1 **MARSY: A multitask deep learning framework for prediction of drug combination synergy**

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Abstract

Motivation: Combination therapies have emerged as a treatment strategy for cancers to reduce the probability of drug resistance and to improve outcome. Large databases curating the results of many drug screening studies on preclinical cancer cell lines have been developed, capturing the synergistic and antagonistic effects of combination of drugs in different cell lines. However, due to the high cost of drug screening experiments and the sheer size of possible drug combinations, these databases are quite sparse. This necessitates the development of transductive computational models to accurately impute these missing values. Results: Here, we developed MARSY, a deep learning multi-task model that incorporates information on gene expression profile of cancer cell lines, as well as the differential expression signature induced by each drug to predict drug-pair synergy scores. By utilizing two encoders to capture the interplay between the drug-pairs, as well as the drug-pairs and cell lines, and by adding auxiliary tasks in the predictor, MARSY learns latent embeddings that improve the prediction performance compared to state-of-the-art and traditional machine learning models. Using MARSY, we then predicted the synergy scores of 133,722 new drug-pair cell line combinations, which we have made available to the community as part of this study. Moreover, we validated various insights obtained from these novel predictions using independent studies, confirming the ability of MARSY in making accurate novel predictions. Availability and Implementation: An implementation of the algorithms in Python and cleaned input datasets are provided in https://github.com/Emad-COMBINE-lab/MARSY. Contact: amin.emad@mcgill.ca

Supplementary Information: Online-only supplementary data is available at the journal's website.

Introduction

Cancers are complex diseases that involve various pathways and are regulated by a multitude of different genes (Li, et al., 2020; Sun, et al., 2015). Despite the emerging understanding of cancers, the development of effective treatments remains a prevailing challenge. Combination therapies, in which multiple treatments are administered simultaneously, have emerged as an alternative to monotherapies (Bayat Mokhtari, et al., 2017; Madani Tonekaboni, et al., 2018; Sun, et al., 2015). By simultaneously targeting multiple genes, proteins, and pathways, they can reduce the probability of drug resistance while improving treatment's efficacy (Bayat Mokhtari, et al., 2017; Li, et al., 2018; Li, et al., 2018; Li, et al., 2021), and allow for the reduction of necessary dosage per drug, reducing the risk of drug toxicity and adverse effects (Kuru, et al., 2022; Li, et al., 2018; Li, et al., 2021).

Due to the distinct molecular and clinical characteristics of cancer types, it is necessary to evaluate the response of cancer cells to different treatments and treatment strategies in each cancer type. The curation of molecular profiles of cancer cell lines (CCLs) and their response to monotherapies in large databases such as the Cancer Cell Line Encyclopedia (CCLE) (Barretina, et al., 2012) and Genomics of Drug Sensitivity in Cancer (GDSC) (Yang, et al., 2013) initiated the development of various computational models for prediction of single drug response in CCLs (Costello, et al., 2014; Hostallero, et al., 2022) and patient tumours (Hostallero, et al., 2021; Huang, et al., 2020). More recently, large databases of synergy scores of drug combinations (mainly drug-pairs) in CCLs such as DrugComb (Zagidullin, et al., 2019) have been curated based on results of many high-throughput drug screening studies. These databases include different

synergy scores to quantify the observed effectiveness of a drug combination compared to its

expected effectiveness if they are not interacting (Amzallag, et al., 2019). In spite of these

efforts, the sheer size of possible (drug combination, CCL) tuples and the cost of drug screening

experiments have resulted in sparse datasets with many missing values. Computational models

that can accurately predict the synergy scores of drug combinations and impute these datasets

can have a significant impact in this domain.

Various models have been proposed to achieve this goal (Bansal, et al., 2014). In one study

(Sidorov, et al., 2019), the authors used various machine learning (ML) models and obtained

their best predictive performance using Random Forests (RF) and Extreme Gradient Boosting

(XGB) models. Other studies have also explored ML models such as linear regression, Support

Vector Machine (SVM), LASSO, RF, XGB, Extremely Randomized Trees, and TreeCombo (which

is an extreme gradient boosted tree-based approach) (Celebi, et al., 2019; Janizek, et al., 2018;

Jeon, et al., 2018). In addition to these traditional ML models, several deep learning (DL) models

have been proposed. One of the earliest methods, DeepSynergy (Preuer, et al., 2017), used a

fully connected neural network composed of two hidden layers and showed significant

improvement compared to then state-of-the-art ML models such as RF and XGB. A more recent

model, MatchMaker (Kuru, et al., 2022), showed that learning two distinct representations for

each drug-CCL pair in a combination can improve the performance.

Here we present MARSY, a multitask DL model that predicts the level of synergism between

drug-pairs tested on CCLs. Using gene expression to characterize CCLs and drug-induced

signatures to represent each drug, MARSY learns a distinct set of embeddings to obtain multiple

views of the input features. Precisely, a representation of the entire combination and a

representation of the drug-pair are learned in parallel. These embeddings are then fed to a

multitask network that predicts the synergy score of the drug combination alongside single

drug responses. A thorough evaluation of MARSY revealed its superior performance compared

to various state-of-the-art and traditional computational methods. A detailed analysis of the

design choices of our framework demonstrated the predictive contribution of the learned

embeddings by this model. Using MARSY, we then predicted the synergy scores of 133,722 new

drug-pair CCL combinations, which can be used to guide future drug screening and

pharmacogenomics studies. Moreover, we validated various insights obtained from these novel

predictions using independent studies, confirming the ability of MARSY in making accurate

novel predictions.

METHODS

Prediction of drug-pair synergy scores and single drug response using MARSY

MARSY (Multitask drug pAiR Synergy) is a DL-based model that seeks to learn latent

representations (embeddings) capable of predicting the synergy score of two drugs in a CCL. As

input, it receives feature vectors of two candidate drugs and a feature vector of a CCL (Figure

1). The architecture includes two parallel and separately parameterized encoders with a

bottleneck layer, and one multi-task predictor. The first encoder (ENC_{Pair}) receives the

concatenation of the feature vectors of the drug-pair to learn a (drug 1, drug2)-specific

embedding, while the second encoder (ENC_{Triple}) receives all three feature vectors to learn a

(drug1, drug2, CCL)-specific embedding. These embeddings are then concatenated and

provided as input to the predictor, which predicts the synergy score of the two drugs, along

with the single drug response of each drug in that CCL (performing three tasks simultaneously).

The inclusion of single drug response predictors as auxiliary tasks ensures that the

representations learned by the two encoders are constrained to capture biologically and

chemically important information corresponding to each drug, improving its generalizability

and performance.

ENC_{Pair} accepts a drug-pair's signature (a vector of length 3912) as input and consists of two

fully connected hidden layers of width 1024 and 2048. ENC_{Triple} accepts a vector of length 8551

corresponding to the concatenation of a drug-pair's signatures and a CCL's gene expression

profile as input and consists of two fully connected hidden layers of width 2048 and 4096. The

first hidden layer of both encoders is a bottleneck layer to perform dimensionality reduction,

while the second hidden layer has a larger width to increase the capacity of the model. The

relative width of layers in these two encoders are chosen to approximately match the length of

inputs to each encoder. A linear activation function is used for the first layer, while a Rectified

Linear Unit (ReLU) function is used for the second layer of both encoders. Both encoders use

dropout regularization with a probability of 0.2. The embeddings obtained from these two

encoders are concatenated and provided as input to the predictor ($PRED_{Resp}$). $PRED_{Resp}$ consists

of two fully connected hidden layers of width 4096 and 1024 and an output layer of width 3 to

predict the synergy score of the drugs and their individual drug response. A ReLU activation

function is used for the first two layers while a linear activation function is selected for the

output layer, given the regression nature of the prediction task. Finally, a dropout

regularization with a probability of 0.5 is used for the predictor. Details of hyperparameter

tuning and training are discussed below.

Figure 1: The overview of MARSY's architecture. A) The drug features and CCL gene expression
profile are provided as input to the two encoders. Separately parameterized encoders obtain
representations corresponding to the drug-pair and to the drugs and CCL triple. B) Both
representations are concatenated and used as inputs to a multi-task predictor. C) The predictor
predicts the synergy score of the drug combination, along with the single drug response of each
drug (three outputs).

Training and hyperparameter tuning

Both encoders (ENC_Triple and ENC_Pair) and the predictor (PRED_Resp) were trained in an end-to-end

fashion using a mean squared error (MSE) loss function and the Adamax optimizer (Kingma and

Ba, 2014) with the default learning rate of 0.001 and early stopping. The dropout probabilities

and the activation function used on the input layer of both encoders were considered

hyperparameters to be tuned using an independent validation set. All possible combinations of

the probabilities 0.2 and 0.5 were assessed for both the encoders and the predictor.

Furthermore, this assessment was performed alternating between a ReLU and a linear

activation function for the input layer of the encoders. The reason we considered a linear

activation function as an option for the first layer is its ability to improve and simplify the

optimization process. These hyperparameters were evaluated on a small validation set (~1100

samples) that was excluded from the main dataset used for cross-validation evaluation, in order

to ensure that no data leakage occurs. The rest of MARSY's architecture followed the design

choices detailed above. The best performing combination of hyperparameters (as evaluated on

the independent validation set) was used to finalize the design of the MARSY framework.

Datasets and data cleaning

In this study, the feature vector of each CCL corresponded to its baseline gene expression

profile (before administration of any drug), as measured in CCLE (Barretina, et al., 2012). We

downloaded the $log_2(RPKM + 1)$ normalized RNA-seq profile of 1019 untreated CCLs

(catalogued in the CCLE study) from the CellMiner database (Reinhold, et al., 2012;

Shankavaram, et al., 2009). We removed lowly expressed genes whose $log_2(RPKM + 1)$ value

was lower than 1 in more than 75% of all CCLs. Additionally, we calculated the variance of

genes across all CCLs and excluded those that had a variance smaller than 0.8, which resulted

in a set of 4639 features (Figure 2). Finally, a z-score normalization was performed to the

expression of each gene over all the CCLs, one gene at a time.

Figure 2: Overview of the number of features representing each element of the input. To
ensure the embeddings learned by MARSY are invariant to order of the drug-pairs, for each
such pair, an additional sample is included by inverting their order while keeping the same
associated synergy score.

To represent drugs (as inputs to the model) we used their signatures corresponding to the

differential gene expression profile of two CCLs (MCF7 and PC3) measured 24 hours after

treatment with that drug with the dosage of $10\ \mu M$. We downloaded level 5 signatures from

the Library of Integrated Network-Based Cellular Signatures (LINCS) (Subramanian, et al., 2017),

and only used experimentally measured values corresponding to 978 landmark genes. The two

CCLs, the time after treatment, and the drug dosage were selected to maximize the number of

samples in our study. In instances where replicate signatures existed for the same CCL, same

drug, same dosage, and same time-point, we calculated their mean to obtain a consensus

signature. We concatenated the MCF7 and PC3 signatures of each drug, resulting in a vector of

length 3912 to represent each drug-pair (Figure 2).

DrugComb is one of the largest publicly available datasets for drug synergy scores with a total

of 739,964 drug combinations obtained from 8397 unique drugs. We downloaded drug synergy

scores (and single drug responses) corresponding to triples of (drug1, drug2, CCL) for which we

had both drug signatures (from LINCS) and CCL gene expression profiles (from CCLE) from

DrugComb (V1.5, https://drugcomb.fimm.fi). Various measures of drug synergy have been

introduced in the literature, which typically rely on the deviation of the observed response

compared to that of a theoretical model. In this work, we focused on two more recent

measures of synergism, Zero Interaction Potency ("ZIP") and "S_{mean}", which have been

introduced to overcome some of the shortcomings of older measures and provide more robust

synergy scores. ZIP calculates the synergism of a drug-pair under the assumption that there is

no potency between the single drug responses (Yadav, et al., 2015). ZIP incorporates both the

Loewe additivity (Loewe, 1953) and the Bliss independence (Bliss, 1939) theoretical models in

order to capture different types of drug interaction patterns and has been shown to be more

robust and less sensitive to experimental noise (Yadav, et al., 2015). On the other hand, S_{mean}

calculates synergism of a drug-pair assuming that the single drug effect is equivalent to the

average of the single drug responses (Malyutina, et al., 2019). As opposed to ZIP, S_{mean} is not

calculated for each combination of dosages; instead, a drug sensitivity measure is computed

directly from the dose response curve of each drug and used as the drug-pair's response. Thus,

S_{mean} serves not only as a measure of drug-pair synergy but also of its sensitivity, which aims to

illustrate the actual response of a CCL (Malyutina, et al., 2019), and hence is more biologically

informative. For these reasons, we focused on these two measures, since they represent recent

advances in defining drug synergy with several advantages compared to older models.

Since DrugComb contains (sometimes inconsistent) replicates, it is important to carefully

process such cases. To identify samples with inconsistent replicates, we used two conditions.

First, we only kept samples for which at least 60% of the replicates had the same synergy score

sign. Second, we only kept the samples for which the standard deviation of the synergy score

over replicates did not exceed 0.1. Finally, to obtain a single consensus synergy score for each

sample, we calculated the replicates' median score. The final dataset, comprised of samples

that were present in all three datasets above and passed the filtering steps, contained 43,181

(drug1, drug2, CCL) triple samples corresponding to 670 unique drugs, 2353 unique drug-pairs

and 75 unique CCLs. Finally, in order to ensure that the trained model is invariant to the order

of the drugs in its input space, for each triple sample we constructed a new sample by changing

the order of the drugs (Figure 2), resulting in a total of 86,348 triple samples. It is important to

note that the samples with known synergy scores above only correspond to 0.128% of all

possible combinations of 670 drugs and 75 CCLs, further emphasizing the importance of

transductive computational models to complete this sparse 3-dimensional tensor.

We used relative inhibition (RI), available in DrugComb, as the response of each drug in a CCL.

RI represents the normalized area under the dose-response curve after a log_{10} transformation

(Zheng, et al., 2021). More precisely, RI is the proportion of this area under the dose-response

curve to the maximal area that one drug can achieve at the same range of dosages. This metric

represents the overall inhibition effect of a drug and has shown to be a robust way to represent

drugs' sensitivity (Douglass, et al., 2022). Additionally, the RI metric allows the comparison of

drug responses obtained using different dose ranges (Zheng, et al., 2021).

Baseline models

We considered several baseline models for benchmarking the performance of MARSY. Off-the-

shelf models included LASSO, ElasticNet, Support Vector Machine Regression (SVM), Random

Forests (RF) and a multi-layer perceptron (MLP) with the same depth and width as MARSY.

State-of-the-art algorithms, developed by others for the same task, included TreeCombo

(Janizek, et al., 2018), DeepSynergy (Preuer, et al., 2017), and MatchMaker (Kuru, et al., 2022).

All models were trained on the same dataset (with identical folds across models) and evaluated

similarly to ensure a fair comparison. Hyperparameters of these models were tuned using the

same independent validation set used to tune MARSY's hyperparameters (see Supplementary

Methods for details). The model that performed best on the validation set was used for cross-

validation analysis on the main dataset. In addition to the baselines above, we performed an

extensive ablation study to assess the effect of each component of MARSY's architecture on its

performance. The details of the ablation study are provided in Results.

Cross-validation, data splitting, and evaluation metrics

The performance of MARSY (and other methods) was evaluated using a five-fold cross

validation (CV) approach combined with two data splitting strategies. The main dataset

described above was randomly divided into five folds (based on each data split strategy

described below); four folds were used to train each model using the hyperparameters

obtained from the independent validation set (not used as part of these folds) and the

remaining fold was used for performance evaluation. This was repeated five times so that each

fold is set as the test set once. The mean and standard deviation of performance metrics on

these test sets were used for evaluation.

Two data splitting strategies were used corresponding to the transductive setup of this study:

leave-triple-out and leave-pair-out. In the former strategy, random triples (drug-pair and CCL)

were selected randomly to construct the five folds. In the latter strategy, the folds were

randomly selected based on drug-pairs, to ensure that the pairs of drugs are not seen together

in the training set. To ensure a fair comparison, we used the exact same folds for all models

and evaluated them in a similar manner. We evaluated the performance of MARSY and other

methods in predicting the continuous-valued drug synergy scores using Root Mean Squared

Error (RMSE), Spearman's Rank Correlation Coefficient (SCC), and Pearson Correlation

Coefficient (PCC). Additionally, we converted drug synergy scores to binary classes (synergistic

or antagonistic) using different thresholds (0, ±1, ±5, ±10 and ±20), and used area under the

receiver operating characteristic (AUROC) to evaluate the performance. For a threshold t,

synergy scores above $+t$ were considered synergistic and values below $-t$ were considered

antagonistic.

RESULTS

Performance of MARSY in prediction of drug synergy scores in a leave-triple-out data split

As the first evaluation study, we focused on the five-fold CV with leave-triple-out setup,

discussed in Methods (Table 1). MARSY outperformed all baseline models using all

performance metrics. In particular, MARSY achieved a Pearson correlation coefficient of PCC =

0.886 on ZIP and PCC = 0.864 on S_{mean}. The substantial difference between the performance of

MARSY and the MLP with a similar depth and width, reveals the importance of learning

separate representations for input pairs and triples, and using a multi-task predictor to

constraint these representations using single drug priors. In this evaluation, all state-of-the-art

algorithms outperformed off-the-shelf methods, yet did not achieve MARSY's performance.

Table1: The performance of MARSY and baseline methods using 5-fold leave-triple-out
evaluation. The folds and input data are the same across different models for a fair comparison.
Best performance values are in bold-face and underlined. The mean and standard deviations
are calculated across the folds. Models are sorted based on their ZIP PCC values.
276

Model	ZIP			S_{mean}		
	SCC	PCC	RMSE	SCC	PCC	RMSE
MARSY	**0.780** (±0.010)	**0.886** (±0.005)	**5.36** (±0.19)	**0.836** (±0.002)	**0.864** (±0.003)	**8.42** (±0.09)
MatchMaker	0.742 (±0.004)	0.873 (±0.006)	6.11 (±0.319)	0.810 (±0.003)	0.840 (±0.005)	9.84 (±0.23)
TreeCombo (XGBoost)	0.737 (±0.004)	0.870 (±0.003)	5.73 (±0.17)	0.817 (±0.002)	0.852 (±0.002)	8.77 (±0.06)

DeepSynergy	0.701 (±0.003)	0.869 (±0.004)	5.78 (±0.18)	0.803 (±0.003)	0.843 (±0.002)	9.14 (±0.12)
MLP	0.675 (±0.002)	0.840 (±0.004)	6.30 (±0.15)	0.781 (±0.011)	0.817 (±0.009)	9.72 (±0.24)
SVM	0.689 (±0.004)	0.783 (±0.006)	7.65 (±0.19)	0.766 (±0.005)	0.779 (±0.004)	10.67 (±0.07)
Random Forests	0.419 (±0.003)	0.646 (±0.016)	9.04 (±0.21)	0.619 (±0.006)	0.640 (±0.005)	12.98 (±0.05)
LASSO	0.342 (±0.009)	0.433 (±0.013)	10.41 (±0.21)	0.561 (±0.011)	0.525 (±0.013)	14.22 (±0.14)
Elastic Net	0.342 (±0.009)	0.432 (±0.012)	10.42 (±0.21)	0.562 (±0.011)	0.525 (±0.013)	14.22 (±0.15)

Next, we sought to determine the ability of MARSY (and other models) in predicting the

synergistic and antagonistic drugs in each CCL (a binary classification task). Since the ZIP scores

and S_{mean} are continuous values, we used five thresholds (0, ±1, ±5, ±10 and ±20) with an

increasing degree of strictness to binarize these values. For a specific threshold $\pm t$, a score (ZIP

or S_{mean}) of a triple (two drugs and a CCL) larger than $+t$ was considered to be synergistic,

smaller than $-t$ was considered to be antagonistic, and values between these two thresholds

were considered low-confidence and were discarded. Figure 3A and Table S1 show the AUROC

of MARSY and other baselines models as a function of these thresholds, revealing the superior

performance of MARSY in prediction of ZIP score in a classification formulation.

Figure 3: Performance of MARSY and its embeddings in identifying highly antagonistic and synergistic drugs. Panels A) and B) show classification performance of different methods in terms of AUROC for ZIP score for leave-triple-out and leave-pair-out five-fold cross validation, respectively. Panels C) and D) show principal component analysis (PCA) of synergistic and antagonistic drug-pairs for different thresholds (t) for SK-MEL-28 cell line based on their triple representations (panel C) and their pair representations (panel D) learned by MARSY.

295 **Performance of MARSY in prediction of drug synergy scores in a leave-pair-out data split**

296 Next, we sought to evaluate the performance of MARSY, when folds in the five-fold CV are

297 determined only based on drug-pair identities (i.e., a drug-pair in the test set is never observed

298 in the training set). Similar to the leave-triple-out framework, MARSY outperformed all other

299 models (Table 2), reaching a Pearson correlation coefficient value of PCC = 0.875 for prediction

300 of ZIP score and PCC = 0.841 for prediction of S_{mean}. Similar to the leave-triple-out, MatchMaker,

301 TreeCombo and DeepSynergy were the best performing models after MARSY. Figure 3B and

302 Table S1 show the AUROC of different models for different thresholds, further demonstrating

303 the superior performance of MARSY for the majority of the thresholds.

304 **Table2:** The performance of MARSY and baseline methods using 5-fold leave-pair-out
305 evaluation. The folds and input data are the same across different models for a fair comparison.
306 Best performance values are in bold-face and underlined. The mean and standard deviations
307 are calculated across the folds. Models are sorted based on their ZIP PCC values.
308

Model	ZIP			S_{mean}		
	SCC	**PCC**	**RMSE**	**SCC**	**PCC**	**RMSE**
MARSY	**0.749** (±0.011)	**0.875** (±0.005)	**5.62** (±0.15)	**0.809** (±0.007)	**0.841** (±0.011)	**9.06** (±0.45)
MatchMaker	0.720 (±0.006)	0.864 (±0.007)	6.23 (±0.12)	0.788 (±0.009)	0.816 (±0.015)	10.34 (±0.46)
TreeCombo (XGBoost)	0.689 (±0.005)	0.856 (±0.006)	6.00 (±0.15)	0.775 (±0.010)	0.815 (±0.011)	9.69 (±0.37)
DeepSynergy	0.676 (±0.006)	0.860 (±0.008)	5.95 (±0.16)	0.762 (±0.004)	0.804 (±0.011)	10.17 (±0.42)
MLP	0.642 (±0.030)	0.822 (±0.023)	6.68 (±0.45)	0.744 (±0.029)	0.752 (±0.091)	11.36 (±0.24)
SVM	0.649 (±0.008)	0.773 (±0.012)	7.79 (±0.14)	0.737 (±0.011)	0.752 (±0.013)	11.15 (±0.42)
Random Forests	0.413 (±0.005)	0.650 (±0.012)	9.02 (±0.17)	0.608 (±0.016)	0.627 (±0.013)	13.14 (±0.33)
LASSO	0.333 (±0.019)	0.430 (±0.007)	10.43 (±0.17)	0.555 (±0.013)	0.519 (±0.012)	14.29 (±0.39)
Elastic Net	0.333 (±0.018)	0.429 (±0.008)	10.44 (±0.18)	0.555 (±0.013)	0.512 (±0.019)	14.29 (±0.40)

Detailed evaluation of MARSY's architecture

One aspect of MARSY's architecture is its multitask predictor. We replaced this predictor with a single-task predictor that only predicts drug synergy scores. This modification resulted in a lower performance based on all three measures and both data split strategies (Supplementary Table S2). For example, MARSY had a 6.12% higher SCC in leave-triple-out and a 5.05% higher SCC in leave-pair-out 5-fold CV for prediction of ZIP score. These results further demonstrate the importance of including a multi-task predictor in the architecture of MARSY. In fact, changing the predictor of DL baseline models also improved their performance (Supplementary Table S2).

Next, we sought to determine the role of input representations and encoders' architecture (Figure 1A) on MARSY's performance. Figure 3C and 3D (visually) show that both triple and pair representations are able to separate the synergistic and antagonistic drug-pairs. To systematically evaluate their role, we implemented eight alternative architectures in which the predictor was identical to MARSY's multitask predictor, but the latent embeddings were learned using different number and types of encoders. Supplementary Figures S1-S6 show the architecture of these models and Table 3 shows their performance. These results show that overall, MARSY's choice of encoders perform better compared to these alternatives. In particular, using both Triple and Pair encoders is better than only using the Triple encoder (Model1 (v1)) or replacing the Triple or Pair encoders with a CCL encoder (Models 2 and 3). Similarly, it performs better compared to using separate encoders for each drug (Models 4-6).

In addition to the Model1 (v1), which uses a triple encoder with similar architecture to that of

MARSY, we implemented two other variations of Model 1 with triple encoders (one with two

hidden layers, but larger width and one with four hidden layers) to bring the number of their

learnable parameters closer to that of MARSY (Table 3, Supplementary Figure S1). Table 3

shows that MARSY outperformed Model1 (v2), Model1 (v3), and Model3, all of which have

similar number of parameters to MARSY. Moreover, MARSY outperformed DeepSynergy and

MatchMaker (Table 1 and 2) that had 95 M and 59 M learnable parameters, respectively. These

results suggest that the performance of MARSY is not simply an artifact of its number of

parameters.

Table 3: The performance of different combination of embeddings using 5-fold leave-pair-out
CV. Folds are the same across different models for a fair comparison. Best performance values
are in bold-face and underlined. The mean and standard deviations are calculated across the
folds. Architecture of the models are provided in Figure 1 and Supplementary Figures S1-S6. In
this table, Num. Enc. shows number of encoders and Num. Param shows number of parameters
of each model. In this table, Model 1 (v1) uses a triple encoder identical to that of MARSY, but
the encoder of Model1 (v2) and Model1 (v3) are modified such that the number of parameters
of the model become close to that of MARSY.

Model	Num. Enc.	Num. Param	Encoder Type	ZIP			S_{mean}		
				SCC	PCC	RMSE	SCC	PCC	RMSE
MARSY	2	61M	Pair, Triple	**0.741** (±0.018)	**0.871** (±0.009)	5.70 (±0.14)	**0.808** (±0.010)	**0.840** (±0.008)	**9.07** (±0.35)
Model1 (v1)	1	36M	Triple	0.679 (±0.024)	0.848 (±0.011)	6.22 (±0.18)	0.762 (±0.007)	0.801 (±0.012)	10.17 (±0.44)
Model1 (v2)	1	62M	Triple	0.669 (±0.012)	0.838 (±0.006)	6.15 (±0.11)	0.768 (±0.006)	0.807 (±0.008)	9.97 (±0.38)
Model1 (v3)	1	57M	Triple	0.706 (±0.012)	0.862 (±0.006)	5.89 (±0.19)	0.790 (±0.005)	0.830 (±0.011)	9.36 (±0.47)
Model2	2	23M	CCL, Pair	0.706 (±0.018)	0.857 (±0.009)	6.52 (±0.13)	0.793 (±0.010)	0.826 (±0.007)	10.85 (±0.34)

Model3	2	62M	CCL, Triple	0.734 (±0.017)	0.867 (±0.012)	5.77 (±0.18)	0.804 (±0.011)	0.837 (±0.007)	9.17 (±0.35)
Model4	3	19M	Drug1, Drug2, CCL	0.714 (±0.019)	0.861 (±0.008)	6.26 (±0.15)	0.793 (±0.009)	0.828 (±0.007)	10.72 (±0.34)
Model5	3	42M	Drug1, Drug2, Triple	0.737 (±0.013)	**0.871** (±0.008)	5.80 (±0.15)	0.798 (±0.008)	0.830 (±0.009)	9.94 (±0.44)
Model6	4	33M	Drug1, Drug2, CCL, Pair	0.736 (±0.016)	0.870 (±0.008)	**5.69** (±0.14)	0.800 (±0.010)	0.833 (±0.005)	9.38 (±0.31)

Effect of hyperparameters and input features on MARSY's performance

As described in Methods, several aspects of MARSY's architecture were design choices selected

a priori without hyperparameter tuning. To assess how these choices influence MARSY's

performance, we conducted a study based on leave-pair-out 5-fold CV in which we ran MARSY

with 576 different combinations of multiple hyperparameters to predict the ZIP score. These

hyperparameters and their options included the learning rate (0.01, 0.001, 0.0001), the

optimizer (Adam, Adamax), the input activation function (Linear, ReLU), the batch size (64,

128), the dropout (with or without) and the width and depth of the encoders and the predictor

(see Supplementary Table S3 in Supplementary File S1 for the specific choices).

Our analysis revealed that a large learning rate (0.01) results in poor performance with Adamax

(Figure 4A) and also results in non-convergence of the Adam optimizer. However, the two

smaller learning rates do not suffer from the same issue. When the learning rate is selected

appropriately (the default 0.001 or 0.0001), the effects of other hyperparameters are relatively

small (Figure 4B and 4C). In particular, other than the learning rate, number of encoder layers

and the choice of optimizer had the largest effect, where 2 encoder hidden layers resulted in

1.4% higher median SCC (0.3% higher median PCC) compared to 3 hidden layers and Adamax

resulted in 1.1% higher median SCC (0.5% higher median PCC) compared to Adam (Figure 4C

and Supplementary Figure S7). In conclusion, learning rate seems to have the most effect

(consistent with our experience in other related studies (Hostallero, et al., 2022)), but when

large learning rates are excluded, the results are not too sensitive to the choice of

hyperparameters. However, if computational complexity is not an issue, marginal

improvements can be achieved using hyperparameter tuning based on an independent

validation set.

Figure 4: The effect of hyperparameters on performance of MARSY for prediction of ZIP score
in leave-pair-out 5-fold CV. In boxplots, red circle represents MARSY, solid horizontal yellow
line shows the median and dashed green line shows the mean. A) Effect of learning rate on the
performance of MARSY with Adamax optimizer. B) The histogram of performance metrics
based on different hyperparameter options, excluding a learning rate of 0.01. C) The boxplots
show the distribution of SCC for different hyperparameter options. Runs with a learning rate of
0.01 are excluded due to the large number of non-converging runs.

MARSY uses a concatenation of LINCS drug signatures corresponding to MCF7 and PC3 cell

lines. Since requiring that two LINCS drug signatures be available for each drug may be a limiting

factor in applicability of MARSY, we asked whether a comparable performance can be achieved

when only one of these signatures are used. Table 4 shows the performance of MARSY using 5-

fold leave-pair-out cross-validation with these different options of drug signatures.

Table 4: The performance of MARSY using different LINCS signatures using 5-fold leave-pair-
out evaluation. The folds are the same across different models for a fair comparison and are
the same as the results reported in Table 2. Best performance values are in bold-face and
underlined. The mean and standard deviations are calculated across the folds.
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Model	ZIP			S_{mean}		
	SCC	PCC	RMSE	SCC	PCC	RMSE
MARSY (MCF7+PC3)	**0.749** (±0.011)	**0.875** (±0.005)	**5.62** (±0.15)	**0.809** (±0.007)	**0.841** (±0.011)	**9.06** (±0.45)
MARSY (MCF7)	0.742 (±0.012)	0.869 (±0.003)	5.75 (±0.14)	0.808 (±0.007)	0.840 (±0.011)	9.11 (±0.41)
MARSY (PC3)	0.742 (±0.012)	0.872 (±0.004)	5.68 (±0.16)	0.805 (±0.008)	0.836 (±0.013)	9.25 (±0.48)

These results show a comparable performance between using a single LINCS signature and

combining the two in MARSY. For example, the SCC for MARSY with MCF7 is only 0.1% lower

than the SCC for MARSY with both PC3 and MCF7 signatures in predicting S_{mean}. Comparing

these results with Table 2 also shows that MARSY with any of these signatures above

outperforms all baseline models.

We next asked how the performance of MARSY changes if alternative drug signatures (e.g.,

based on their chemical structure) is used instead of LINCS signatures. We obtained the

chemical representations of drugs from the DrugBank database (Wishart, et al., 2018) and used

the RDKit python library (Landrum, 2006) to extract two types of chemical feature

representations: "Morgan fingerprints" and "molecular descriptors". To make the evaluation

consistent, we only conserved samples from DrugComb for which we could obtain both

chemical feature representations and LINCS drug signatures, along with the gene expression of

the CCLs, resulting in 73,768 samples. Table 5 shows the performance of MARSY with different

drug features using this dataset. Considering all three metrics on the two evaluation setups,

LINCS signature performed better compared to Morgan fingerprint and molecular descriptor.

We also concatenated different features to provide a combination of them as input to the

model. Combination of Morgan fingerprints and molecular descriptors performed better than

each of them individually in leave-triple-out, but its performance was inferior to Morgan

fingerprints in leave-pair-out. Additionally, combining all three types of representations

performed slightly better than LINCS signature alone (and the other representation choices),

however one shortcoming of this combination is that it requires availability of multiple type of

representations for each drug, which sometimes limits the number of datapoints for analysis.

Table 5: The performance of MARSY using distinct types of drug features. Evaluation is
performed using 5-fold leave-triple-out and 5-fold leave-pair-out on the prediction of the ZIP
synergy score. Best performance values are in bold-face and underlined. The mean and
standard deviations are calculated across the folds.
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Drug Features	Leave-Triple-Out			Leave-Pair-Out		
	SCC	PCC	RMSE	SCC	PCC	RMSE
Molecular descriptors	0.702 (±0.014)	0.849 (±0.005)	5.57 (±0.12)	0.676 (±0.016)	0.841 (±0.009)	5.67 (±0.35)

Morgan fingerprints	0.739 (±0.001)	0.858 (±0.007)	5.24 (±0.13)	**0.729** (±0.011)	0.854 (±0.009)	5.36 (±0.21)
Molecular descriptors & Morgan fingerprints	0.746 (±0.003)	0.861 (±0.007)	5.16 (±0.15)	0.714 (±0.016)	0.846 (±0.012)	5.42 (±0.35)
LINCS signature	0.756 (±0.007)	0.869 (±0.005)	5.02 (±0.11)	0.725 (±0.012)	0.857 (±0.009)	**5.22** (±0.29)
All features combined	**0.757** (±0.005)	**0.870** (±0.005)	**5.01** (±0.13)	0.727 (±0.010)	**0.858** (±0.008)	**5.22** (±0.28)

The LINCS signatures used by MARSY were selected to maximize the number of training

examples, which is crucial for training any DL model. However, chemical structure data (e.g.,

Morgan fingerprints) is readily available for a larger number of drugs, which may allow to

further increase the size of the training set. On the other hand, LINCS drug signatures

corresponding to other CCLs are also available, which can be used as alternatives to MCF7 and

PC3. We sought to assess the trade-off between the choice of drug representations and the

availability of data to form larger training sets. For this purpose and using the same data

cleaning and pre-processing procedure used for forming the main dataset, we identified 6,762

triples for which Morgan fingerprints as well as LINCS molecular signatures of MCF7 (breast

cancer), PC3 (prostate cancer), A549 (lung cancer), and A375 (skin cancer) were available. We

used data corresponding to these triples to form our validation set (10%) and test set (90%).

Then, we formed separate training sets for each type of drug representation to include all

triples with data on that drug representation. This allows us to form different training set sizes

depending on the availability of each type of drug representation and assess the effect of the

training set size on the performance.

Performance of MARSY with different drug representations and their corresponding training

set sizes are provided in Supplementary Table S4. In this analysis, Morgan fingerprints resulted

in the largest training set (n = 154,718, nearly double the size of the training set of MCF7 that

had the second largest training set), but its performance was not the best in any of the

categories. However, in most categories, it was only less than 2% worse than the best

performing option. A375 signatures resulted in the worst performance, but this was expected

due to its extremely small training set size of only 1,558 samples. Although A549's training set

was ~32% smaller than that of MCF7, it still resulted in acceptable predictions (e.g., S_{mean} PCC

= 0.852). These results suggest that while extremely small training set sizes affect the

performance, all three LINCS signatures that had more than 50,000 training samples resulted

in acceptable performance metrics. Additionally, in applications where LINCS signatures are not

available, Morgan fingerprints can be used as alternatives.

Next, we asked how the performance of MARSY compares against DeepSynergy, MatchMaker,

and TreeCombo, when Morgan fingerprints are used as drug representations. Supplementary

Table S5 shows the performance of these models using the same training, validation, and test

sets described above. These results show that even when Morgan fingerprints are used, MARSY

outperforms these baseline models in most categories.

In a recent study, a high degree of correlation between the synergy of drug pairs and the

correlation of the transcriptomic profiles of the corresponding monotherapies in the same cell

line was observed, which motivated a drug synergy score predictor based on this principle

(Diaz, et al., 2020). We designed a small study to investigate whether we also observe a

correlation between the monotherapy LINCS transcriptomic signatures and their synergism in

the same CCLs. We focused on three cell lines MCF7, PC3, and A549 for which we found a large

number of signatures and we used in our LINCS signature analysis discussed above. For each

(CCL, drug1, drug2) triple in our dataset (where the CCL is one of the three CCLs above), we

calculated the correlation between the LINCS signature of drug1 and drug2 in that CCL. We

then calculated the correlation of these values with the synergy score of those drugs in that

CCL. Based on these analyses, we did not observe a similar pattern to that reported in (Diaz, et

al., 2020) and the highest correlation values (achieved in A549 for S_{mean}), were only equal to

PCC = 0.08 and SCC = 0.104.

Prediction of drug synergy scores for new triples not present in DrugComb

Next, we used our trained model to predict the ZIP synergy scores of 133,722 new (drug-pair,

CCL) triples that were not present in DrugComb. These triples correspond to all possible

combinations of 69 unique drugs that appeared in at least 10% of the drug-pairs in our training

set (Supplementary Table S6). Given these synergy scores, we first asked which drug-pairs show

a synergistic effect on all 75 CCLs. We identified seven drug-pairs that had a minimum ZIP score

larger than 2 across all CCLs. The majority of these corresponded to the combination of

vincristine (a chemotherapy agent) with other drugs. In particular, two of these combinations

corresponded to tyrosine kinase inhibitors (TKI) lapatinib (mean ZIP = 28.6) and imatinib (mean

ZIP = 17.9) combined with vincristine. Several independent studies have shown the synergistic

effect of these drugs. For example, these two TKIs sensitized KBV20C oral cancer cells to

vincristine, and their combination up-regulated apoptosis and reduced cell viability (KIM, et al.,

2019). In addition, lapatinib significantly increased the efficacy of vincristine in epidermoid

carcinoma C-A120 cells that overexpress multidrug resistance–associated protein 1 (MRP1)

(Ma, et al., 2014). Another noteworthy combination corresponded to docetaxel

(chemotherapy) and veliparib (a PARP inhibitor), (mean ZIP = 16.3). The siRNA knockdown of

PARP1 in PC3 cell lines has been shown to enhance docetaxel activity (Wu, et al., 2013), and

MARSY predicted the ZIP score of docetaxel and PARP-inhibitor veliparib in PC3 to be 9.8

(reflecting synergism).

Next, we sought to identify drug combinations that show synergistic effect in a tissue-specific

manner. For this purpose, we focused on breast tissue, since it had the highest number of CCLs

in our cohort (n = 26). To identify breast cancer-specific synergistic combinations, we required

a drug-pair to not be antagonistic in any of the CCLs of breast cancer (minimum ZIP in the tissue

> 0) and then ranked the remaining drug-pairs based on the difference between their mean ZIP

score in CCLs of breast cancer and the mean ZIP score of CCLs of other tissues (Supplementary

Table S7). The top-ranked drug-pair corresponded to combination of paclitaxel (a

chemotherapy widely used in treating breast cancer) and ruxolitinib (a selective JAK1/2 kinase

inhibitor). A one-sided Mann Whitney U test also showed this difference to be statistically

significant (Benjamini-Hochberg false discovery rate = 7.76E-3). Ruxolitinib has been shown to

enhance the efficacy of paclitaxel in a synergistic manner in ovarian cancer cells (Han, et al.,

2018). Recent studies of triple negative breast cancer (TNBC) samples has shown that inhibition

of JAK1/2 by ruxolitinib sensitizes cancer cells to paclitaxel, both *in-vitro* and *in-vivo* (Han, et

al., 2021; Lian, et al., 2020). A phase I clinical trial of the combination of these two drugs in

HER2-negative metastatic breast cancer patients was recently completed and showed these

two drugs to be well tolerated by the participants (Lynce, et al., 2021). Following these results,

a phase II randomized clinical trial is currently undergoing for the combination of these two

drugs in TNBC patients (Lynce, et al., 2021). Our results also showed that TNBC CCLs in our

cohort have a higher mean ZIP score for this drug combination compared to other subtypes of

breast cancer (difference mean ZIP = 1.4).

These examples illustrate the utility of MARSY to suggest synergistic drug combination

candidates for follow-up drug screening experiments.

Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, we proposed MARSY, a novel deep multi-task learning method for prediction of

synergy scores of drug-pairs in difference cancer cell lines. Extensive evaluations using four

different metrics and two methods of data splitting for cross-validation revealed the better

performance of MARSY compared to various computational models designed for this task.

MARSY's architecture was designed to learn distinct embeddings that capture different and

complimentary views of the input features and are informative not just for drug synergy score

prediction, but also enable single drug response prediction. Given the gene expression profile

of CCLs as well as the LINCS signatures of each drug, the two encoders of MARSY learn different

views of the input features, capturing the interplay of the drugs, as well as the drugs and the

CCL. Our ablation study confirmed that incorporating both of these encoders is beneficial to

the performance of the model. Moreover, the predictor of MARSY utilizes auxiliary tasks of

single drug prediction to enhance the synergy score prediction performance, by enhancing the

embeddings learned during the end-to-end training of the model. We also observed that these

auxiliary tasks can be helpful to other DL-based baseline models.

Unlike many previous models that utilize drug molecular profiles, we used the signatures of

each drug representing the changes in the expression profiles of two cancer cell lines after

administration of the drug. We observed that using only one of these signatures results in

comparable performance to that of using both signatures simultaneously (e.g., only a 0.1%

difference in Spearman's correlation in predicting S_{mean} when using only MCF7 signature, Table

4). This suggests that MARSY can also be used with only one drug signature, as long as there

are a large number of samples available for training. In fact, we observed that LINCS drug

signatures corresponding to different cancer types (MCF7, PC3, A549) result in comparable

performance (Table S4), even though the number of training examples when using A549 drug

signatures was 32% smaller than MCF7. However, when the number of training examples was

very small in the case of A375, a significant deterioration of performance was observed. Our

analyses using a fixed test set, but different training sets that included all samples with available

drug features of each type, showed that although Morgan fingerprints were not the best

performing option for MARSY (in spite of having a training set with almost double the size of

largest LINCS signature), they resulted in prediction performances that were only less than 2%

lower than the best performing option in most cases. Since Morgan fingerprints are available

for a larger number of drugs and the use of them with MARSY results in only a small

performance deterioration (Table 5 and S5), they are viable alternatives to LINCS signatures

when such signatures are unavailable.

In this study, our focus was on developing a transductive model to impute the missing values

in our dataset. As such, we used MARSY to predict the synergy scores of 133,722 new (drug-

pair, CCL) triples that were not present in DrugComb and validated some of these predictions

and insights obtained from them using independent datasets. However, one of the remaining

challenges in this domain is developing models that can predict the synergy scores for unseen

CCLs. Currently, the main challenge in achieving this goal is data availability. For example, after

data cleaning, pre-processing and quality control, we ended up with only 75 CCLs that were

usable for method development in this study. Such small numbers do not allow deep learning

model development that generalizes well to unseen CCLs. However, as new data becomes

available, we expect that this shortcoming of current datasets will be resolved and accurate

models that can generalize to unseen CCLs can be developed.

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Data and Code Availability

All data generated as part of this study are provided as supplementary files. An implementation

of the algorithms in Python and cleaned input datasets are freely available at:

https://github.com/Emad-COMBINE-lab/MARSY.

Supplementary Files

Supplementary File S1: This file contains Supplementary Methods, Supplementary Figures S1-

S7, Supplementary Tables S3-S5, and the caption of Supplementary Tables S1, S2, S6, and S7,

which are provided as separate xlsx files.

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