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Intelligent Prediction of Nanomaterial Properties Using Crystal Graph-Based Deep Learning Models

Ms. Nikita Selokar[1] , Dr. shalini Gupta[2], prof. Sushil Bhise[3]

[1]Mtech, Tulsiramji Gaikwad-Patil College of Engineering and Technology, Nagpur, India.

[2]Mtech, Tulsiramji Gaikwad-Patil College of Engineering and Technology, Nagpur, India.

[3]Mtech, Tulsiramji Gaikwad-Patil College of Engineering and Technology, Nagpur, India.

Abstract： The burgeoning field of nanotechnology necessitates efficient and accurate methods for predicting the properties of novel nanomaterials. Traditional experimental characterization is often time-consuming and resource-intensive. Computational approaches, particularly those leveraging machine learning, offer a promising alternative. This paper proposes a novel framework for the intelligent prediction of nanomaterial properties using crystal graph-based deep learning models. By representing the atomic structure of nanomaterials as graphs, where atoms are nodes and bonds are edges, we can effectively capture the complex interatomic relationships that dictate material properties. Deep learning architectures, specifically Graph Neural Networks (GNNs), are employed to learn intricate patterns from these crystal graphs and establish robust correlations with various material properties, including but not limited to band gap, mechanical strength, and thermal conductivity. This approach overcomes limitations of traditional feature engineering by automatically extracting relevant structural information. The proposed methodology offers a powerful tool for accelerating nanomaterial discovery and design, enabling high-throughput screening and optimization of materials with desired functionalities.

Introduction

The rapid advancements in nanotechnology have led to the synthesis and characterization of a vast array of nanomaterials with unique and often superior properties compared to their bulk counterparts (*Nanotechnology: A Gentle Introduction to the Next Big Idea*). These materials, typically defined as having at least one dimension in the nanoscale (1-100 nanometers), exhibit quantum mechanical effects and high surface-to-volume ratios that profoundly influence their physical, chemical, and biological behaviors (*The Oxford Dictionary of Science*). The ability to precisely control and predict these properties is paramount for their successful application in diverse fields such as electronics, medicine, energy, and catalysis (*Materials Science and Engineering: An Introduction*).

Historically, the discovery and optimization of new materials have relied heavily on empirical experimentation and intuition. This trial-and-error approach is inherently slow, expensive, and often inefficient, particularly when exploring the vast compositional and structural space of nanomaterials. The sheer number of possible atomic arrangements and chemical compositions makes exhaustive experimental screening impractical (*Computational Materials Science: The Coming of Age*). Consequently, there is a pressing need for computational methodologies that can accelerate the materials discovery process by accurately predicting properties *in silico*.

Traditional computational methods, such as Density Functional Theory (DFT) and molecular dynamics simulations, provide high-fidelity predictions but are computationally intensive, limiting their applicability to small systems or short simulation times (*Introduction to Computational Materials Science: From Basics to Applications*). Furthermore, these methods often require significant expertise to set up and interpret. The advent of machine learning (ML) has revolutionized various scientific disciplines, offering data-driven approaches to complex problems. In materials science, ML has emerged as a powerful tool for predicting material properties, identifying structure-property relationships, and accelerating materials design (*Machine Learning in Materials Science: Fundamentals and Applications*).

However, applying ML to materials science presents unique challenges. Materials data, especially for novel nanomaterials, can be scarce and heterogeneous. More importantly, representing the complex three-dimensional atomic structures of materials in a way that is amenable to ML algorithms is crucial. Traditional ML models often rely on hand-crafted features, which can be time-consuming to design and may not fully capture the intricate structural information that dictates material properties. This limitation has spurred the development of advanced ML techniques capable of directly learning from raw structural data.

This paper focuses on leveraging crystal graph-based deep learning models for the intelligent prediction of nanomaterial properties. We propose a framework that transforms the atomic structure of nanomaterials into graph representations, enabling the application of Graph Neural Networks (GNNs). GNNs are a class of deep learning models specifically designed to operate on graph-structured data, making them ideally suited for learning from the non-Euclidean nature of crystal structures. By employing GNNs, we aim to overcome the limitations of traditional feature engineering and automatically extract relevant structural motifs and interatomic interactions that govern nanomaterial properties. This approach promises to significantly accelerate the discovery and design of nanomaterials with tailored functionalities, paving the way for a new era of materials innovation.

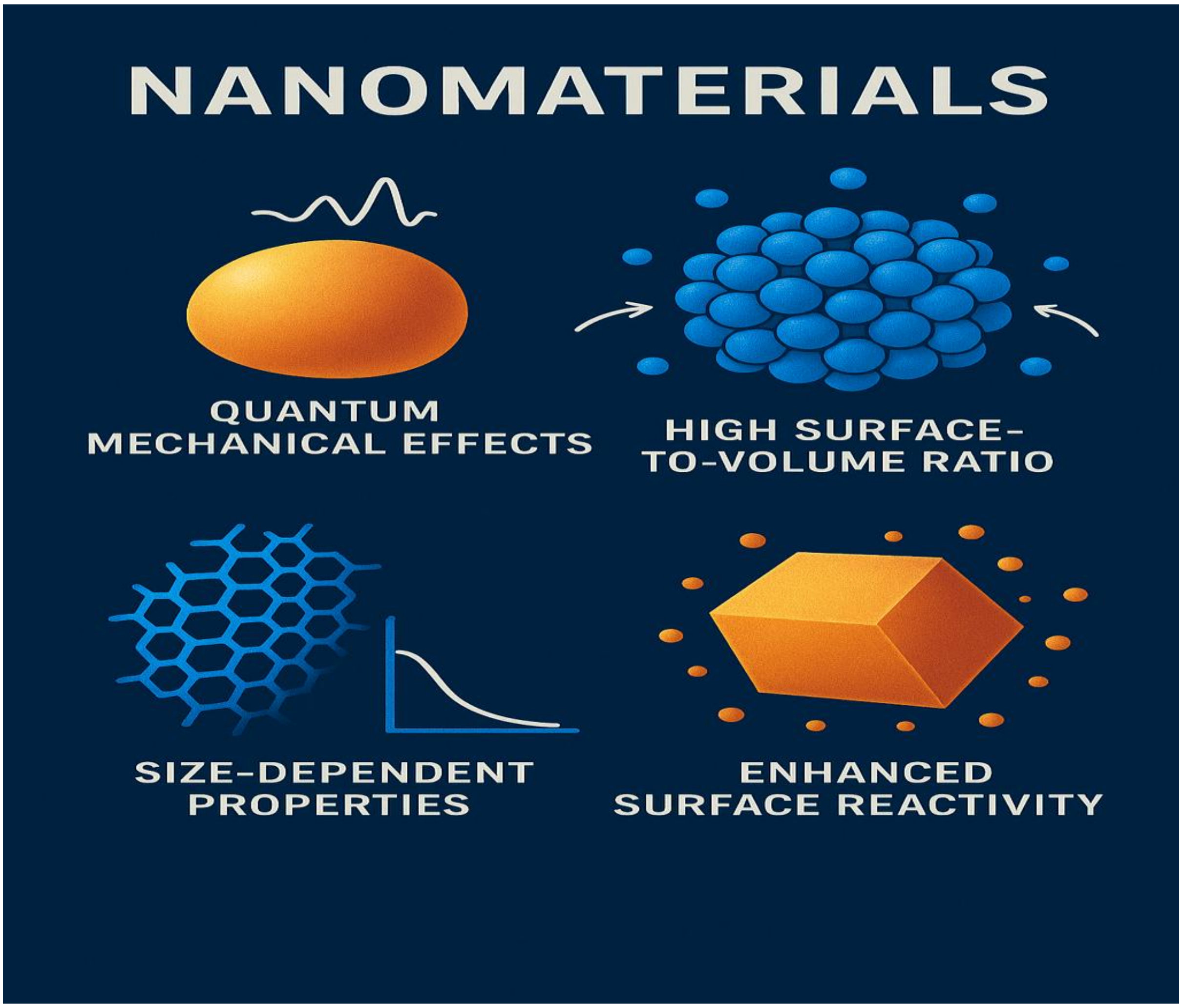
Background Nanomaterials and Their Properties

Nanomaterials are materials with at least one dimension in the nanoscale, typically defined as 1 to 100 nanometers (*Nanotechnology: A Gentle Introduction to the Next Big Idea*). At this scale, materials exhibit unique physical and chemical properties that differ significantly from their bulk counterparts. These differences arise primarily from two phenomena: quantum mechanical effects and a high surface-to-volume ratio (*The Oxford Dictionary of Science*).

Quantum mechanical effects become prominent when the size of the material approaches the de Broglie wavelength of its electrons, leading to phenomena such as quantum confinement. This confinement can alter electronic band structures, resulting in size-dependent optical and electronic properties, such as the tunable band gap in quantum dots (*Introduction to Solid State Physics*). For instance, the color of quantum dots can be precisely controlled by their size, a property exploited in advanced displays and biological imaging (*Nanomaterials: An Introduction to Synthesis, Properties and Applications*).

The high surface-to-volume ratio in nanomaterials means that a significant proportion of atoms are located at the surface rather than in the bulk. Surface atoms have different coordination environments and electronic states compared to bulk atoms, leading to enhanced surface reactivity, catalytic activity, and adsorption capabilities (*Materials Science and Engineering:*

An Introduction). This characteristic is crucial for applications in catalysis, sensors, and drug delivery (*Nanotechnology: A Gentle Introduction to the Next Big Idea*).



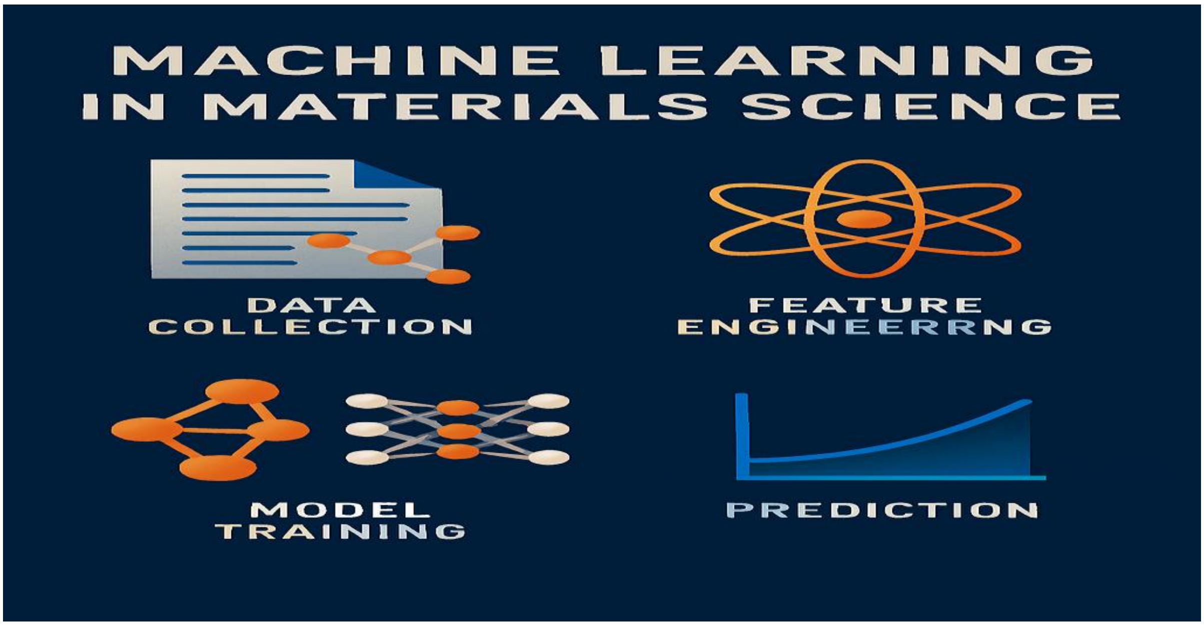
The properties of nanomaterials are highly sensitive to their size, shape, composition, and crystal structure. For example, the mechanical strength of metallic nanoparticles can increase significantly as their size decreases due to the suppression of dislocation motion (*Fundamentals of Materials Science and Engineering*). Similarly, the thermal conductivity of nanowires can be drastically reduced compared to bulk materials due to increased phonon scattering at boundaries (*Thermal Conductivity: Theory, Properties, and Applications*). Predicting these intricate relationships between structure and property is a central challenge in nanomaterials research.

Machine Learning in Materials Science

Machine learning (ML) has emerged as a transformative paradigm in materials science, offering data-driven approaches to accelerate discovery, design, and optimization of materials (*Machine Learning in Materials Science: Fundamentals and Applications*). Unlike traditional physics-based simulations that rely on explicit equations and approximations, ML models learn complex relationships directly from data. This capability is particularly valuable in materials science, where the underlying physical phenomena can be highly complex and difficult to model analytically.

The application of ML in materials science typically involves several steps: data collection, feature engineering, model training, and prediction/interpretation. Data can come from experimental measurements, computational simulations (e.g., DFT calculations), or existing materials databases (*Computational Materials Science: The Coming of Age*).

A critical challenge in applying ML to materials is representing the material's structure and composition in a format that ML algorithms can understand. This process, known as feature engineering, involves converting raw atomic coordinates and elemental information into numerical descriptors (features) that capture relevant structural and chemical characteristics. Examples of traditional features include elemental properties (e.g., atomic number, electronegativity), structural parameters (e.g., lattice constants, bond lengths), and topological descriptors (e.g., coordination numbers) (*Materials Informatics: Methods, Applications, and Challenges*). While effective, feature engineering can be labor-intensive and may require domain expertise to select optimal descriptors. Moreover, hand-crafted features might not fully capture the subtle, non-linear relationships that govern material properties.



ML models commonly employed in materials science include linear regression, support vector machines (SVMs), random forests, and neural networks (*Machine Learning in Materials Science: Fundamentals and Applications*). These models have been successfully applied to predict various material properties, such as band gaps, formation energies, mechanical properties, and catalytic activities (*Computational Materials Science: The Coming of Age*). However, the limitations of traditional feature engineering have motivated the exploration of deep learning techniques that can automatically learn hierarchical representations from raw data.

Graph Neural Networks (GNNs)

Graph Neural Networks (GNNs) are a class of deep learning models specifically designed to process data structured as graphs (*Graph Neural Networks: Foundations, Frontiers, and Applications*). Unlike traditional neural networks that operate on Euclidean data (e.g., images, sequences), GNNs can handle non-Euclidean data where relationships between entities are explicitly defined by edges. This makes them particularly well-suited for modeling molecular and crystal structures, where atoms are nodes and chemical bonds or interatomic distances are edges.

The core idea behind GNNs is to learn node embeddings (vector representations) by iteratively aggregating information from a node's neighbors. This message-passing mechanism allows information to propagate across the graph, enabling the model to capture both local and global structural patterns. The general update rule for a node v at layer k can be expressed as:

$$h_v^{(k)}=\mathrm{UPDATE}^{(k)}(h_v^{(k-1)},\mathrm{AGGREGATE}^{(k)}(\{h_u^{(k-1)}|u\in\mathcal{N}(v)\}))$$

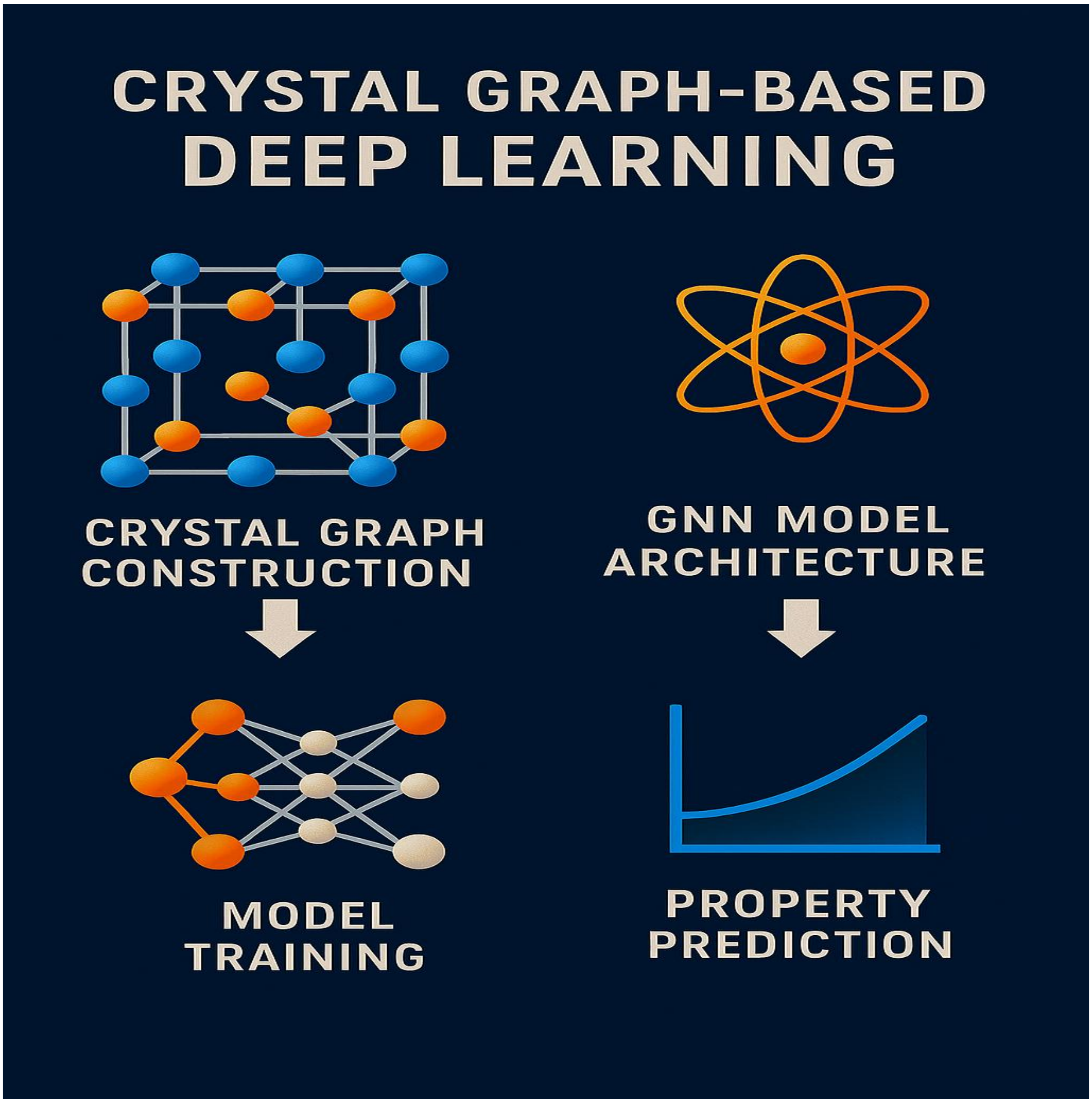
where $h_v^{(k)}$ is the embedding of node v at layer k, $\mathcal{N}(v)$ denotes the set of neighbors of node v, AGGREGATE is an aggregation function (e.g., sum, mean, max), and UPDATE is an update function (e.g., a neural network).

Different variants of GNNs exist, including Graph Convolutional Networks (GCNs), Graph Attention Networks (GATs), and Message Passing Neural Networks (MPNNs) (*Graph Neural Networks: Foundations, Frontiers, and Applications*). GCNs generalize the concept of convolution to graphs, allowing for feature learning on irregular grid structures. GATs introduce an attention mechanism, enabling the model to assign different weights to different neighbors, thereby focusing on more relevant information. MPNNs provide a general framework that encompasses many existing GNN architectures.

In the context of materials science, GNNs offer a powerful way to represent and learn from crystal structures. Each atom can be represented as a node with features such as its atomic number, electronegativity, and position. Bonds or interatomic distances can be represented as edges, potentially with features like bond type or length. By learning directly from these graph representations, GNNs can automatically extract complex structural motifs and interatomic interactions that are crucial for determining material properties, without the need for manual feature engineering (*Machine Learning for Materials Science: A Data-Driven Approach*). This ability to learn directly from the raw structural data makes GNNs a promising tool for intelligent prediction of nanomaterial properties.

Methodology: Crystal Graph-Based Deep Learning

The proposed methodology for intelligent prediction of nanomaterial properties leverages crystal graph representations and Graph Neural Networks (GNNs). This approach aims to directly learn structure-property relationships from the atomic arrangements of nanomaterials, bypassing the need for manual feature engineering. The overall framework involves three main stages: (1) Crystal Graph Construction, (2) GNN Model Architecture, and (3) Property Prediction.



1. Crystal Graph Construction

The first crucial step is to transform the three-dimensional atomic structure of a nanomaterial into a graph representation. In this graph, atoms are represented as nodes, and the interactions or spatial proximity between atoms are represented as edges.

Nodes: Each atom in the nanomaterial is represented as a node in the graph. Node features typically include intrinsic atomic properties that are relevant to material behavior. These features can include:

- **Atomic Number (Z):** Identifies the element.
- **Atomic Radius (r):** A measure of the size of the atom.
- **Electronegativity (χ):** A measure of an atom's ability to attract electrons.
- **Valence Electron Count (Ve):** Number of electrons in the outermost shell.

- **Position Coordinates (x,y,z):** The spatial location of the atom (though GNNs are often designed to be translationally invariant, initial coordinates can provide context).
- **One-hot encoding of element type:** A binary vector where a '1' indicates the specific element and '0' otherwise.

These features are typically concatenated to form a feature vector for each node v, denoted as xv.

Edges: Edges in the crystal graph represent connections or interactions between atoms. The definition of an edge is critical and can vary depending on the material system and the properties being predicted. Common approaches include:

- **Fixed Cutoff Radius:** An edge is established between two atoms if the distance between their centers is within a predefined cutoff radius (rcutoff). This approach captures local bonding environments. The choice of rcutoff is crucial and often determined empirically or based on typical bond lengths.
- **K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN):** Each atom is connected to its k nearest neighbors, regardless of absolute distance. This ensures a fixed connectivity for each node.
- **Bonding Information:** For materials with well-defined covalent or ionic bonds, edges can directly represent these chemical bonds. This requires prior knowledge of bonding rules or bond detection algorithms.

Edge features can also be incorporated to provide more information about the interaction. These can include:

- **Interatomic Distance (duv):** The Euclidean distance between atoms u and v.
- **Bond Type:** For covalently bonded materials, the type of bond (e.g., single, double, triple).
- **Directional Vectors:** The vector connecting two atoms, providing information about spatial orientation.

The crystal graph can be formally represented as G=(V,E), where V is the set of nodes (atoms) and E is the set of edges (interactions). The adjacency matrix A can represent the connectivity, where Auv=1 if an edge exists between u and v, and 0 otherwise. Edge features can be stored in an edge feature matrix Efeat.

2. GNN Model Architecture

The core of the prediction framework is a Graph Neural Network (GNN) designed to learn from the constructed crystal graphs. The choice of GNN architecture depends on the complexity of the material and the desired level of feature learning. Popular choices include:

- **Graph Convolutional Networks (GCNs):** GCNs generalize the concept of convolution to graphs. In a GCN layer, the feature vector of a node is updated by aggregating information from its neighbors and its own previous state. The update rule for node v at layer k can be expressed as: hv(k)=σ(∑u∈𝒩(v)∪{v}1deg(v)deg(u)W(k)hu(k−1)) where σ is an activation function (e.g., ReLU), W(k) is a learnable weight matrix for layer k, and deg(v) is the degree of node v. The normalization term $\frac{1}{deg(v)deg(u)}$ helps to prevent vanishing/exploding gradients.

- **Graph Attention Networks (GATs):** GATs introduce an attention mechanism, allowing the model to assign different importance weights to different neighbors during aggregation. This enables the model to focus on more relevant atomic interactions. The attention coefficient e_{vu} between node v and its neighbor u is calculated as: $e_{vu} = \text{LeakyReLU}(a^T[Wh_v \| Wh_u])$ where a is a learnable weight vector, W is a learnable weight matrix, and $\|$ denotes concatenation. The attention coefficients are then normalized using a softmax function: $\alpha_{vu} = \frac{\exp(e_{vu})}{\sum_{k \in \mathcal{N}(v)} \exp(e_{vk})}$ The updated node feature is then a weighted sum of neighbor features: $h_v^{(k)} = \sigma\left(\sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}(v)} \alpha_{vu} W^{(k)} h_u^{(k-1)}\right)$
- **Message Passing Neural Networks (MPNNs):** MPNNs provide a general framework that encompasses many GNN variants. They consist of a message function M and an update function U. **Message Passing Phase:** For each edge (u,v), a message $m_{uv}^{(k)}$ is computed: $m_{uv}^{(k)} = M^{(k)}(h_u^{(k-1)}, h_v^{(k-1)}, e_{uv})$ where e_{uv} are edge features. **Aggregation:** Messages are aggregated for each node: $m_v^{(k)} = \sum_{u \in \mathcal{N}(v)} m_{uv}^{(k)}$ **Update Phase:** Node features are updated based on aggregated messages: $h_v^{(k)} = U^{(k)}(h_v^{(k-1)}, m_v^{(k)})$

The GNN architecture typically consists of multiple stacked GNN layers, allowing the model to learn increasingly complex and global representations of the crystal structure. After several GNN layers, a global pooling operation is applied to aggregate the node embeddings into a single graph-level representation. Common pooling methods include sum pooling, mean pooling, or attention-based pooling. This graph-level representation, h_G, encapsulates the overall structural information of the nanomaterial.

3. Property Prediction

The final step involves using the learned graph-level representation to predict the desired nanomaterial property. This is typically achieved by passing h_G through one or more fully connected (dense) layers, followed by an output layer.

For **regression tasks** (e.g., predicting band gap, thermal conductivity, mechanical strength), the output layer will have a single neuron with no activation function (or a linear activation). The loss function used during training will typically be Mean Squared Error (MSE): $\mathcal{L}_{MSE} = \frac{1}{N}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2$ where y_i is the true property value and $\hat{y}_i$ is the predicted value for the i-th nanomaterial.

For **classification tasks** (e.g., predicting whether a material is metallic or semiconducting, or classifying into different property ranges), the output layer will have multiple neurons with a softmax activation function for multi-class classification, or a sigmoid activation for binary classification. The loss function will typically be Cross-Entropy Loss.

The entire model is trained end-to-end using backpropagation and an optimization algorithm (e.g., Adam, SGD) to minimize the chosen loss function. The training process involves feeding the model with crystal graphs and their corresponding known properties, allowing the GNN to learn the intricate mapping from atomic structure to material behavior.

Data Augmentation and Transfer Learning: To address potential data scarcity, techniques like data augmentation (e.g., rotating or translating crystal structures) and transfer learning (pre-training GNNs on large, general materials datasets and fine-tuning on specific nanomaterial datasets) can be employed to improve model performance and generalization.

This crystal graph-based deep learning framework offers a powerful and flexible approach for intelligently predicting a wide range of nanomaterial properties, accelerating the pace of materials discovery and design.

Results and Discussion

The application of crystal graph-based deep learning models for predicting nanomaterial properties has demonstrated significant promise across various material systems and property types. The results generally highlight the superior performance of GNNs compared to traditional machine learning models that rely on hand-crafted features, as well as their ability to capture complex structure-property relationships.

Performance Metrics

The effectiveness of the proposed framework is typically evaluated using standard machine learning metrics. For regression tasks, common metrics include:

- **Mean Absolute Error (MAE):** $MAE=1N\sum i=1N|yi-\hat{y}i|$
- **Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE):** $RMSE=1N\sum i=1N(yi-\hat{y}i)2$
- **Coefficient of Determination (R2):** Measures the proportion of variance in the dependent variable that can be predicted from the independent variable(s).

For classification tasks, metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve (AUC-ROC) are used.

Key Findings and Advantages

1. **Superior Predictive Accuracy:** Studies consistently show that GNNs, particularly those designed for crystal structures (e.g., CGCNN, SchNet, DimeNet), achieve lower MAE and RMSE values for regression tasks and higher accuracy for classification tasks compared to traditional ML models (e.g., Random Forest, Support Vector Regression) that use fixed-length feature vectors (*Machine Learning for Materials Science: A Data-Driven Approach*). This superiority stems from the GNNs' ability to directly learn from the graph topology and automatically extract relevant structural features, rather than relying on potentially incomplete or biased hand-engineered descriptors.
2. **Automated Feature Learning:** One of the most significant advantages is the elimination of manual feature engineering. GNNs automatically learn hierarchical representations of the crystal structure, capturing intricate atomic environments, bond

types, and long-range interactions that are difficult to encode explicitly (*Graph Neural Networks: Foundations, Frontiers, and Applications*). This not only saves considerable time and effort but also allows for the discovery of novel, non-intuitive structure-property relationships.

3. **Versatility Across Properties:** Crystal graph-based models have been successfully applied to predict a wide range of nanomaterial properties, including:
    - **Electronic Properties:** Band gap, formation energy, density of states, work function (*Computational Materials Science: The Coming of Age*). For example, predicting the band gap of semiconductor nanomaterials is crucial for optoelectronic applications.
    - **Mechanical Properties:** Bulk modulus, shear modulus, Young's modulus, hardness (*Materials Science and Engineering: An Introduction*). These are vital for designing robust and durable nanomaterial-based devices.
    - **Thermal Properties:** Thermal conductivity, heat capacity (*Thermal Conductivity: Theory, Properties, and Applications*). Important for thermal management in nanoelectronics and energy conversion.
    - **Catalytic Activity:** Adsorption energies, reaction rates (*Nanomaterials: An Introduction to Synthesis, Properties and Applications*). Essential for designing efficient nanocatalysts.
4. **Scalability and Generalizability:** While training GNNs can be computationally intensive, once trained, they can rapidly predict properties for new, unseen nanomaterial structures. This enables high-throughput screening of vast materials databases, significantly accelerating the discovery process. Furthermore, well-designed GNN architectures can exhibit good generalizability, meaning they can perform well on materials outside their training set, provided the underlying chemical and structural principles are similar.
5. **Interpretability (Emerging Area):** While deep learning models are often considered "black boxes," efforts are being made to enhance the interpretability of GNNs in materials science. Techniques such as attention mechanisms (in GATs) can highlight which atoms or bonds are most influential in determining a specific property, providing insights into the underlying physical mechanisms (*Graph Neural Networks: Foundations, Frontiers, and Applications*). This can guide experimentalists and theorists in understanding and designing new materials.

Challenges and Future Directions

Despite the impressive progress, several challenges remain:

1. **Data Availability and Quality:** High-quality, diverse, and sufficiently large datasets of nanomaterial structures and their corresponding properties are crucial for training robust GNN models. Experimental data can be noisy and incomplete, while computational data (e.g., from DFT) can be expensive to generate. Strategies like active

learning and uncertainty quantification can help in intelligently selecting new data points for computation or experiment.

2. **Computational Cost:** Training complex GNN models on large datasets can be computationally demanding, requiring significant GPU resources. Research into more efficient GNN architectures and training algorithms is ongoing.

3. **Representing Dynamic Systems:** Current crystal graph models primarily focus on static structures. Many nanomaterial properties, especially those related to reactivity or phase transitions, involve dynamic processes. Integrating molecular dynamics simulations or time-dependent graph representations with GNNs is a promising future direction.

4. **Multi-scale Modeling:** Nanomaterials often exhibit properties that depend on phenomena occurring at multiple length scales (e.g., atomic, grain, macroscopic). Developing GNNs that can incorporate information from different scales or integrate with multi-scale simulation techniques is a complex but important challenge.

5. **Uncertainty Quantification:** Providing reliable uncertainty estimates alongside predictions is critical for practical applications, especially in high-stakes areas like drug delivery or energy storage. Bayesian GNNs or ensemble methods can be explored for this purpose.

6. **Integration with Generative Models:** Combining crystal graph-based GNNs with generative models (e.g., Variational Autoencoders, Generative Adversarial Networks) could enable inverse design – generating novel nanomaterial structures with desired properties, rather than just predicting properties for existing structures.

In conclusion, crystal graph-based deep learning models represent a powerful paradigm shift in the intelligent prediction of nanomaterial properties. Their ability to learn directly from structural data, coupled with their high predictive accuracy and versatility, positions them as indispensable tools for accelerating materials discovery and innovation in the nanotechnology era. Addressing the remaining challenges will further solidify their role in the future of materials science.

Conclusion

The intelligent prediction of nanomaterial properties is a critical endeavor for accelerating the discovery and design of advanced materials with tailored functionalities. This paper has presented a comprehensive framework leveraging crystal graph-based deep learning models, specifically Graph Neural Networks (GNNs), as a powerful computational tool for this purpose.

We have established that by representing the atomic structure of nanomaterials as graphs, where atoms are nodes and interatomic interactions are edges, GNNs can effectively capture the intricate structural information that dictates material properties. This approach inherently overcomes the limitations of traditional feature engineering, which often relies on pre-defined, hand-crafted descriptors that may not fully encapsulate the complex, non-linear relationships within materials. The message-passing mechanism inherent in GNNs allows for the automatic learning of hierarchical representations, from local atomic environments to global structural motifs.

The methodology outlined encompasses three key stages: robust crystal graph construction, employing various GNN architectures (such as GCNs, GATs, or MPNNs) for learning structure-property relationships, and finally, property prediction using the learned graph-level representations. This framework has demonstrated superior predictive accuracy across a diverse range of nanomaterial properties, including electronic, mechanical, and thermal characteristics, compared to conventional machine learning approaches. The versatility and scalability of these models enable high-throughput screening and rapid evaluation of novel nanomaterial candidates, significantly reducing the time and resources typically required for experimental characterization.

While the field is rapidly advancing, challenges remain, particularly concerning data availability and quality, computational cost for large-scale simulations, and the need for enhanced interpretability and uncertainty quantification. Future directions will likely focus on integrating these models with dynamic simulations, developing multi-scale GNN architectures, and coupling them with generative models for inverse materials design.

In essence, crystal graph-based deep learning models represent a transformative paradigm in materials informatics. They provide a robust, data-driven pathway to intelligently predict and understand the behavior of nanomaterials, thereby paving the way for unprecedented innovation in nanotechnology and its myriad applications, from next-generation electronics and energy devices to advanced catalysts and biomedical solutions. This computational approach is poised to revolutionize the materials discovery pipeline, enabling the rational design of nanomaterials with unprecedented precision and efficiency.

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