Graph Neural Networks on One- and Two-Body Integrals for Molecular Energy Prediction

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Abstract

We present a graph neural network (GNN) framework for predicting molecular energies from molecular orbital graphs. Our approach leverages information from one- and two-electron integrals encoded as graph features, together with pooling strategies that map orbital-level predictions to molecular energies. The proposed approach was tested on 6 diatomic molecules, a total of 132 geometries, where the target molecular energy was computed using Full Configuration Interactions. Our results illustrate that a GNN architecture, even for this small dataset, is capable of learning the energy value given the molecular representation through the molecular orbitals.

1 Introduction

A central problem in quantum chemistry is the prediction of molecular ground-state energies, which requires solving the electronic structure problem (ESP). Approaches to the ESP range from mean-field methods, such as Hartree–Fock and density functional theory (DFT), to post–*ab initio* methods, where a molecular orbital (MO) basis is essential for capturing electronic correlation. Post–*ab initio* methods span a hierarchy of approximations, from perturbative approaches (e.g., Møller–Plesset perturbation theory) and coupled-cluster methods to Full Configuration Interaction (FCI), the ultimate reference model that provides numerically exact solutions. However, the exponential scaling of FCI with system size renders it intractable beyond small molecules. Molecular orbitals also play a central role in quantum algorithm–based approaches to the ESP; for example, the widely studied Variational Quantum Eigensolver (VQE) constructs its ansatz from MO representations.

Machine learning (ML) has become an important tool in molecular and materials simulations, as it can bypass explicit solutions of the electronic structure problem (ESP) and accelerate molecular modeling [1]. Applications range from materials discovery [2] to molecular property prediction and drug design [3]. A central challenge in these approaches is the choice of molecular representation, which strongly affects both predictive accuracy and generalization across chemical space [4]. Existing representations include string-based encodings such as SMILES, hand-crafted descriptors such as molecular fingerprints, and physics-inspired descriptors such as Coulomb matrices [5]. More recently, features derived from physico-chemical properties have also been employed.

Molecules can also be naturally expressed as graphs, where atoms are nodes and bonds are edges [6, 7]. This graph-based view preserves structural symmetries such as SE(3) equivariance [8] and has motivated the development of Graph Neural Networks (GNNs), which are now widely used for molecular property prediction [9–11].

Among physics-inspired options, atomic and molecular orbitals provide a compact basis derived from first principles and have demonstrated strong transferability in energy prediction tasks [12]. This "quantum chemistry-inspired" representation has been used in a plethora of supervised ML

models, from kernel methods to neural networks [12–15]. While some graph-based methods have incorporated physico-chemical descriptors [16] as node or edge features, a direct use of orbital representations within graph neural networks remains largely unexplored.

Some studies have explored combining orbital information with graph learning. OrbNet integrates molecular orbital features within a GNN to achieve accurate energy predictions [14], and similar ideas have been investigated by Chuiko et al. [17] using a Geminal-based feature representation. These results indicate that molecular orbitals provide a physically grounded feature space that can be incorporated with ML models. This leverages the molecular representation through one- and two-body integrals from Hartree-Fock orbitals as graph features for the regression of molecular energies.

2 Methodology

The electronic Hamiltonian in second quantization, for a set of N spin orbitals, is

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{pq}^{N} h_{pq}, a_p^{\dagger} a_q + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{pqrs}^{N} g_{pqrs}, a_p^{\dagger} a_q^{\dagger} a_r a_s, \tag{1}$$

where a_p^{\dagger} (a_p) are the creation (annihilation) operators for spin orbital p, and h_{pq} and g_{pqrs} are the one- and two-electron integrals in the orbital basis. The electronic energy,

$$E_{\text{elec}} = \langle \Psi | \hat{H} | \Psi \rangle,$$
 (2)

can be expressed in terms of the one- (Γ_{ik}) and two-particle $(D_{ij,kl})$ reduced density matrices (RDMs):

$$E_{\text{elec}} = \sum_{ik} \Gamma_{ik}, h_{ki} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij,kl} D_{ij,kl}, g_{ijkl}.$$
 (3)

Post–Hartree–Fock (post-HF) methodologies such as configuration interaction (CI), coupled cluster (CC), Møller–Plesset perturbation theory (MP2), and complete active space self-consistent field (CASSCF) all rely on a set of molecular orbitals (MOs) to construct h_{pq} and g_{pqrs} , typically starting from the Hartree–Fock reference. This motivates a general formalism of the form

$$E_{\text{elec}} \approx f_{\theta}(\{\psi_i\}_i^M),$$
 (4)

where $\{\psi_i\}_i^M$ denotes the set of MOs and f_θ is a learnable function (e.g., a neural network, kernel method, symbolic regression, etc.). This idea has been explored previously using atomic orbital (AO) representations [12–14]. AO-based features are directly connected to the computation of forces via $\nabla_{\mathbf{R}i} E_{\text{elec}}$, but obtaining localized MOs often requires additional projection procedures such as Pipek–Mezey or Boys localization.

2.1 Graph representation of MOs

We employ molecular orbitals (MOs) as the molecular representation by constructing a graph object $\mathcal{G}=(V,E)$ from the Fock (**F**), Coulomb (**J**), and exchange (**K**) matrices. In this representation, the nodes (V) correspond to the diagonal elements of these matrices, while the edges (E) are given by the off-diagonal elements. Since the Fock matrix **F** is diagonal in the MO basis, it only contributes node features and does not provide edge information. To reduce the number of edges, we prune connections between two MOs whenever $\max\left(|J_{ij}|,|K_{ij}|\right)<\epsilon$, where ϵ is a small cutoff [15]; here set to 10^{-10} . This criterion assumes that orbitals with negligible interaction need not be connected and also improves the efficiency of the graph convolution steps. An example of this construction is shown in Fig. 1 for a toy molecule with two molecular orbitals (e.g., H_2). All matrices were computed using PYSCF and stored to avoid recomputation during training. The matrix calculation takes on average 0.15 s per geometry.

2.2 Graph neural network for energy prediction

The molecular energy is predicted in a regression setting using the MO-based graph representation. Node features are initialized as $\mathbf{x}_i = [F_{ii}, J_{ii}, K_{ii}]$, and embedded into a latent space of dimension

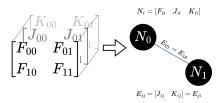


Figure 1: Matrix to graph parametrization for a pair of molecular orbitals.

64 through an MLP. The message-passing stage consists of three graph convolution layers. The first layer is a NNConv [18], which incorporates edge features to update the node embeddings. Subsequent layers refine the representation through nonlinear transformations and neighborhood aggregation. For graph-level readout, we evaluated both mean and sum pooling, finding that the latter yielded more accurate results. Finally, the pooled graph embedding is passed through a two-layer multilayer perceptron (MLP) to produce the energy prediction. We considered two variations of the same GNN: one trained individually for each system (GNN_i) and one trained jointly across all systems (GNN_G) .

Both general architectures were selected after an extensive search over different layer depths and convolutional combinations. Given the dataset size, we restricted the model to a maximum of four layers after the initial NNConv layer, which incorporates edge features. The neural network used to map edge features within NNConv was varied from a simple linear augmenter to MLPs. The best performance was achieved with an MLP of dimensions [3, 32, hid_dim, hid_dim] and LeakyReLU activations. The latent space dimension (hid_dim) was varied between 8 and 128 (in powers of 2). Both 64 and 128 dimensions gave comparable results, with 64 ultimately selected due to its lower computational cost. Batch normalization after activation layers was also tested, but consistently led to larger training and test errors, so it was discarded. Finally, motivated by universal machine learning interatomic potentials, where the energy scale also depends on system size or mass, we adopted a global_add_pooling operation to aggregate node embeddings.

2.3 Data and training procedure

We used the PennyLane [19] Molecules dataset, available at https://pennylane.ai/datasets/collection/qchem, which reports seven distinct diatomic molecules: CO (12 geometries), HF (42), Li₂ (12), LiH (42), N₂ (12), and O₂ (12). For all systems, the reference ground-state energies were computed using Full Configuration Interaction (FCI) with the STO-3G basis set. For both GNN_G and GNN_i , the dataset was split at the geometry level, with 80% of the geometries from each molecule used for training and the remaining 20% held out for testing. We used Adam with a learning rate of 6×10^{-4} and a batch size of 8. The GNN_i models were trained for 1,000 epochs, while GNN_G was trained for 2,000 epochs. All models were run on a GPU Nvidia RTX 4050.

3 Results and Discussion

The performance of both models, GNN_i and GNN_G , is presented in Fig. 2 and summarized in Table 1. Figure 2 shows the potential energy surfaces (PES) for all six molecules, where the symbols \times denote test data outside the training set. Both models successfully capture the relationship between interatomic distance and molecular energy using the information provided by the molecular orbitals. For H_2 , however, the normalization procedure led to a form of feature "degeneracy," where, across the sampled range of interatomic distances, the MO graph was characterized by only two predominant values of F, J, and K, reason why results for H_2 are not reported. We aim to further investigate other normalization approaches for F, J, and K compatible with different chemical systems.

The noisier performance of GNN_i may stem from the smaller dataset used for its training, which constrains its ability to accurately represent the energy as a function of the integrals. In contrast, GNN_G is trained on the full dataset, allowing it to capture deeper relationships between the molecular orbitals and the energy, extending the knowledge from similar molecules to others with alike properties.

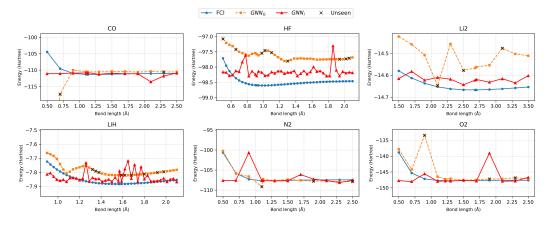


Figure 2: Predicted PES for diatomics. Blue curves represent the FCI energy, and orange and red the energy predicted with GNN_G and GNN_i , respectively. Symbols \times are the test data; 80/20 split.

To evaluate performance, we computed the mean absolute error (MAE) between the predicted and FCI reference energies. Given the small dataset size, the data point with the largest error was excluded from the calculation to avoid disproportionate bias. Our average error per molecule is ~ 0.5 , while high, illustrating that GNN_G architecture with additional data can be used to predict molecular energies.

Finally, one of the main motivations for using a GNN on molecular orbitals (MOs) is its ability to predict properties directly at the graph level. An important application is the Variational Quantum Eigensolver (VQE), a leading algorithm for near-term quantum chemistry that combines classical optimization with quantum state preparation to approximate molecular ground-state energies [20, 21]. In VQE, the molecular energy is obtained as the expectation value of the Hamiltonian, $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{VQE}}(\theta) = \langle \psi(\theta) | H | \psi(\theta) \rangle$ with $\theta \in \Theta \subseteq \mathbb{R}^d$ denoting the circuit parameters, H the molecular Hamiltonian, and $|\psi(\theta)\rangle$ the ansatz wavefunction. In practice, many ansätze are inspired by classical quantum chemistry methods such as coupled cluster (CC), where θ corresponds to single and double excitation amplitudes. These excitations can be regarded as graph-level observables, making them natural targets for prediction with a GNN-based approach.

As a proof of concept, we conducted a secondary experiment using the learned embeddings from GNN_G . Specifically, we employed the node embeddings obtained after the first convolution layer and applied permutationally invariant operations to construct inputs for an MLP with two hidden layers of shape $[4\times64, 4\times256, 4\times256]$ and $[4\times256, 4\times256, 1]$. This model was trained for 1,000 epochs to predict the single-excitation parameter θ_{pr} between orbitals p and r, using the values provided in the PennyLane [19] Molecules dataset through its circuit "wires." The resulting model achieved a cosine similarity of **0.4514**, demonstrating the feasibility of leveraging GNN-based MO representations for downstream quantum computing tasks such as excitation prediction.

Molecule	CO	HF	Li ₂	LiH	N ₂	O ₂
MAE	1.3399	0.8448	0.1207	0.0659	0.3065	0.6331

Table 1: Testing performance of the GNN_G (All measures in Hartree).

4 Summary

In this work, we introduced a GNN-based framework for energy prediction, demonstrating how orbital graph representations can capture the essential physics of electronic structure. Although the dataset was small, our results indicate that GNN-based architectures can be developed for molecular orbitals. In future work, it would be valuable to explore more sophisticated preprocessing of the one- and two-body integrals. For instance, recent studies have proposed sign-preserving logarithmic transformations that separate positive and negative entries, log-scale them, and standardize independently before concatenation [15]. Such approaches stabilize learning across the wide dynamic range of integral values while retaining sign information, and could further improve the robustness and generalization of orbital-based graph models.

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