity (SE) and specificity $(SP)^{15}$ $(SP)^{15}$ $(SP)^{15}$. The latter two are defined as:

$$
SE = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}
$$

$$
SP = \frac{TN}{TN + FP}
$$

where TP are the true positives (substances that are ready biodegradable in the experiment and in the prediction), TN are the true negatives (substances that are not-readily biodegradable in the experiment and in the prediction), FP are the false positives (substances that are not-readily biodegradable in the experiment but ready biodegradable in the prediction), and FN the false negatives (substances that are ready biodegradable in the experiment but not-readily biodegradable in the prediction). The balanced accuracy is then:

Balanced accuracy $=$ $\frac{\text{SE} + \text{SP}}{2}$ 2

S2 The SMILES-RETRIEVAL-PIPELINE

During the analysis of the HUANG-DATASETs, inconsistencies were found in the CAS RN[™] – SMILES pairings. The CAS $RN^{\mathbb{N}}$ was treated as the definitive substance identifier because they were present in the original eChemPortal dataset. Therefore, the correct SMILES corresponding to a given CAS RN™ had to be found. To accomplish this, the SMILES-RETRIEVAL-PIPELINE was developed, which is shown in [Figure S1.](#page-10-1)

The initial step of the SMILES-RETRIEVAL-PIPELINE involved retrieving the unique CAS RN™ entries from the HUANG-REGRESSION-DATASET. These CAS RN™ and their corresponding SMILES were then split into two groups based on whether they were verified by Glüge et al.^{[9](#page-38-7)}. In case a CAS RN[™] was included in the GLUEGE-DATASET, the verified and valid SMILES for this CAS RN™ from the GLUEGE-DATASET was added to the data point. For the substances in the Gluege-Dataset, and therefore the substances registered under Registration, Evaluation, Authorisation and Restriction of Chemicals (REACH), it was also checked if the experimental study was conducted for the registered substance or if it was based on read-across. The goal was to only have studies carried out for the registered substance, and, therefore, studies based on read-across were removed.

For the substances not checked by Glüge et al.^{[9](#page-38-7)}, valid SMILES had to be retrieved. For one-component substances, the SMILES were retrieved via an Application Programming Interface (API) based on the CAS RN™ from CAS Common Chemistry. CAS Common Chemistry is a reliable source for SMILES of substances with one component but contains some systematic errors in SMILES for multiple-component substances^{[9](#page-38-7)}. For one-component substances not found on CAS Common Chemistry and for multiple-component substances, a weight-of-evidence approach was taken. The SMILES had to be found from at least two independent sources. If this was not possible, the substance was removed from the dataset (Figure [S1\)](#page-10-1).

Once the SMILES were found by CAS RN^{M} , further processing steps were performed. First, substances containing multiple CAS $\mathrm{RN}^{\mathrm{TM}}$ were identified. This was necessary to avoid data leakage later on. Identification of compounds in the HUANG-REGRESSION-DATASET with multiple CAS RN™ was performed using InChI™. If more than one CAS RN™ was associated with the data points in each group, then the shortest CAS RN[™] was taken and assigned to all data points with the same InChI[™].

For all ionizable substances, the retrieved SMILES was replaced with the SMILES of the substance's dominant species at pH 7.4 and 298 K. Substances were removed when no dominant species existed under the specified conditions. This step was not performed by Huang and Zhang 16 16 16 . Instead, they introduced two extra features (p K_a and α -values) that represent the chemical specification of the substances. They reported a performance increase in the accuracy from 85.1% to 87.6% when including pK_a and α-values as extra features. However, using the same model, we could not reproduce this performance increase (see [Table S6\)](#page-17-1). Therefore, we did not include information on chemical specification directly as features. However, this information is reflected in the SMILES.

Furthermore, substances that were mixtures were removed, and all counterions were removed from the SMILES representations. For stereoisomers, the SMILES of one stereoisomer was randomly selected. Lastly, organometallic substances were removed.

Figure S1: SMILES-RETRIEVAL-PIPELINE used for finding the SMILES corresponding to the CAS $RN^{\mathbb{N}}$ for each substance in the HUANG-REGRESSION-DATASET.

S3 Label noise filtering

Label or class noise filtering is a technique used in ML to mitigate the impact of incorrect labels in the data. Noisy labels refer to mislabeled or inaccurately labeled instances in the train and test dataset, which can adversely affect the performance of the ML model^{[17,](#page-39-7)[18](#page-39-8)}. Label noise filtering aims to identify and correct or remove these instances to improve the model's performance and generalization.

Identifying label noise can be tricky in the case of experimental Ready-Biodegradability Tests (RBT) results. It is impossible to manually check the labels or check the labels of all substances in a database or literature. Therefore, we used BIOWIN5 and BIOWIN6 to identify potentially noisy labels. Substances with potentially noisy labels were removed. The resulting CURATEDBIOWIN dataset was then used for training and testing of the ML models.

BIOWIN5 and BIOWIN6 are part of Estimation Program Interface Suite (EPI Suite™) and widely used. However, both models have a reported accuracy of 83% on an external test set. This means that a significant number of data points might have been falsely removed. Since not only data quality but also data quantity is important for ML model performance, a third classifier was used to readd some of the potentially falsely removed data points. This third classifier was a XGBClassifier trained on the CURATEDBIOWIN dataset and had a balanced accuracy of $94.2 \pm 0.9\%$. When this third classifier agreed with the experimental label, then the label was not considered noisy, and the data point was added back. This resulted in the creation of the $\text{CURATED}_{\text{FINAL}}$ dataset. The process used for the label noise filtering is also shown in [Table S2.](#page-12-1)

Table S2: Label noise filtering system to create the CURATEDBIOWIN, CURATEDPROBLEMATIC, CURATED_{FINAL}, and the CURATED_{REMOVED} datasets. The first vote decides whether a substance is in the CURATED $_{\rm BIOWIN}$ or the CURATED $_{\rm PROBLEMATIC}$ dataset. If the BIOWIN models agree with the label, then the vote is positive (\checkmark) , and the substance is in the CURATED $_{\rm BIOWIN}$ dataset. If one or both of the BIOWIN models do not agree with the label (X) , then the substance is in the CURATEDPROBLEMATIC dataset, and the third classifier is consulted. If the third classifier agrees with the label (\checkmark) , then the substance is moved from the CURATEDPROBLEMATIC to the CURATEDFINAL dataset. Otherwise (X) , the substance is placed in the CURATEDREMOVED dataset. NaN means that BIOWIN was not able to make a prediction.

S4 Applicability domain

Defining the Applicability Domain (AD) of ML models that predict the activity of chemicals based on their structure is crucial to assess the reliability and relevance of predictions made by the model for new and unseen data^{[19,](#page-40-0)[20](#page-40-1)}. Huang and Zhang^{[16](#page-39-6)} used the Tanimoto index, which calculates similarities between two chemicals based on the number of common molecular fragments, to define the AD of their models $16,21$ $16,21$. Here, the Tanimoto index is calculated using adapted code from the cheminformatics package Python Applicability Domain Analyzer $(pyADA)^{22}$ $(pyADA)^{22}$ $(pyADA)^{22}$.

The Tanimoto index was used to calculate the similarities between each substance in the

testing set and all the substances in the training set. The Tanimoto index was calculated using the MACCS keys of the substances. The similarity calculation results in a value between 0 and 1 for each substance, with a 0 indicating no similarity at all between the two substances and a value of 1 indicating that they have identical MACCS keys $23,24$ $23,24$.

S4.1 Defining the similarity threshold

To define the AD of a model, first, a similarity threshold must be set for the dataset the model is trained on. This threshold represents the minimum required similarity between a substance in the test set and the substances in the training set to be within the AD. The similarity threshold is set manually based on the number of substances in the test set that are between defined similarity ranges, the expected model performance for substances in these similarity ranges, and domain knowledge.

First, it was calculated how many of the substances in the test set have a maximum Tanimoto similarity to the training data within a certain similarity range. For example, it was calculated how many substances in the test set have a maximum similarity to the training set between 0.8 and 0.9. Furthermore, the expected mean model performance for all substances in that similarity range was calculated. These values were generated by training and testing the model again only on the substances within a given similarity range. For example, it was calculated that for all substances with a maximum Tanimoto similarity between 0.8 and 0.9, the classifier is expected to predict the biodegradability of these substances with an accuracy of 95%.

Here, the similarity threshold is set by training and testing the model again using the five different data splits. The mean of the reported performance metrics and the number of substances in a certain similarity range were calculated. Based on this, the similarity threshold was determined. Once the similarity threshold was set, the AD of the model was defined.

S4.2 Applying the AD to the DSSTox database

The defined similarity threshold could then be used to check whether a new and unseen substance is within the AD of the model. To do so, the Tanimoto similarities between the new substance and all substances in the training set must be calculated. If the maximum Tanimoto similarity is above the defined similarity threshold, then the test compound is considered to fall within the model's AD. If the new compound's similarity with the training set compounds is below the threshold, then it is considered outside the AD of the model. This suggests that the compound is dissimilar to the compounds on which the model was trained, and predictions may be less reliable.

To evaluate the broadness of the AD of the models, Huang and Zhang [16](#page-39-6) evaluated how many of the substances in the Distributed Structure-Searchable Toxicity (DSSTox) database are in the AD. The DSSTox database is operated by the United States Environmental Protection Agency (U.S. EPA) and contains more than 850 000 environmentally relevant chemicals^{[16](#page-39-6)}. To check if the substances in this database were in the AD of the models, Huang and Zhang [16](#page-39-6) calculated the Tanimoto similarities between all substances in the DSSTox database and the substances in the Huang-Regression-Dataset and Huang-CLASSIFICATION-DATASET. Here, the same procedure was replicated for the CURATED $_{SCS}$, $\text{CURATED}_{\text{BIOWIN}}$, and $\text{CURATED}_{\text{FINAL}}$ datasets.

S5 Huang-Dataset analysis examples

Table S3: Examples of data points in the HUANG-REGRESSION-DATASET for which the SMILES added by Huang and Zhang^{[16](#page-39-6)} did not match with the SMILES according to CAS $RN^{\mathbb{N}}$ checked by Glüge et al.^{[9](#page-38-7)}.

Category	Value
CAS RN [™] :	1742-79-6
SMILES Huang and Zhang ¹⁶	$O=S(=O)([O-])c1cccc/(N=N/c2ccc(Nc3cccc3)cc2)$
	$c1.[Na+]$
Molecular formula from SMILES	C18H15N3O3S.Na
Molecular formula from CAS RN [™]	C7H7NO3
SMILES according to CAS RN [™]	$CC(=O)ON1C=CC=CC1=O$
CAS RN [™]	181525-38-2
SMILES Huang and Zhang ¹⁶	$O=C(ON1C(=0)CCC1=0)ON1C(=0)CCC1=0$
Molecular formula from SMILES	C9H8N2O7
Molecular formula from CAS RN [™]	C11H12N2O3
SMILES according to CAS RN [™]	$CC1=C(CCO)C(=O)N2C=CC=C(O)C2=N1$
CAS RN [™]	136210-30-5
SMILES Huang and Zhang ¹⁶	$CCOC(=O)/C=C/C(=O)OCC$
Molecular formula from SMILES	C8H12O4
Molecular formula from CAS RN [™]	C29H50N2O8
SMILES according to CAS RN [™]	$CCOC(=O)CC(NC1CCC(CC2CCC(CC2)NC(CC2))$
	$(=0)OCC$) $C(=0)OCC$)CC1) $C(=0)OCC$

Table S4: Examples of substances with data points with differing SMILES in the Huang-Classification-Dataset. The data points belonging to the same substances were identified using the InChI™, which was based on the SMILES. The second example does not list CAS RN[™], because the data points from the LUNGHINI-DATASET, which were added to the HUANG-CLASSIFICATION-DATASET by Huang and Zhang 16 16 16 , did not have CAS RN[™].

Table S5: Examples of substances in the HUANG-REGRESSION-DATASET with multiple study results that were strongly differing. All studies are ready-biodegradability tests carried out for 28 days.

S6 Model performance

Table S6: Performance metrics reported by Huang and Zhang [16](#page-39-6) and for the XGBClassifiers trained on the HUANG-CLASSIFICATION-DATASET.

Table S7: Performance metrics for the XGBClassifiers trained on the CURATED-DATASETS. The classifiers were tested five times on fixed test sets from the CURATEDSCS and \textsc{curare} D_{BIOWIN} datasets.

S7 Analysis of the new datasets

S7.1 Data characteristics

To analyze if the label noise filtering led to the removal of difficult-to-predict data points, several characteristics of the CURATED $_{\rm{SCS}}$, CURATED $_{\rm{BIOWIN}}$, and CURATED $_{\rm{FINAL}}$ datasets were analyzed. No substances had been removed from the $\text{CURATED} \text{SCS}$ dataset based on the label, and, therefore, it served as the baseline. The results of the analysis are shown in the main article in ??. The absolute values are shown in [Figure S2,](#page-19-1) [Figure S3,](#page-19-2) and [Figure S4](#page-20-3) below.

S7.1.1 Molecular Weight

Molecular weight bears significance in the context of biodegradation due to the established connection between increasing molecular size and reduced biodegradability^{[25](#page-40-6)}. Overall, a slightly higher proportion of data points in the lowest and highest molecular weight categories $(0-250$ Da and 1000–2000 Da) were removed in the CURATED_{BIOWIN} and CURATED_{FINAL} datasets. However, it should be noted that the lowest weight category also contained the highest number of substances, which means that the weight category 0–250 Da is still well represented in the datasets. In contrast, the lowest molecular weight category had very few substances, so removing even a small number of substances significantly impacts the percentage of removed substances.

Figure S2: The distribution of data points associated with substances with a given molecular weight in the CURATED $_{\rm SCS}$, CURATED $_{\rm BIOWIN}$, and CURATED $_{\rm FINAL}$ datasets.

S7.1.2 Halogens

The presence of halogen compounds influences biodegradation. Substances containing halogens such as fluorine, bromine, and chlorine generally have been reported to have decreasing biodegradability with increasing degree of halogenation^{[26–](#page-40-7)[30](#page-41-0)}. The analysis shows that those substances with one of the three halogens were not removed more than others (cf. ??).

Figure S3: The occurrence of the halogens fluorine (F), bromide (Br), and chlorine (Cl) relative to the total number of data points in each of the classification datasets.

S7.1.3 Distribution of biodegradation labels

For both datasets (CURATED $_{\rm BIOWIN}$ and CURATED $_{\rm FINAL}$), the relative number of substances with a NRB label was $\approx 10\%$ higher than the number of substances with a RB label. This indicates that the label noise filtering identified more substances labeled as RB than NRB as potentially being incorrectly labeled.

Figure S4: Distribution of biodegradation class labels in the classification datasets

S7.2 Analysing feature adequacy

To check if other features are more suitable to present all the important information about the chemicals than MACCS key, three other feature creation methods were tested. The four feature creation methods differ in the number of features they create and the underlying method used to create them.

S7.2.1 Morgan FPs

Morgan FPs, which are also known as circular FPs, are part of the Extended Connectivity Fingerprints (ECFP) family, which are based on the concept of circular substructures. Morgan fingerprints encode information about circular substructures in a molecule. The algorithm considers atom environments within a defined radius around each atom in the molecule, capturing circular connectivity patterns $31,32$ $31,32$. Given that the common range for the radius is 1 to 3, we opted for a radius value of 2^{33} 2^{33} 2^{33} . Morgan FPs with 1024, 2048, and

4 096 binary bits can be created using RDKit, where each bit corresponds to the presence or absence of a specific circular substructure in the molecule 34 . Here, Morgan FPs with 1024 bits were used.

S7.2.2 RDK FPs

RDKit FPs are topological FPs similar to Daylight fingerprint, that are based on hashing molecular subgraphs^{[35,](#page-41-5)[36](#page-41-6)}. To create RDKit FPs, all branched and linear molecular subgraphs of a chemical up to a specified size are hashed by combining information about atom types, atomic numbers, and aromaticity states, and bond types 37 . RDKit FPs generate a binary bit vector of size 2048^{35} 2048^{35} 2048^{35} .

S7.2.3 MolFormer

Recently, Ross et al. [38](#page-42-0) presented MolFormer, a transformer-based language model trained on 1.1 billion unlabelled SMILES of molecules from the PubChem and ZINC datasets. MoL-Former learned molecular embeddings that outperformed existing baselines, including supervised and self-supervised graph neural networks and language models, across various downstream tasks on ten benchmark datasets 38 . Ross et al. 38 also demonstrated that Mol-Former effectively learns spatial relationships between atoms within a molecule from chemical SMILES representations. Here, an available MolFormer checkpoint was used to generate embeddings for all substances in our datasets based on the SMILES. This resulted in feature vectors of length 768.

S7.3 UMAP

UMAP plots were created using the following parameters: n_neighbors=15, min_dist=0.5, target weight=0.1 (for semi-supervised), metric="manhattan", random state=42

Figure S5: UMAP plot for MACCS keys

d) Curated f_{final} + Curated f_{normal} unsupervised

e) Curated_{Final} + Curated_{Removed}
unsupervised with labels

f) $Curated_{Final} + Curated_{Removed}$
semi-supervised (target_weight=0.1)

Figure S6: UMAP plot for Morgan FPs

d) Curated f_{final} + Curated f_{normal} unsupervised

Figure S7: UMAP plot for RDKit FPs

Figure S8: UMAP plot for features generated using MolFormer

S7.4 XGBClassifier performance with other features

Here XGBClassifier was run with default hyperparameters (as suggested by Huang and Zhang 16 16 16) for the four different features.

Table S8: Balanced accuracy, sensitivity, specificity and F1 score for XGBClassifier using the default hyperparameters from Huang and Zhang^{[16](#page-39-6)}.

S7.5 LAZYPREDICT with other features

Table S9: LAZYPREDICT, all features created for the CURATEDFINAL dataset, test set CURATEDSCS. ROC AUC stands for Receiver Operating Characteristic Area Under the Curve, and the Time Taken is in seconds.

Table S10: LAZYPREDICT, all features created for the CURATEDFINAL dataset, test set CURATEDBIOWIN dataset. ROC AUC stands for Receiver Operating Characteristic Area Under the Curve, and the Time Taken is in seconds.

Table S11: After hyperparameter tuning, all features created for the $\textsc{curATED}_{\text{FINAL}}$ dataset, test set \textsc{Cuv} are
D \textsc{SCS}

solver: sag

Table S12: After hyperparameter tuning, all features created for the $\textsc{curat}_\textsc{FINAL}$ dataset and tested on the CURATED $\overline{\text{BUNN}}$ dataset

S7.6 Comparing the AD

The similarity threshold here was set based on the share of data points in each similarity category. All datasets had $\langle 1\%$ of substances with a similarity score below 0.5, and it was therefore decided to set the AD threshold to 0.5. The similarity threshold was not based on the expected accuracy because we didn't see a clear drop in the accuracy. However, the low number of substances with a similarity score below 0.5 meant that the determined accuracies of the similarity categories below 0.5 might not be robust.

Table S13: Results of defining the similarity threshold for the HUANG-CLASSIFICATION-DATASET. The dashed line indicates the determined similarity threshold.

	HUANG-CLASSIFICATION- DATASET reported		HUANG-CLASSIFICATION- DATASET replicated	
Similarity	Expected accuracy	Share of datapoints	Expected accuracy	Share of datapoints
$0.9 \text{ to } < 1.0$	88.9%		$84.0 \pm 0.8\%$	39.1%
$0.8 \text{ to } < 0.9$	87.1\%		$81.1 \pm 2.5\%$	27.5%
$0.7 \text{ to } < 0.8$	86.3%		$81.3 \pm 2.2\%$	20.7\%
$0.6 \text{ to } < 0.7$	85.6%		$78.6 \pm 2.0\%$	9.8%
$0.5\;{\rm to}<$ 0.6	85.1\%		$76.4 \pm 6.3\%$	2.3%
$0.4 \text{ to } < 0.5$	Out of AD		$76.0 \pm 14.6\%$	0.5%
${<}0.4$	Out of AD		$50.0 \pm 0.0\%$	0.1%

Table S14: Results of defining the similarity threshold for the CURATED SCS, $\text{CURATED}_{\text{BIOWIN}}$, $\text{CURATED}_{\text{FINAL}}$ dataset. The dashed line indicates the determined similarity threshold.

	C URATEDSCS		CURATEDBIOWIN		CURATEDFINAL	
Similarity	Expected accuracy	Share of datapoints	Expected accuracy	Share of datapoints	Expected accuracy	Share of datapoints
$0.9 \text{ to } < 1.0$	$84.9 \pm 1.1\%$	37.0%	$98.3 \pm 0.8\%$	36.7%	$98.2 \pm 0.3\%$	36.8%
$0.8 \text{ to } < 0.9$	$80.0 \pm 2.5\%$	27.8%	$94.0 \pm 2.4\%$	25.8%	$94.0 \pm 1.3\%$	26.2%
$0.7 \text{ to } < 0.8$	$79.3 \pm 2.3\%$	21.7%	$92.9 \pm 2.2\%$	21.2%	$92.5 \pm 2.4\%$	21.6%
$0.6 \text{ to } < 0.7$	$84.4 \pm 3.0\%$	10.5%	$92.5 \pm 1.5\%$	12.5%	$93.0 \pm 3.4\%$	11.9%
$0.5\;{\rm to}\; \mathord{<} 0.6$	$81.0 \pm 5.6\%$	2.4%	$89.8 \pm 7.4\%$	3.0%	$91.9 \pm 4.3\%$	2.9%
$0.4 \text{ to } < 0.5$	$100.0 \pm 0.0\%$	0.5%	$66.7 \pm 40.8\%$	0.7%	$89.3 \pm 15.3\%$	0.6%
< 0.4	$25.0 \pm 35.4\%$	0.1%	$66.7 \pm 57.7\%$	0.1%	$100.0 \pm 0.0\%$	0.0%

Table S15: Share of substances in the DSSTox dataset that are in the AD of the classification model presented by Huang and Zhang 16 16 16 and the classifiers trained on the CURATEDSCS, CURATEDBIOWIN, CURATEDFINAL.

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