
Sample-efficient Antibody Design through Protein Language Model for Risk-aware Batch Bayesian Optimization

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Abstract

1 Antibody design is a time-consuming and expensive process that often requires
2 extensive experimentation to identify the best candidates. To address this challenge,
3 we propose an efficient and risk-aware antibody design framework that leverages
4 protein language models (PLMs) and batch Bayesian optimization (BO). Our
5 framework utilizes the generative power of protein language models to predict
6 candidate sequences with higher naturalness and a Bayesian optimization algorithm
7 to iteratively explore the sequence space and identify the most promising candidates.
8 To further improve the efficiency of the search process, we introduce a risk-aware
9 approach that balances exploration and exploitation by incorporating uncertainty
10 estimates into the acquisition function of the Bayesian optimization algorithm.
11 We demonstrate the effectiveness of our approach through experiments on several
12 benchmark datasets, showing that our framework outperforms state-of-the-art
13 methods in terms of both efficiency and quality of the designed sequences. Our
14 framework has the potential to accelerate the discovery of new antibodies and
15 reduce the cost and time required for antibody design.

16 1 Introduction

17 Antibodies, also known as immunoglobulins, are proteins produced by the immune system to
18 recognize and neutralize foreign substances. They play a critical role in the body’s defence against
19 infections and diseases (1). The variable regions of an antibody are responsible for antigen recognition,
20 are highly diverse, and consist of three complementarity-determining regions (CDRs) named CDR1,
21 CDR2, and CDR3. Among these CDRs, CDR3 exhibits the greatest variability and is often referred
22 to as the “hypervariable” region (2). Efficient antibody design is becoming more and more important
23 because it has the potential to accelerate the development of effective treatments and vaccines (3; 4).

24 Throughout the antibody design process, we strive to harness the full potential of antibodies by
25 tailoring their properties to meet specific requirements. By optimizing their affinity, stability, and
26 other attributes, these designed antibodies offer promising prospects for targeted therapy, diagnostics,
27 and various biomedical applications (5; 6).

28 Typically, Experimental antibody design and screening can be time-consuming and expensive. Sim-
29 ulation allows researchers to test a large number of potential antibody structure candidates and
30 select the most promising candidates for further experimental validation, saving time and resources.
31 Improving the process of simulations (7) can further provide insight into the properties and behaviour

32 of antibodies, such as binding affinity and specificity, which may be difficult to determine experi-
33 mentally (8; 9). However, the sheer number of possible CDRH3 sequences in a combinatorial space
34 makes it infeasible to exhaustively examine any antibody simulation framework (10). Therefore, we
35 need computational tools to guide our exploration of the protein landscape

36 Recently, Bayesian optimization has demonstrated its efficiency in exploring the sequence design
37 space (8; 11). Bellamy et al (12) compared how noise affects different batched Bayesian optimization
38 techniques and introduced a retest policy to mitigate the effect of noise. Wang et al (13) discussed
39 using Bayesian optimization (BO) to design chemical-based products and functional materials,
40 showing that BO can significantly reduce the number of experiments required compared to traditional
41 approaches. However, for antibody sequence design where the search space dimension is extremely
42 large, it is very ineffective for Bayesian optimization. The choice of the acquisition function used to
43 guide the optimization process can also impact its effectiveness, and there may be a trade-off between
44 exploration and exploitation that must be carefully balanced.

45 We propose GLMAB-BO, an efficient way for antibody sequence optimization to address the above
46 challenges. Our main contributions are improving exploration efficiency by using protein language
47 models to filter out mutants with low fitness scores and designing a risk-aware acquisition function
48 based on the uncertainty of the prediction to improve the explorer’s ability. We demonstrate the
49 effectiveness of our proposed method on multiple antibody datasets. Our model can identify the
50 sequence with the best fitness score in the fewest rounds compared to other baselines.

51 **2 Related work**

52 Specially, we can use fitness scores to evaluate the bio function of the sequence, which play a
53 crucial role in antibody design as they serve as important indicators of the functional and structural
54 quality of antibodies. Higher fitness scores generally indicate better binding affinity, stability, and
55 other desirable properties. Many novel frameworks have been proposed to model various protein
56 sequences. Especially for pre-trained language models which demonstrate transfer learning ability
57 to predict fitness scores (14; 15). In the context of antibody design, predicting fitness scores can
58 be highly beneficial. It provides a cost-effective alternative to conducting time-consuming and
59 expensive wet-lab experiments. By utilizing computational models and machine learning techniques,
60 researchers can efficiently evaluate the fitness of a large number of antibody sequences, prioritizing
61 those with higher predicted fitness scores for further experimental validation. The need for better
62 exploration algorithms, such as batch Bayesian optimization (BO), has gained attention in addressing
63 the challenges of sequence design. Belanger et al (16) explored the application of batched Bayesian
64 optimization in the context of biological sequence design, addressing the unique challenges and
65 investigating design choices for robust and scalable design. Furthermore, Gonzalez et al (17)
66 proposed a heuristic method based on an estimate of the function’s Lipschitz constant to capture the
67 interaction between evaluations in a batch. A penalized acquisition function is used to collect batches
68 of points, minimizing non-parallelizable computational effort. Khan et al (8) used a CDRH3 trust
69 region to restrict the search to sequences with favourable developability scores.

70 These studies highlight the ongoing efforts to address the challenges in sequence design for antibody
71 engineering. By incorporating bayesian optimization, researchers aim to enhance the efficiency and
72 effectiveness of antibody design and improve the sequence diversity.

73 **3 Problem Formulation and Background**

74 **3.1 Antibody Sequence Design**

75 Antibody Sequence Design can be formulated as a constrained optimization problem (18; 19; 8; 20).
76 Let x be a vector representing the CDRH3 amino acid sequence, and let $f(x)$ be a fitness function that
77 quantifies the quality of the antibody sequence in terms of target specificity and developability. The
78 problem is to find the optimal sequence x^* that maximizes the scoring function subject to constraints:

$$\max_x f(x) \text{ s.t. } x \in \mathcal{X}, g(x) \leq 0, \quad (1)$$

79 where \mathcal{X} is the set of all possible amino acid sequences for the CDRH3 region and $g(x)$ represents
 80 constraints on the biophysical properties of the sequence, such as stability and solubility. The
 81 optimization problem aims to find the best antibody sequence that satisfies the biophysical constraints
 82 and has the highest target specificity and developability scores. Bayesian optimization methods can be
 83 used to efficiently solve this optimization problem by iteratively proposing candidate sequences that
 84 are subsequently evaluated by a surrogate model and passed to an acquisition function that balances
 85 exploration and exploitation.

86 3.2 Bayesian optimization

87 Bayesian Optimization (BO) is a sequential model-based optimization technique used to solve
 88 expensive black-box optimization problems with a limited budget of function evaluations, which has
 89 been applied to sequence modelling (8; 13).

90 We can express the BO process as follows: Let $f(x)$ be the unknown fitness function we aim to
 91 optimize, where $x \in \mathcal{X}$ is the input variable. Our goal is to find the global optimum x^* that maximizes
 92 $f(x)$. However, doing a wet lab experiment to evaluate $f(x)$ is expensive and time-consuming. The
 93 acquisition function, denoted by $\alpha(x)$, measures the utility of evaluating a point x based on the
 94 current surrogate model. $\alpha(x)$ balances exploration and exploitation by favouring points with high
 95 uncertainty (exploration) or high expected improvement (exploitation). Popular acquisition functions
 96 include expected improvement (EI), upper confidence bound (UCB), and probability of improvement
 97 (PI) (21; 8).

98 The next evaluation point is selected by optimizing the acquisition function over the input space \mathcal{X} :

$$x_{n+1} = \operatorname{argmax}_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \alpha(x) \quad (2)$$

99 After evaluating $f(x_{n+1})$, we update the surrogate model with the new observation (x_{n+1}, y_{n+1})
 100 and repeat the process until the budget of function evaluations is exhausted or a satisfactory solution
 101 is found. Batch BO improves this by minimizing the exploration rounds.

102 4 Method

103 4.1 General language model guided candidate pool generation

104 Intuitively, we propose to use the General language model (GLM) trained on diverse antibody datasets
 105 to score the candidate pool and filter out the sequence with lower fitness values in the vast sequence
 106 space. Let \mathcal{C} be the candidate pool consisting of N protein sequences, and let $f(x_i)$ be the fitness
 107 score of sequence x_i from candidate pool \mathcal{C} obtained from the protein language model. We determine
 108 the threshold fitness score t that filters out $m\%$ of the sequences with fitness scores less than or equal
 109 to t . In the process of training our protein model GLM-Ab, we randomly mask one or two of the
 110 CDR regions by replacing the entire region with a random mask. We also conduct random mask
 111 fragments, by randomly masking one or more sections of the sequence.

112 Then, we can use GLM-Ab to score the sequences and determine an index k such that $f(x_k) \leq t <$
 113 $f(x_{k-1})$. Furthermore, by setting $t = f(x_k)$, the filtered set of sequences \mathcal{C}' with small search space
 114 and higher naturalness is obtained as:

$$\mathcal{C}' = x_i \in \mathcal{C} \mid f(x_i) \geq t \quad (3)$$

115 In other words, \mathcal{C}' contains all sequences in \mathcal{C} with fitness scores greater than or equal to t based on
 116 GLM scoring.

117 **4.2 Risk aware Bayesian optimization**

118 Many previous works have been proposed to leverage uncertainty for biological discovery and
 119 sequence design (22; 21; 8). However, using gaussian processes (22) to measure the uncertainty for a
 120 large sequence is extremely inefficient. In this section, we propose a risk-aware exploration to balance
 121 exploration and exploitation by selecting points with high expected improvement and lower risk. In
 122 each round of optimization, we train an ensemble of models to estimate the uncertainty, similar to the
 123 approach taken by PEX (20).

124 We assume the output of M surrogate models follows a normal distribution $\mathcal{N}(\mu_s, \sigma_s)$. We can divide
 125 the uncertainty of those model predictions as epistemic uncertainty (EU) and aleatoric uncertainty
 126 (AU) (23; 24),

$$\sigma_e^2 = \frac{1}{M} \sum (\mu - \mu_s)^2, \quad \sigma_a^2 = \frac{1}{M} \sum_s \sigma_s^2(x) \quad (4)$$

127 where EU is based on the variance between the predictions of different surrogate models, and the
 128 AU-estimated standard deviation provides a measure of the uncertainty associated with the predicted
 129 values. EU quantifies the uncertainty associated with the lack of knowledge or variability in the
 130 models themselves. EU can be reduced by increasing the number or quality of models.

131 Unlike PEX, we use a UCB acquisition function to evaluate sequence x . The UCB acquisition
 132 function is defined as:

$$\alpha(x) = \mu(x) + \beta\sigma(x), \quad (5)$$

133 where $\mu(x)$ is the mean ensemble prediction generates from surrogate models for a sequence x , and
 134 β is a hyperparameter that controls the trade-off between exploration and exploitation, and $\sigma(x)$
 135 is the ensemble standard deviation function of the surrogate model for sequence x . In other words, $\sigma(x)$
 136 represents the aleatoric uncertainty of the prediction for sequence x .

137 The risk-aware modification based on Equation 5 introduces a penalty term that depends on the
 138 aleatoric uncertainty of the fitness values in the candidate pool:

$$\alpha_{risk}(x) = \mu(x) + \frac{\beta}{m + risk}\sigma(x) \quad (6)$$

139 where $risk$ is the parameter that measures the variability, i.e., epistemic uncertainty, of the fitness
 140 values prediction based on the surrogate model for the whole candidate pool. we select $m = 0.5$ is a
 141 constant to avoid dividing by a very small value. The general purpose of this acquisition function is to
 142 discourage the selection of points with high variability, which can lead to unstable and unpredictable
 143 performance. To be more specific, the measure for risk is defined as:

$$risk = \frac{1}{|C|} \sum_{i=1}^{|C|} \sigma_i \quad (7)$$

144 It is calculated as the average of aleatoric uncertainty for the fitness values evaluation in the whole
 145 generated candidate pool, where C' is the filtered candidate pool, and σ_i is the standard deviation of
 146 the fitness values prediction for the i^{th} candidate sequence.

147 In each round, we train the surrogate model f_θ on the queried sequences with true fitness scores
 148 from wet lab experiments (same as (20)). In the first few rounds, the surrogate model lacks good
 149 prediction ability for the candidate pool and could have a higher epistemic uncertainty (23). The
 150 rationale for the risk measure is to consider epistemic uncertainty for the whole candidate pool, which
 151 indicates a high risk of selecting a suboptimal point that may lead to a performance drop.

Algorithm 1 Risk-aware Bayesian Sequence optimization

Input: Starting sequence ($s^{wt}, f(s^{wt})$), Pre-trained protein language model \mathcal{G} , surrogate model f_θ , measured buffer \mathcal{D} , whole candidate pool \mathcal{C}

Parameter: Initialize model parameter θ

- 1: **for** $t = 1$ to T **do**
 - 2: **while** condition **do**
 - 3: Use Equation 3 to generate filtered sequence pool \mathcal{C}' with higher naturalness.
 - 4: Train ensemble of surrogate models f_θ to get prediction μ and uncertainty σ , and $risk$.
 - 5: Use the acquisition function based on Equation 6 scoring \mathcal{C}' to generate query sequence batch D_t^{query} .
 - 6: Measure ground-truth fitness of D_t^{query} by wet-lab experiments.
 - 7: Update Surrogate model f_θ using D_t^{query} .
 - 8: **end while**
 - 9: **end for**
-

152 4.3 GLMAB-BO

153 The full algorithm of our proposed algorithm can be found in Algorithm 1. In each round of black-box
154 optimization, the whole framework is required to generate a query batch based on the measured
155 fitness score through wet lab experiments. We first utilize the pre trained unsupervised GLM-Ab
156 model to narrow down the candidate pool sequence space. Then, we integrate risk-aware batch
157 Bayesian optimization to propose a query batch for web lab experiments. The visualization of the
158 whole framework is in Figure 1.

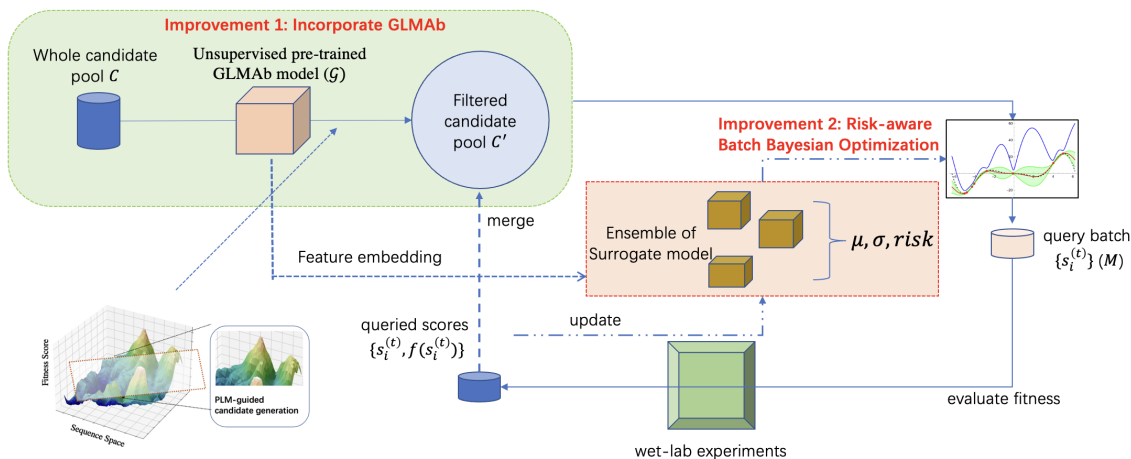


Figure 1: Framework overview. In our proposed GLMAB-BO framework, we first use the pre-trained GLM-Ab model \mathcal{G} to filter out the sequence with unsatisfying naturalness in the candidate pool and acquire \mathcal{D}' , then we train an ensemble of surrogate models with GLM-Ab’s feature encoding to predict the fitness the remaining sequences. When we acquire the ensemble mean μ , prediction standard deviation σ , and the $risk$, we utilize the proposed risk-aware Bayesian Optimization (BO) acquisition function to further evaluate the sequences. Finally, we use the top 100 sequences with high predicted naturalness to conduct a wet-lab experiment (we use a hypothetical scenario due to time constraints for replacement in this study) and perform another round of exploration until we reach the exploration rounds limits.

159 5 Experiments

160 Absolut! framework (25) is used as a computational alternative to wet lab experiments for gener-
161 ating antibody-antigen binding datasets. It provides a deterministic simulation of binding affinity

162 using coarse-grained lattice representations of proteins, allowing evaluation of all possible binding
 163 conformations between a CDRH3 sequence and an antigen. The framework has been benchmarked
 164 and shown to produce consistent results compared to experimental data (8; 26). And we use this
 165 framework to generate the initial whole candidate pool.

166 5.1 Baseline methods

167 In this study, several methods for antibody design optimization are compared. The **Combinatorial**
 168 **Bayesian Optimization for Antibody Design (antbo)** (8) approach employs combinatorial Bayesian
 169 optimization to efficiently design antibody CDRH3 regions, using a trust region and a black-box
 170 oracle for scoring specificity and affinity. **Proximal Exploration (pex)** (20) introduces the Proximal
 171 Exploration algorithm and the Mutation Factorization Network architecture, which prioritize high-
 172 fitness mutants with low mutation counts for protein sequence design. The **Batch Bayes Optimization**
 173 **(batchbo)** (16) method uses a neural network ensemble with uncertainty estimates to guide sequence
 174 batch selection using expected improvement. **Random Search** is employed as a baseline for method
 175 comparison, randomly selecting subsets of sequences for reference. These diverse methods provide
 176 insights into the optimization landscape and guide the development of more advanced algorithms for
 177 protein sequence design.

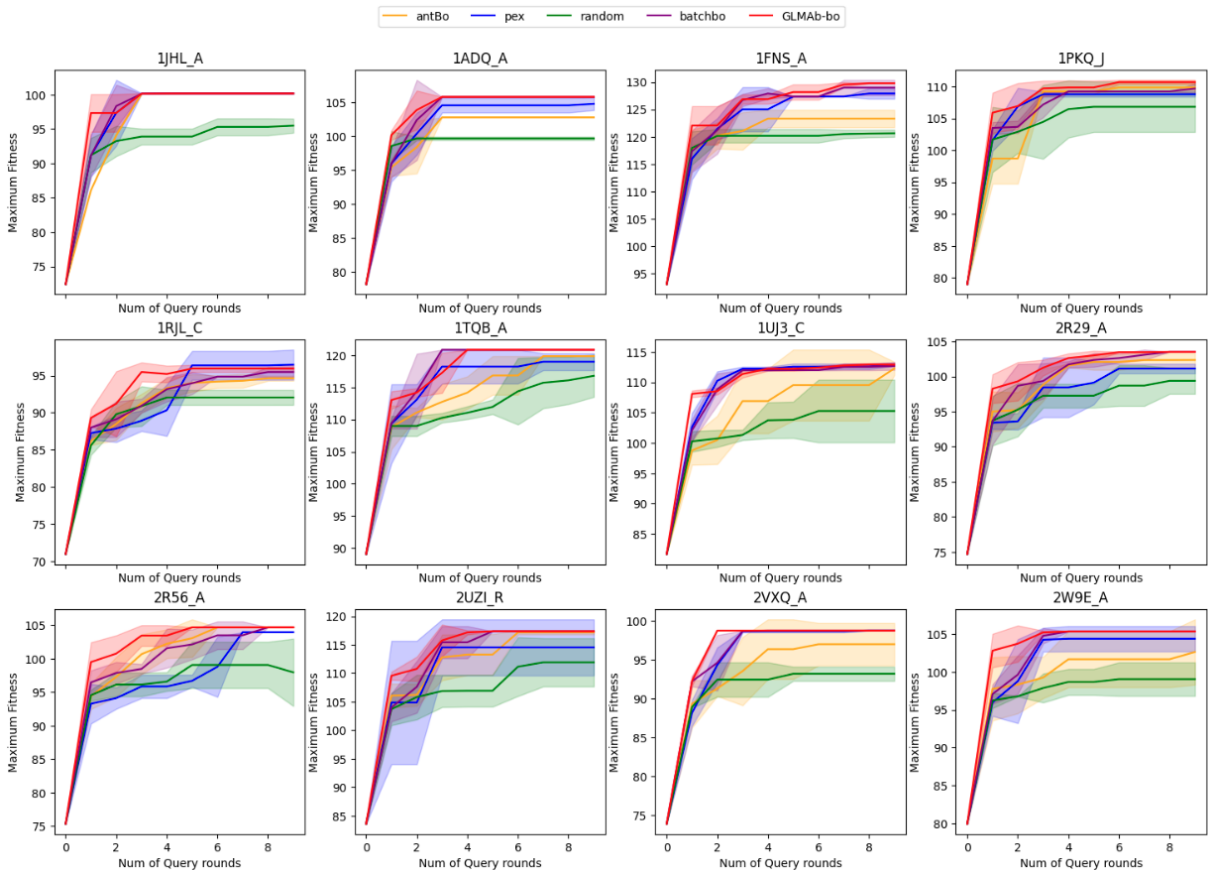


Figure 2: Experimental results comparison on antibody datasets, each round of black-box optimization can generate 100 proposal sequences. We use maximum measured fitness in each round as the evaluation metric. The shaded area indicates the standard deviation given 5 random seeds.

Table 1: Comparison of sequence optimization results on different datasets, we summarized maximum fitness over 5 rounds, 10 rounds, and average maximum fitness over 10 rounds

Method	1JHL_A	1ADQ_A	1FNS_A	1PKQ_J	1RJL_C	1TQB_A	1UJ3_C	2R29_A	2R56_A	2UZI_R	2VXQ_A	2W9E_A	overall
antbo (10)	100.18	102.76	123.32	109.86	94.64	119.84	112.26	102.34	104.69	117.17	97.01	102.62	107.22
pex (10)	100.18	104.75	127.91	108.79	96.47	118.98	112.89	101.11	103.97	114.54	98.77	104.37	107.73
random (10)	95.49	99.65	120.64	106.83	92.05	116.79	105.26	99.37	99.06	111.91	93.21	99.04	103.28
batchbo (10)	100.18	105.76	128.97	109.69	95.48	120.84	112.67	103.50	104.69	117.38	98.77	105.34	108.61
GLMab-BO (10)	100.18	105.76	129.78	110.70	95.95	120.84	112.89	103.50	104.69	117.38	98.77	105.34	108.82
antbo (5)	94.07	98.38	120.23	98.71	88.49	111.09	100.50	95.19	97.29	106.22	91.32	98.32	99.98
pex (5)	97.36	100.36	121.45	106.87	87.86	113.09	110.23	93.60	94.11	104.87	94.34	98.77	101.91
random (5)	93.25	99.65	120.17	102.91	89.80	109.00	100.73	95.27	96.14	105.82	92.46	96.78	100.16
batchbo (5)	98.34	102.36	121.20	103.68	89.12	114.39	108.84	98.66	97.86	107.60	94.63	99.63	103.03
GLMab-BO (5)	97.34	103.84	122.07	106.93	91.21	114.19	108.52	99.30	100.76	110.77	98.77	103.73	104.79
antbo (avg)	95.37	99.13	119.18	104.35	90.21	112.91	104.51	97.64	99.17	110.39	92.89	98.62	102.03
pex (avg)	96.21	100.64	121.84	104.89	90.73	114.14	108.22	96.21	96.18	109.51	94.74	100.51	102.82
random (avg)	92.00	97.40	117.36	102.86	88.95	110.34	101.26	95.15	95.29	106.08	90.63	96.43	99.48
batchbo (avg)	96.30	101.69	122.79	104.92	90.68	115.88	107.83	98.31	98.82	111.30	95.21	101.34	103.76
GLMab-BO (avg)	96.83	102.25	123.63	106.40	92.19	115.86	108.50	99.30	100.60	112.38	95.63	102.37	104.66

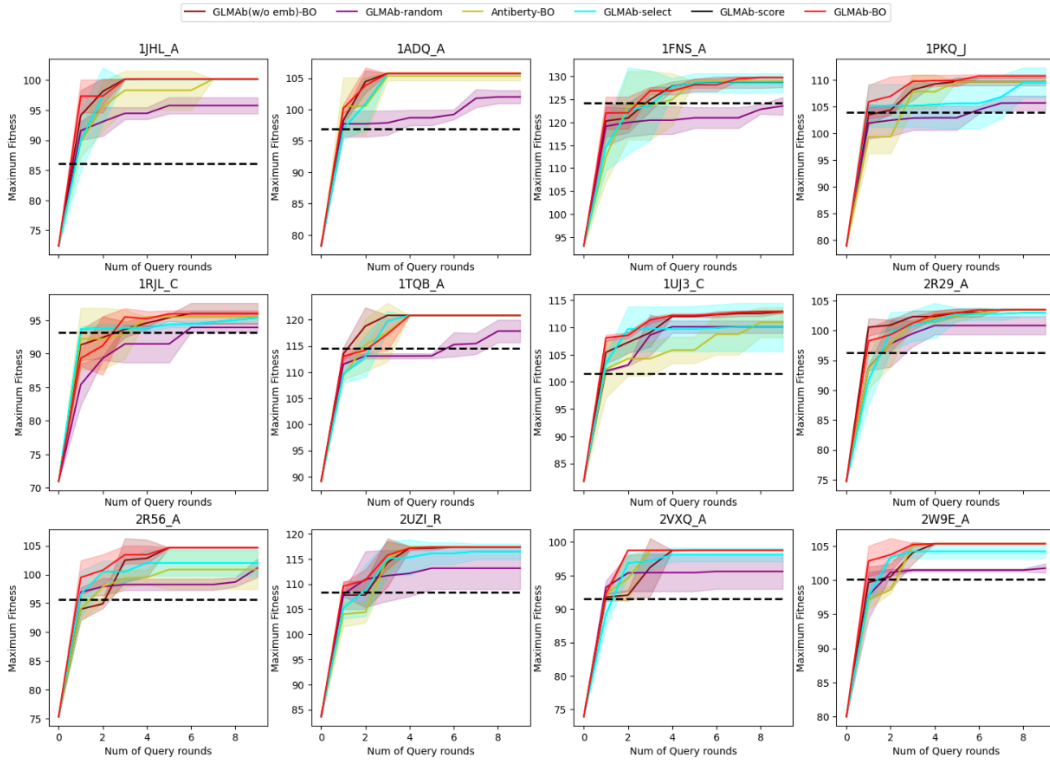


Figure 3: Ablative study experimental results comparison on antibody datasets with 5 random seeds.

Table 2: Ablation results on different datasets, we summarized maximum fitness over 5 rounds, 10 rounds, and average maximum fitness over 10 rounds.

Method	1JHL_A	1ADQ_A	1FNS_A	1PKQ_J	1RJL_C	1TQB_A	1UJ3_C	2R29_A	2R56_A	2UZI_R	2VXQ_A	2W9E_A	overall
GLMab(w/o emb)-BO (10)	100.18	105.76	128.78	109.66	96.01	120.84	112.89	103.50	104.69	117.38	98.77	105.34	108.65
GLMab-random (10)	95.78	102.01	123.56	105.67	93.92	117.82	110.10	100.85	101.15	113.15	95.61	101.74	105.11
Antiberty-BO (10)	100.18	105.34	128.97	109.64	95.48	120.83	110.94	103.50	100.88	117.38	98.77	105.34	108.10
GLMab-select (10)	100.12	105.76	128.57	109.47	95.34	120.84	110.05	102.99	102.06	116.48	98.11	104.21	107.83
GLMab-BO (10)	100.18	105.76	129.78	110.70	95.95	120.84	112.89	103.50	104.69	117.38	98.77	105.34	108.82
GLMab(w/o emb)-BO (5)	98.11	104.45	120.94	104.34	92.43	118.78	107.23	100.91	94.93	107.81	92.06	100.50	103.54
GLMab-random (5)	93.09	97.70	119.98	102.44	89.32	113.06	103.08	97.80	97.91	110.96	95.38	101.13	101.82
Antiberty-BO (5)	95.60	100.51	123.69	99.35	92.23	115.20	104.25	97.80	97.89	104.40	94.56	98.58	102.00
GLMab-select (5)	97.45	100.89	122.53	105.18	93.84	112.97	109.71	99.84	100.49	108.74	96.87	103.37	104.32
GLMab-BO (5)	97.34	103.84	122.07	106.93	91.21	114.19	108.52	99.30	100.76	110.77	98.77	103.73	104.79
GLMab(w/o emb)-BO (avg)	96.59	102.12	123.06	105.24	92.23	116.72	107.78	99.73	99.30	111.74	94.66	101.62	104.23
GLMab-random (avg)	92.49	97.39	118.25	101.34	89.57	111.92	105.60	97.08	96.15	109.21	93.13	98.94	100.92
Antiberty-BO (avg)	95.15	101.67	122.28	104.15	92.12	115.61	104.36	98.55	97.05	111.15	95.21	101.27	103.21
GLMab-select (avg)	96.05	101.63	122.45	103.68	92.01	115.65	106.40	98.29	98.53	110.97	94.58	101.05	103.44
GLMab-BO (avg)	96.83	102.25	123.63	106.40	92.19	115.86	108.50	99.30	100.60	112.38	95.63	102.37	104.66

178 5.2 Ablative study methods

179 In the ablative study, we assess the effectiveness of our proposed enhancements in the GLMAB-
180 BO method through various ablations. These include **GLMAB-score**, which focuses solely on the
181 highest predicted score from GLMAB on the candidate pool, and **GLMAB-select**, which removes the
182 acquisition function and relies solely on the surrogate model for sequence selection. Additionally,
183 **GLMAB-random** eliminates both the acquisition function and surrogate model, utilizing the GLM
184 model to filter sequences and then randomly selecting the top 100. **GLMAB(w/o emb)-BO** removes
185 the embedding of GLMAB’s CNN surrogate model to evaluate the feature embedding module.
186 Moreover, the **Antiberty-BO** model replaces the GLM module with a different antibody-specific
187 transformer language model to gauge its impact on active learning efficiency.

188 5.3 Result analysis

189 5.3.1 Analysis of GLMAB-BO performance

190 The comparison results of different methods are presented in Figure 2 and Table 1, highlighting
191 notable findings. Firstly, batch-mode optimization methods (such as PEX and BatchBO) outperform
192 non-batch-mode methods (like AntBO) in terms of discovering sequences with higher fitness scores.
193 This advantage stems from the inherent diversity introduced by considering multiple sequences
194 simultaneously in batch mode optimization. In contrast, non-batch mode methods are more susceptible
195 to being trapped in local optima due to their limited diversity. Additionally, the utilization of GLMAB
196 to filter the extensive sequence optimization space facilitates the exploration process, enabling the
197 identification of optimal sequences within a few rounds. Moreover, leveraging feature embedding
198 pretrained from the GLMAB model enhances the performance of the surrogate model in predicting
199 fitness scores for unknown sequences, even with limited training data.

200 5.3.2 Analysis of submodule performance

201 For the second question, the comparison results with different ablative methods are shown in Figure
202 2 and detailed in Table 2. We find GLMAB-BO to perform better than Antiberty-BO in the first few
203 rounds, which indicates our pretrained GLMAB model’s ability to filter out more sequences with
204 unsatisfying naturalness. Meanwhile, we can find that with the help of the embedding feature from
205 GLMAB, the performance of GLMAB-BO is better than GLMAB(w/o emb)-BO on most datasets.

206 By comparing GLMAB-BO with GLMAB-select and GLMAB-random, we can find that they have
207 similar performance in the first few rounds thanks to the pre-trained GLM. However, given more
208 rounds, GLMAB-BO can find the sequence with the overall best fitness score which indicates that
209 our whole exploration framework can be helpful for exploring sequences with better naturalness. By
210 comparing only GLMAB-select and GLMAB-random, we can find that with the help of the trained
211 surrogate model, it can also greedily improve the searched sequence naturalness since it could have
212 overall better fitness in the last few rounds.

213 6 Conclusion

214 In conclusion, we have presented an efficient and risk-aware antibody design framework that combines
215 the power of protein language models and batch Bayesian optimization. Our approach addresses
216 the challenges of time-consuming and expensive experimentation by leveraging predictive models
217 to generate candidate sequences with higher naturalness and employing Bayesian optimization to
218 explore the sequence space effectively. By incorporating uncertainty estimates into the acquisition
219 function, our framework achieves a balance between exploration and exploitation, resulting in the
220 identification of promising antibody candidates. Through extensive experiments on benchmark
221 datasets, we have demonstrated the effectiveness of our method. Our framework surpasses state-of-
222 the-art approaches in terms of both efficiency and the quality of designed sequences. By reducing the
223 cost and time required for antibody design, our framework has the potential to expedite the discovery
224 of new antibodies and contribute to advancements in the field.

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313 Appendix

314 Training of protein language model

315 Since pretraining General language models (GLM) (27) pretrained on natural languages have achieved noteworthy
316 performance, we leveraged the GLM framework to train a language model of antibodies with 1 billion parameters
317 (GLM-Ab). Specifically, GLM-Ab is trained on both the understanding (in-place token prediction) and the
318 generation (next token prediction) tasks, which contain a blank filling task, a recovering random masked span
319 task and a recovering CDR deleted region task. The model is trained on Observed Antibody Space (28) with
320 a max length of 1024, 230K steps, and 2048 samples per batch. Other hyperparameters are the same with the
321 official implementation of GLM (27).

322 Following (29; 30; 31), we utilize the perplexity (PPL) given by a protein language model to predict the fitness
323 of proteins. The main training scheme and hyper-parameters are following (32).

324 Correlation evaluation of protein language model with the CDR3 antibody candidate pool

325 To shed light on the relevance of the pre-filtering with our pre-trained protein language model. We plot the
326 correlation between the predicted value and ground truth value on the candidate pool datasets using different
327 protein language models. As demonstrated from Figure 4 and 5, we can find that our pre-trained GLM-Ab can
328 have a better correlation than Antiberty, which makes it becomes more useful for pre-filtering out the sequence
329 with low naturalness. However, we still find that the correlation is not quite high even lower than 0.5 which can
330 validate that the BO model for sequence exploration is very necessary.

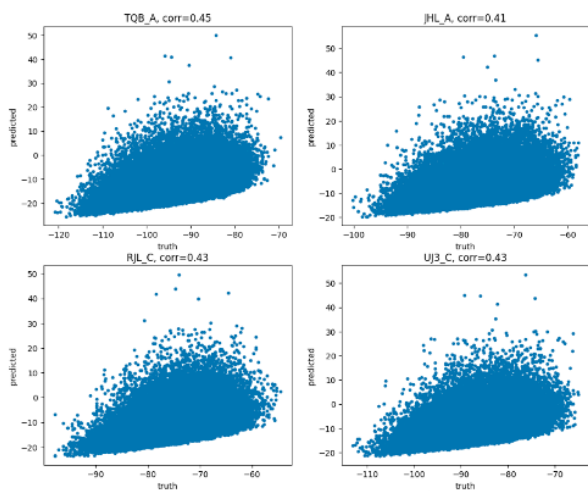


Figure 4: Correlation analysis between GLM-Ab and the candidate pool.

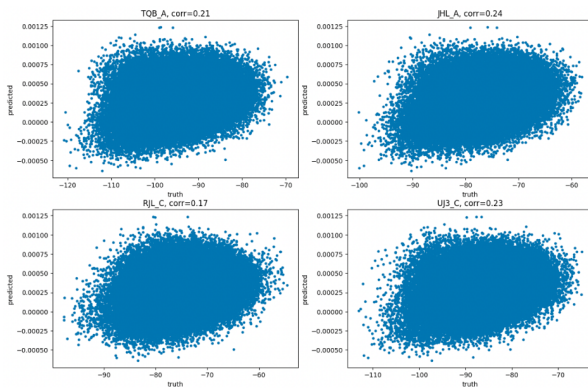


Figure 5: Correlation analysis between Antiberty and the candidate pool.

331 Training of surrogate model

332 Constructing a surrogate model to facilitate the selection of mutants in in-silico evolutionary processes is an
333 effective approach to mitigate the resource-intensive nature of wet-lab experiments. This involves training
334 a fitness model denoted as $\hat{f}\theta$, where θ represents the model’s parameters, to predict the fitness of mutant
335 sequences. Specifically, the surrogate model is optimized by minimizing the regression loss function $L(\theta) =$
336 $\mathbb{E}_s \sim D \left[\left(\hat{f}\theta(s) - f(s) \right)^2 \right]$, where D signifies a dataset containing experimentally measured sequences. The
337 acquired surrogate model $\hat{f}\theta$ becomes capable of predicting the fitness of previously unseen sequences, thereby
338 guiding in-silico sequence exploration and enhancing the efficiency of directed evolution while reducing the
339 need for extensive experimental efforts. Built upon the above trained GLM-Ab model’s embedding, we add 6
340 layers of CNN module which is adapted from (33).

341 Baseline methods setup

- 342 • **Combinatorial Bayesian Optimisation for Antibody Design (antbo):** (author?) (8) introduced a
343 combinatorial Bayesian optimization framework for efficient *in silico* design of the CDRH3 region
344 of antibodies. They used a CDRH3 trust region to restrict the search to sequences with favorable
345 developability scores and a black-box oracle to score target specificity and affinity. However, it could
346 only propose one sequence in each round of optimization. We adapt this method to propose 100
347 sequences to make a fair comparison.
- 348 • **Proximal Exploration(pex):** (author?) (20) proposed the Proximal Exploration (PEX) algorithm and
349 the Mutation Factorization Network (MuFacNet) architecture for machine learning-guided protein
350 sequence design. The PEX algorithm prioritizes the search for high-fitness mutants with low mutation
351 counts, leveraging the natural property of the protein fitness landscape that a concise set of mutations
352 upon the wild-type sequence are usually sufficient to enhance the desired function. The MuFacNet
353 architecture is designed to predict low-order mutational effects, improving the sample efficiency of
354 model-guided evolution.
- 355 • **Batch Bayes Optimization (batchbo):** We follow the idea from (16), and we apply the neural
356 network ensemble with uncertainty estimate on the batch of sequence and use expected improvement
357 as the acquisition function.
- 358 • **Random Search:** This method involves randomly selecting a subset of sequences from a larger
359 pool, with the goal of establishing a reference point against which the performance of other methods
360 can be compared. While this approach is simple, it can be useful for identifying cases where more
361 sophisticated algorithms may be necessary. However, the quality of the baseline can be highly
362 dependent on the selection method and the size of the subset. Therefore, care must be taken in the
363 selection process to ensure that the resulting subset is representative of the larger pool of sequences.
364 Overall, random selection can provide a valuable starting point for evaluating the performance of more
365 advanced algorithms in a variety of bioinformatics applications.

366 Ablative study methods setup

367 For the ablative study, we aim to evaluate the effectiveness of our proposed improvements. We construct several
368 ablative versions based on our proposed GLMAB-BO method. We construct the following baselines:

- 369 • **GLMAB-score:** for this method, we only report the highest predicted score generated by GLMAB on
370 our raw candidate pool \mathcal{D} .
- 371 • **GLMAB-select:** for this model, we eliminate the acquisition function, i.e., the evaluation function
372 from Equation 6. And we only use the surrogate model to select the top sequence for the query.
- 373 • **GLMAB-random:** for this model, we eliminate both the acquisition function, i.e., the evaluation
374 function from Equation 6 and the surrogate model. We only use the GLM model to filter out the
375 sequence with worse scores. Then, we use a random method to select the top 100 query sequences.
- 376 • **GLMAB(w/o emb)-BO:** for this model, we only eliminate the GLMAB’s embedding on top of the
377 CNN surrogate model to test the effectiveness of the feature embedding module.
- 378 • **Antiberty-BO:** To evaluate the effectiveness of our proposed method’s GLM module for active
379 learning, we also tried another antibody-specific transformer language model (34) to replace the GLM
380 module used before.

381 The detailed ablative methods’ configuration summarization is summarized in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparison of the configuration of different ablation study methods

Method	PLM	Surrogate model	Acquisition function
GLMAb-score	GLMAb	×	×
GLMAb-random	GLMAb	×	random
GLMAb-select	GLMAb	GLMAb emb+CNN	×
GLMAb(w/o emb)-BO	GLMAb	CNN	BO
Antiberty-BO	Antiberty	Antiberty emb+CNN	BO
GLMAb-BO (full model)	GLMAb	GLMAb emb+CNN	BO