

[2022 Summer/Fall] KAIST URP Program

Individual Research Project Final Report

[Research Participation Project / Creative Project]

병원성 바이러스에 대응하는 항체 설계를 위한
대조적 학습

**Contrastive Learning for antibody representation learning
and antibody classification targeting pathogenic viruses**

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For Submission

Research Subject (Korean): 병원성 바이러스에 대응하는 항체 설계를 위한 대조적 학습

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As a participant(s) of the KAIST URP program, I (We) have completed the above research and hereby submit the final report on the research.

December 23, 2022

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Abstract

Learning effective antibody representations is fundamental in multiple biological tasks, specifically for predicting antigen specificity to target pathogenic viruses. Current methodologies usually pretrain language models on a large number of unlabeled amino acid sequences of antibodies and then hyper-tune the models with some labeled data in downstream applications. Even though the sequence-based methods have proven to be effective in multiple realms, the power of pretraining on known antibody structures, which are available in exponentially small magnitude, has not been explored for antigen specificity predictions.

In this project, we will explore a simple yet effective structure-based encoder for antibody representation learning to embed the geometric features of antibodies according to their 3D structural information. We pretrain the antibody graph encoder by leveraging Multiview contrastive learning and evaluate the antigen-specificity task for Severe Acute Respiratory Syndrome Coronavirus 2 (SARS-CoV-2), Hemagglutinin Influenza (HA), and Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV). Experimental results on those viruses indicate comparatively high values for precision/recall/F1-score and reveal qualitatively accurate visualization of latent space for 20 protein families.

1. Research Background

In this section, we explore the biological background of our research, its related previous works on traditional computational methods, and recent approaches applied with Deep Learning.

Background

The adaptive immune system of vertebrates is capable of mounting robust responses to a broad range of potential pathogens. Critical to this flexibility are antibodies, which are specialized to recognize a diverse set of molecular patterns with high affinity and specificity. The overall role of an antibody is to bind to an antigen, e.g., a virus, present it to the immune system, and stimulate an immune response. This natural role in the defense against pathogens, e.g. SARS-COV-2, Influenza, makes antibodies an increasingly popular choice for the development of new therapeutics.

An antibody consists of a heavy chain and a light chain, each composed of a variable domain (VH/VL) and a constant domain, as shown in Fig. 1.1. The variable domain is further divided into a framework region and three complementarity-determining regions (CDRs). The three CDRs on the heavy chain are denoted as CDR-H1, CDR-H2, CDRH3, each occupying a contiguous subsequence in the framework region sequence. As the most variable part of an antibody, CDRs are the main determinants of binding and neutralization. Following current state-of-art approaches in computational biology [4-9], we formulate antibody design as a CDR generation problem, conditioned on the framework region (Fab) sequence.

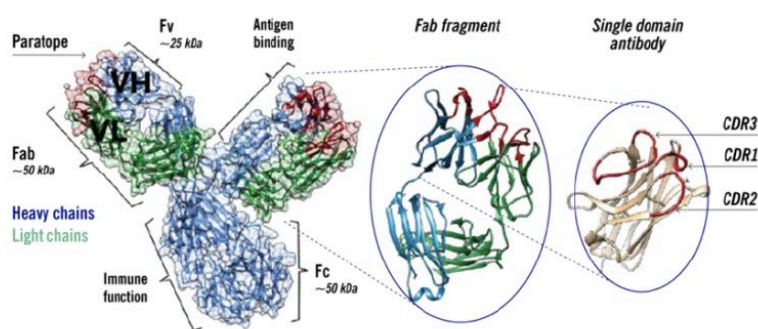


Figure 1.1: Structures of an antibody and of common antibody fragments. An antibody structure is shown on the left with the heavy (H) and light (L) chains in blue and green, respectively. CDRs containing the paratopes are colored in red, and the heavy and light variable domains (VH and VL) are labelled. The antigen-binding fragment (Fab) region is responsible for recognizing the target, while the crystallizable fragment (Fc) region for immune function and lysosome escape. The three CDR loops are highlighted in red on VH domain.

Currently, monoclonal antibodies make up a rapidly growing segment of the global pharmaceutical market. The global therapeutic monoclonal antibody market was valued at approximately \$150 billion in 2019 and is expected to generate revenue of \$300 billion by the end of 2025 [13]. However, rational design of antibody-antigen interactions is hindered by reliance on experimental methods such as crystallography, NMR, and cryo-EM, which are low throughput and requires significant investments of time and resources that may fail (Fig. 1.2).

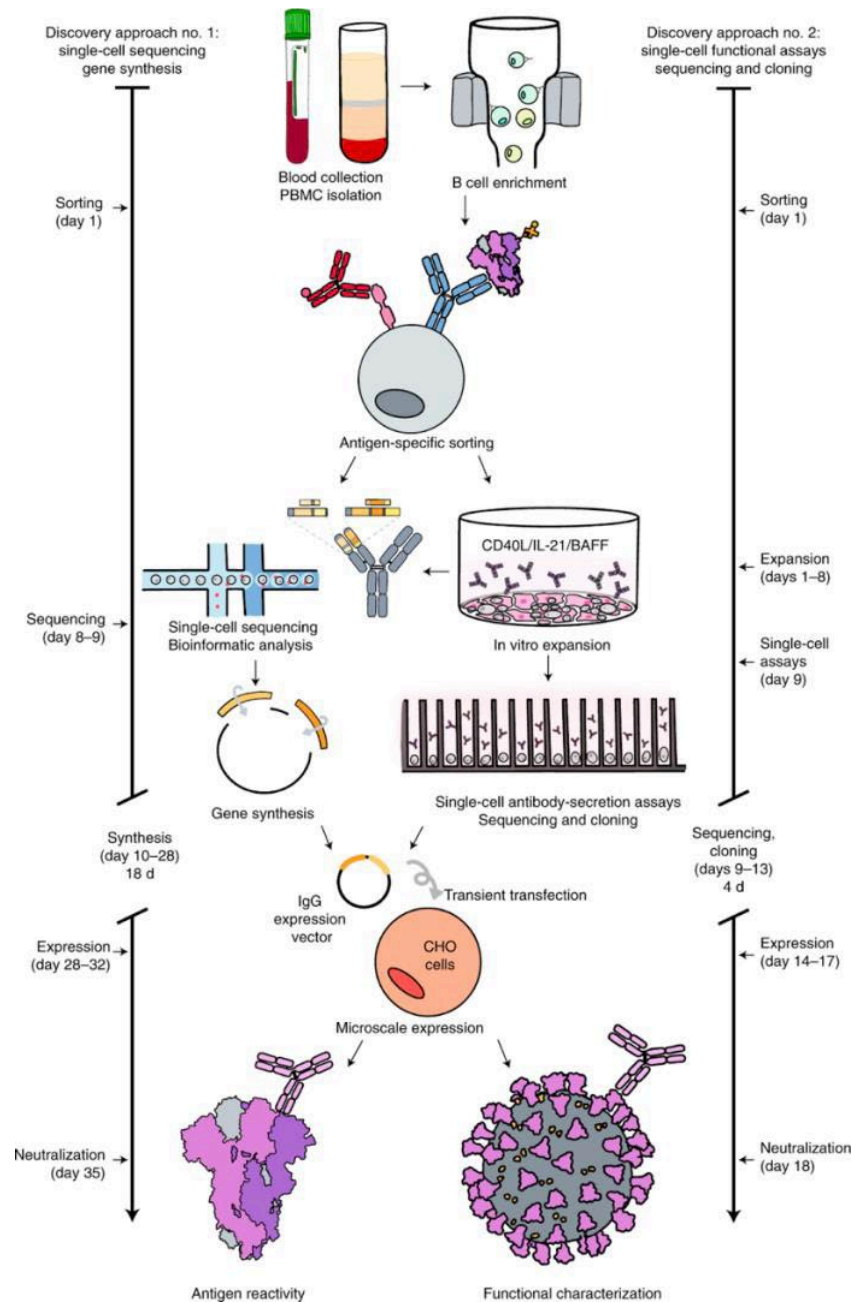


Figure 1.2: Rational design of antibody-antigen interactions

Traditional Methods

In general, methods for computational antibody design roughly fall into two categories. The first class is based on energy function optimization, which uses Markov Chain Monte Carlo simulation to iteratively modify an antibody sequence and its structure to reach a local minimum energy for the antibody structure and the interface between antibody and antigen (Fig. 1.3). Similar approaches are also used in protein design [3, 4]. However, these physics-based methods are computationally expensive, in which the designed sequence can fold into a structure different from the designed structure, and our antigen-conditioned objective can be more complicated than evaluating only physics-based binding energy models [5, 9].

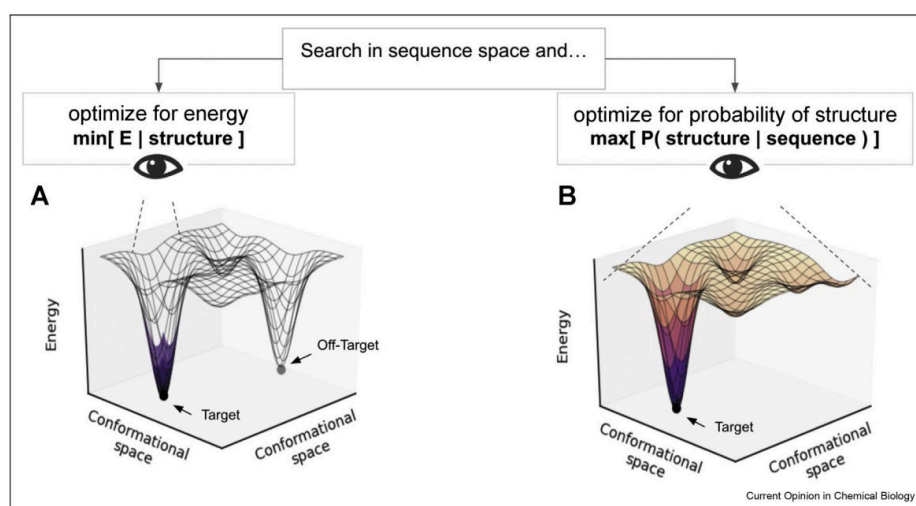


Figure 1.3: Energy Optimization of Protein Sequences. [Christoffer Norn et al. 2021]

Deep Learning-based Methods

The second methodology is based on generative models. For antibodies, they are mostly sequence-based [15, 16], whereas regarding the proteins, authors from [17, 18, 19] further developed models conditioned on a backbone structure or protein folding in general. Since the best CDR structures are often unknown for new pathogens, most approaches codesign sequences and structures for specific properties of targeted viruses, mimicking autoregressive models for graph generation.

In fact, the application of Natural Language Processing (NLP) algorithms, such as Transformers [20], and Graph Neural Networks (GNN) have been proven to be efficient for designing de-novo antibody sequences and structures [6, 7, 8, 9]. Particularly, due to the limited antibody structures available in the structural antibody database [1, 2], most of the recent research studies have focused on antibody sequence generation for paired immunoglobulin

sequences using Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) models [7, 8, 12] and (self-)supervised learning algorithms [6, 9]. However, there has been a lack of studies that have investigated both structure based and sequence-level representations to filter positive candidates from an antibody dataset which may possibly bind and neutralize specific pathogenic viruses. Figure 1.4 illustrates the overall landscape of AI-based antibody design in terms of Antibody Structure Prediction, Language Modeling, Generative Models, and Binding Predictions. As indicated in the specificity task (i.e. blue), most of such prediction models condition on antigen's epitope structures and utilize simple Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) and/or Graph Neural Networks (GNN) to capture antibody-antigen interactions.

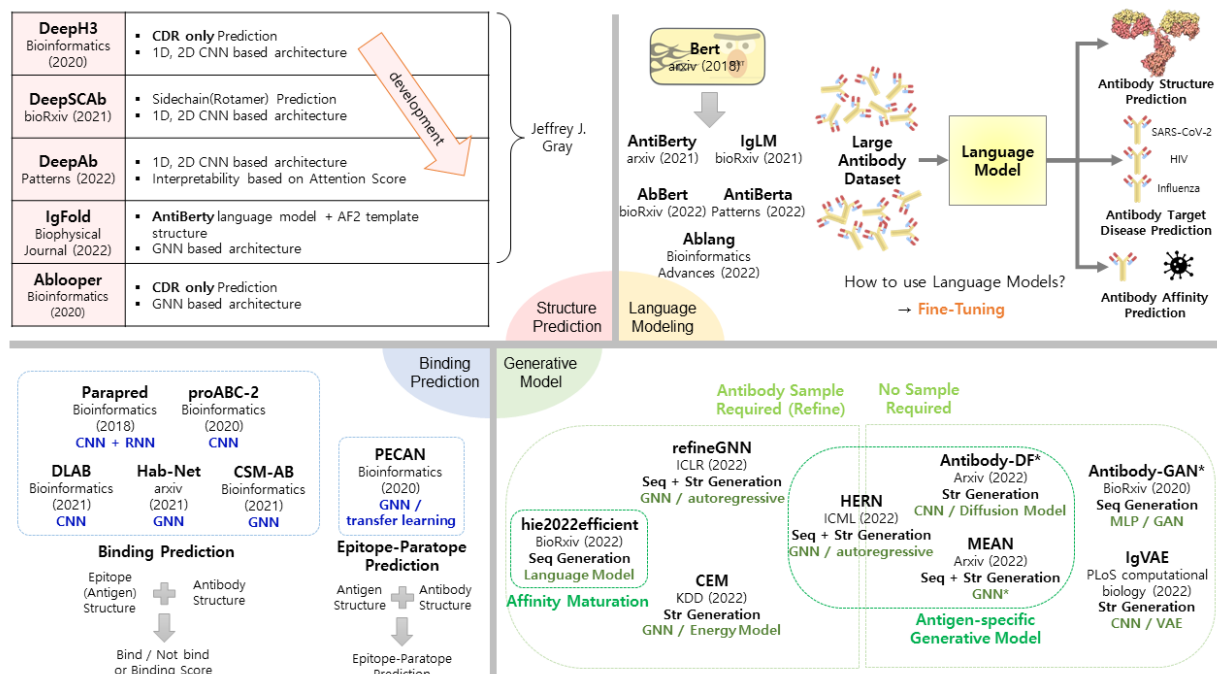


Figure 1.4: AI-based antibody development using language modeling and generative models

2. Research Purpose

In this work, our aim is to use contrastive learning methods (Fig. 2.1) for learning effective antibody representation (embeddings). In addition, we also intend to propose a proper data augmentation for antibody sequences and their respective structural data.

Contrastive learning has recently achieved good results to classify images in computer vision tasks [10, 11]. Using such self-supervised algorithms, the loss is designed to maximize the difference between positive examples and negative examples. In our study, specifically, positive examples could be regarded as antibodies that bind and neutralize to a specific pathogenic virus, while negative examples would be antibodies which do not bind to the specific antigen. We hypothesize that representation learned by contrastive learning using structural-based and sequence-based data can help in the classification of possible binders for specific antigens and learn good 3D/sequence representations for antigen-specificity tasks.

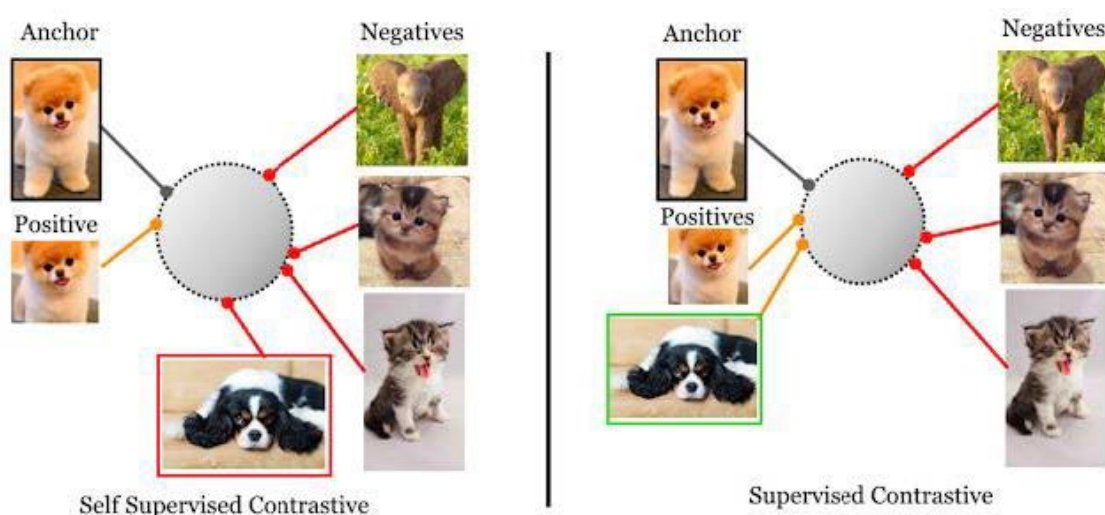


Figure 2.1: Supervised vs self-supervised contrastive losses. Supervised contrastive learning considers different samples from the same class as positive examples [\[link\]](#)

Our main objective during this work can be summarized as follows:

- Generate a synthetic antibody structure dataset by using State-Of-The-Art (SOTA) deep learning-based antibody structure prediction networks.
- Train a classifier via contrastive learning to identify if an antibody is a potential binder to a target antigen by using sequence-based and/or structure-based representations (similar to Fig 2.2).

- Propose a novel data augmentation mechanism for antibody data to produce additional synthetic sequences/structures for learning better representations using contrastive learning algorithms.
- Generate novel antigen-specific antibody candidates with traditional computational methods such as Rosetta Antibody Design (RABD) [3] and deep learning-based generative methods. Evaluate the candidates in silico using the contrastive learning-based classifier, and select the best ones for real wet-lab experiments to compute binding affinity, solubility and developability parameters.

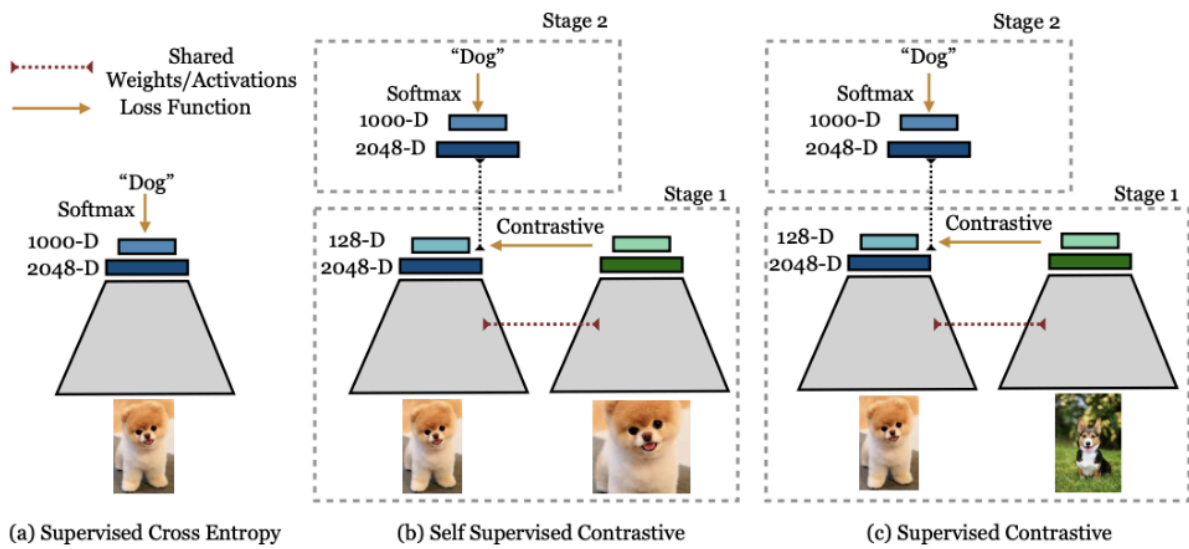


Figure 2.2: Cross entropy, self-supervised contrastive loss and supervised contrastive loss: The cross-entropy loss (left) uses labels and a SoftMax loss to train a classifier; the self-supervised contrastive loss (middle) uses a contrastive loss and data augmentations to learn representations. The supervised contrastive loss (right) also learns representations using a contrastive loss, but uses label information to sample positives in addition to augmentations of the same image.

3. Preprocessing & Datasets

One of the important aspects of therapeutic antibody design is to collect antigen specific data that could be processed and filtered for efficient learning representations. As we aim to train a (self-)supervised contrastive classifier using both sequence and structure, the first step is to gather those sequence and structure data for antibodies that are confirmed to neutralize target antigens. In the next subsection, we detail how we are collecting the antibody sequences and structures to create a dataset and how we are inferring synthetic structures for antibodies that only contain sequence data using deep learning-based antibody structure prediction networks.

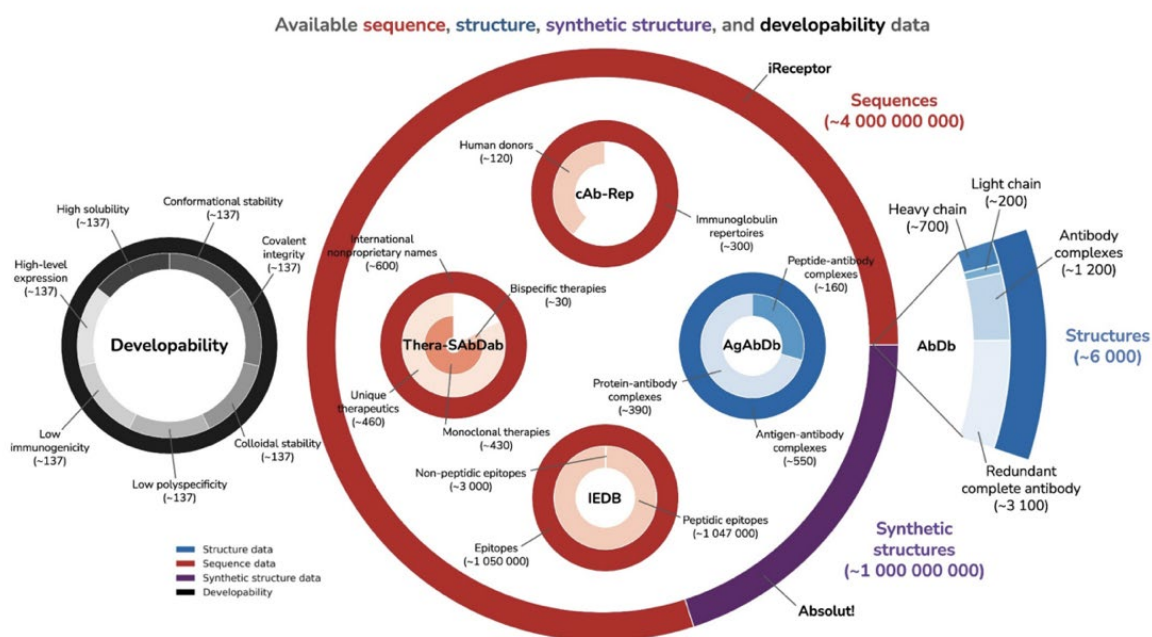
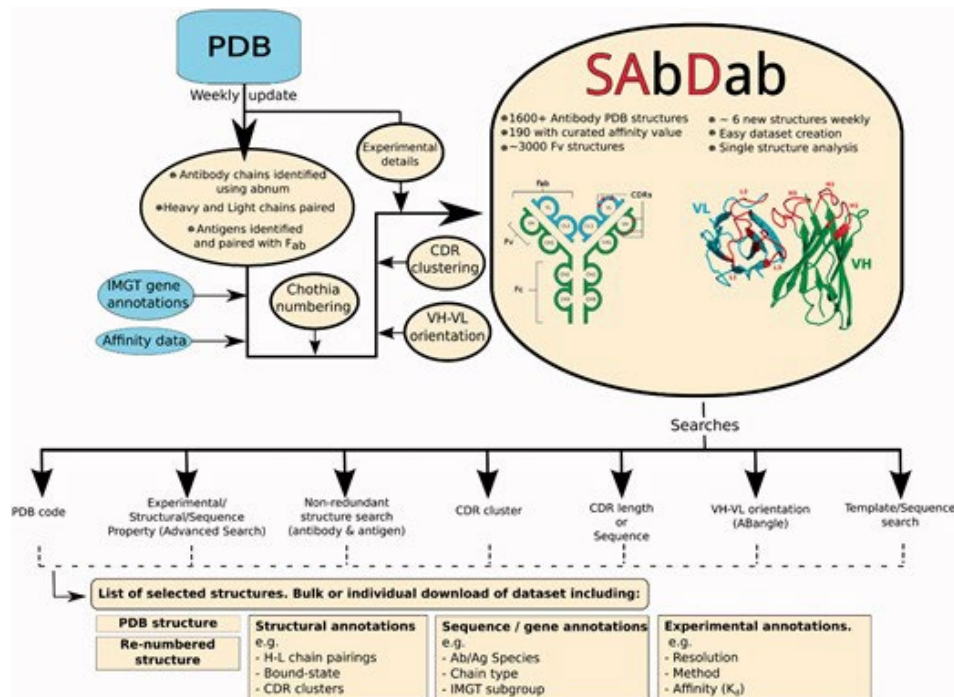


Figure 3.1. Available sequence, (synthetic) structure, and developability data for antibodies [\[link\]](#)

Structural Antibody Database (SAbDab)

Structural antibody database [2] is an online resource containing all the publicly available antibody structures annotated and presented in a consistent fashion. The data are annotated with several properties including experimental information, gene details, correct heavy and light chain pairings, antigen details and, if available, antibody-antigen binding affinity. As in Fig. 3.1, the user can retrieve the full set of structures, specific entries by specifying their Protein Data Bank (PDB) code or to create subsets based on search criteria [1]. Structures can be searched based on the experimental methods used to determine the structure, species of the antibody, antigen type, presence of affinity values in the annotation and presence of amino acid residues at specific sequence positions.



Antibody Depositions in the PDB

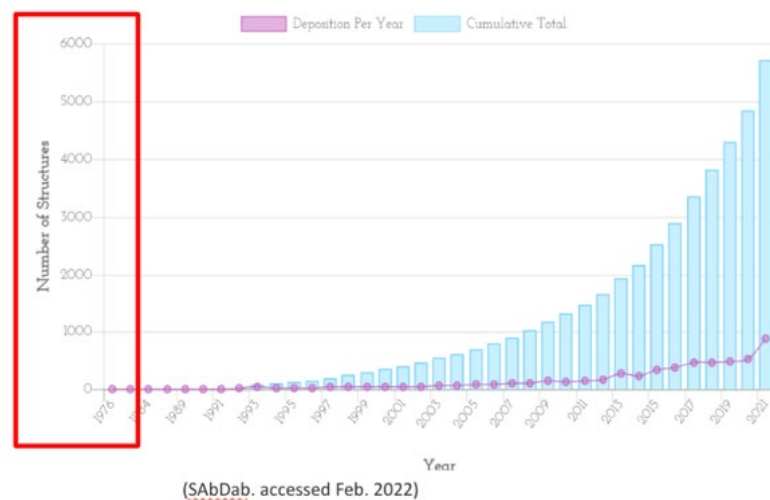


Figure 3.2: SAbDab's workflow. New structures from the PDB are weekly analyzed to find antibody chains. These structures are then annotated with a number of properties and stored in SAbDab. Users may access and select this data using a number of different criteria. [James Dunbar et al, 2013]

Observed Antibody Space (OAS)

The Observed Antibody Space (OAS) database was created in 2018 to offer clean, annotated, and translated repertoire data. Driven by increasing volume of data and the appearance of paired (VH/VL) sequence data during last 4 years, OAS became accessible via a web-server [1], with standardized search parameters and sequence-based search option, to provide 1.5 billion unpaired sequences from 80 studies, including recent studies featuring SARS-CoV-2

(a)

➤ About

- The files here are search for sets of sequenced sequences within GMS.
- The search fields are not exhaustive as if you pick a combination of fields that does not exist in our database it will yield no results.
- All of the sequenced sequences contained within the GMS database may be downloaded by searching without using any attributes.
- Alternatively, you can query GMS using an example sequence. If a sequence is provided, up to 1000 sequences with the same 5' and 3' sequence from data submitted by your search parameters will be selected. A single file containing the results will be provided for download.
- For more help, see the [FAQ](#) page.

➤ Search GMS sequences by attribute

➔ Chrom

➔ Settype

➔ Age

➔ Disease

➔ Biosource

➔ Rftype

➔ Length

➔ Species

➔ Version

➔ Subject

Chrom

Settype

Age

Disease

Biosource

Rftype

Length

Species

Version

Subject

(b)

Your search yielded 46284557 unique sequences from 5 studies.

Below you can see an subset of GMS subject to the searchquery provided. Each row corresponds to a single data set - distinct subsets of sequences from GMS uniquely defined by the set of meta parameters. To download each data set, click the 'details' link of the corresponding row. You can use the 'search' field to perform text searches over the contents of the table.

A shell script with the commands to download all the data sets in this subset of GMS can be downloaded

Download entries

| Subject | Set ID | Set Name | Attribute | Original | Sequences | Start | End | Species | Accession | Set Size | Age | Length |
|---------|--------------|----------|-----------|----------|-----------|-------|------|---------|--------------|----------|------|--------|
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0001 | 1 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0002 | 2 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0002 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0003 | 3 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0003 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0004 | 4 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0004 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0005 | 5 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0005 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0006 | 6 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0006 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0007 | 7 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0007 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0008 | 8 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0008 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0009 | 9 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0009 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0010 | 10 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0010 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0011 | 11 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0011 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0012 | 12 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0012 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0013 | 13 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0013 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0014 | 14 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0014 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0015 | 15 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0015 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0016 | 16 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0016 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0017 | 17 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0017 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0018 | 18 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0018 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0019 | 19 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0019 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |
| SRX1001 | SRX1001-0020 | 20 | Human | SRX1001 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 | Human | SRX1001-0020 | 1000 | 1000 | 1000 |

Showing 1 to 20 of 46284557 entries

Antigen-specific repertoire

| | PDB | Fragment | Name | Light | Heavy | Method | Resol | Antigen | Complex | L1 | L2 | L3 | H1 | H2 | H3 | Date |
|------------------------|------|----------|----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------|-------|--------------------|-------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------|----|----|----|----|----|----|-----------|
| Detail | 7C88 | ? | IMMUNE SYSTEM COMPLEX STRUCTURE OF JS003 AND PD - L1 | ? | ? | crystal | 2.00Å | MOLECULE: 17B FAB LIGHT CHAIN; ENGINEERED: YES; | YES | 11 | 7 | 9 | 5 | 16 | 10 | 29-MAY-20 |
| Detail | 7C8V | HC-dimer | PROTEIN BINDING STRUCTURE OF SYBODY SR4 IN COMPLEX WITH THE SARS - COV - 2 S RECEPTOR BINDING DOMAIN (RBD) | ? | ? | crystal | 2.15Å | MOLECULE: C105 FAB HEAVY CHAIN; ENGINEERED: YES; | YES | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 17 | 21 | 03-JUN-20 |
| Detail | 7C8W | HC-dimer | PROTEIN BINDING STRUCTURE OF SYBODY MR17 IN COMPLEX WITH THE SARS - COV - 2 S RECEPTOR - BINDING DOMAIN (RBD) | ? | ? | crystal | 2.77Å | MOLECULE: C105 FAB HEAVY CHAIN; ENGINEERED: YES; | YES | 0 | 0 | 0 | 5 | 17 | 12 | 03-JUN-20 |
| Detail | 7C94 | FAB | IMMUNE SYSTEM CRYSTAL STRUCTURE OF THE ANTI - HUMAN PODOPLANIN ANTIBODY FAB FRAGMENT COMPLEX WITH GLYCOPEPTIDE | ? | ? | crystal | 2.84Å | MOLECULE: GLVRC01 HEAVY CHAIN; ENGINEERED: YES; | YES | 17 | 7 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 04-JUN-20 |
| Detail | 7C95 | FAB | IMMUNE SYSTEM CRYSTAL STRUCTURE OF THE ANTI - HUMAN PODOPLANIN ANTIBODY FAB FRAGMENT | ? | ? | crystal | 2.13Å | ? | | 17 | 7 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 04-JUN-20 |
| Detail | 7CAC | FAB | VIRAL PROTEIN SARS - COV - 2 S TRIMER WITH ONE RBD IN THE OPEN STATE AND COMPLEXED WITH ONE H014 FAB. | ? | ? | ElectronMicroscopy | N/A | MOLECULE: AA98 FAB HEAVY CHAIN; ENGINEERED: YES; | YES | 11 | 7 | 9 | 5 | 17 | 11 | 08-JUN-20 |
| Detail | 7CAH | FAB | VIRAL PROTEIN THE INTERFACE OF H014 FAB BINDS TO SARS - COV - 2 S | ? | ? | ElectronMicroscopy | N/A | MOLECULE: C105 FAB LIGHT CHAIN; ENGINEERED: YES | | 11 | 7 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 08-JUN-20 |
| Detail | 7CAI | FAB | VIRAL PROTEIN SARS - COV - 2 S TRIMER WITH TWO RBDs IN THE OPEN STATE AND COMPLEXED WITH TWO H014 FAB | ? | ? | ElectronMicroscopy | N/A | MOLECULE: SPIKE GLYCOPROTEIN; SYNONYM: S GLYCOPROTEIN,E2,PEPLOMER PROTEIN; ENGINEERED: YES; | YES | 11 | 7 | 9 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 08-JUN-20 |

Figure 3.4: Summary of Antibody Crystal Structures extracted from Protein Data Bank (PDB) which are based on Observed Antibody Space (OAS) sequences

Since many sequence features of public antibody responses to different foreign viruses can be observed in Observed Antibody Space (OAS) [1] and Structural Antibody Database (SAbDab) [2], we postulate that the dataset is sufficiently large for gathering available antigen-specific antibodies for training the model. The preprocessing stage includes 172,723 filtered paired sequences with appropriate target diseases and organisms, along with 6,118 antibody structures available in the SAbDab. Since it is important to identify different antigens for distinguishing antibodies during the model training, we aim to retrieve 6,273 unique SARS-CoV-2 antibodies from OAS [1], 5,547 unique Human Immunodeficiency Virus (HIV) antibodies, and 2,204 unique influenza hemagglutinin (HA) antibodies from GenBank [22], with complete information for all six CDR sequences and germline expressions. Among different antigens, those were mainly chosen because of large number of published sequences and expressible antibodies binding to them.

Figure 3.5: A dataset consisting of 6,273 SARS-CoV-2 targeting antibodies with full sequence & germline expressions

We seek to train the model on as many immunoglobulin structures as possible. From the Structural Antibody Database (SAbDab) [2], we obtain 6,285 structures consisting of paired antibodies and single-chain nanobodies. Given the remarkable success of AlphaFold for modeling both protein monomers and complexes [21], we additionally explore the use of data augmentation to produce structures for training.

sequences. We predict structures for both sets of sequences using the original AlphaFold model [21].

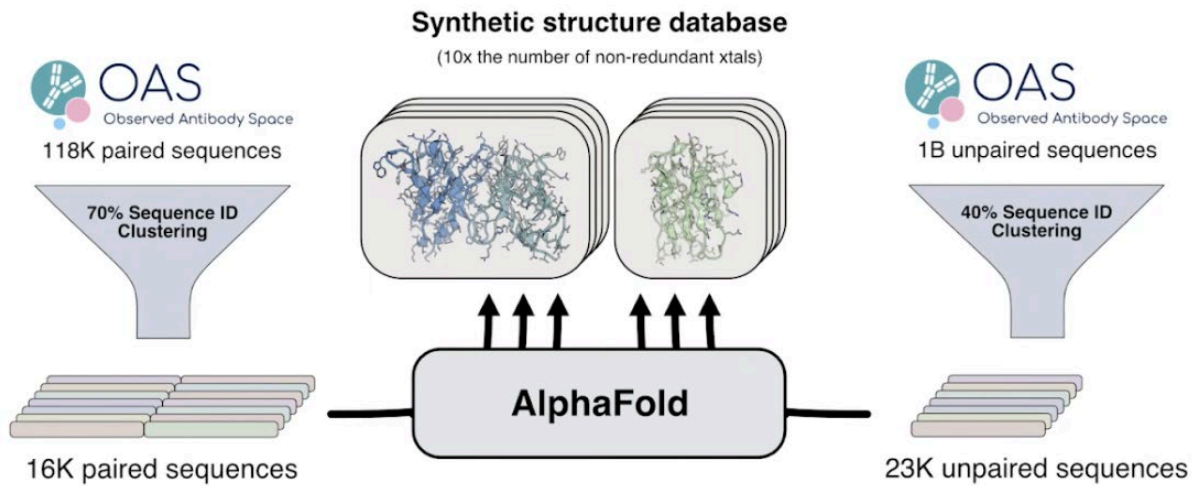


Figure 3.6: AlphaFold is used to create a synthetic structure dataset from natural antibody sequences

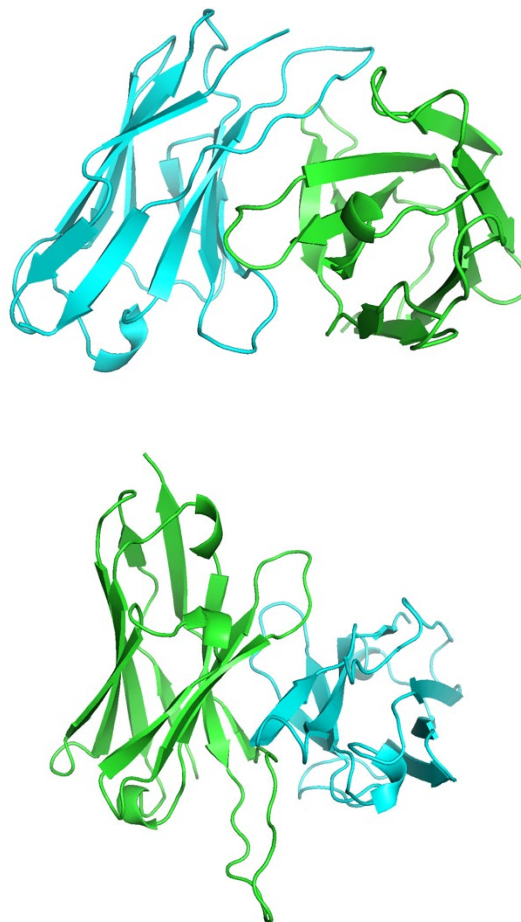


Figure 3.7: AlphaFold-predicted antibody structures for SARS-CoV-2 Omicron (upper) & HIV (bottom)

4. Approach & Methods

After cleaning up redundant sequences, clustering down to more manageable population of immunoglobulins, and gathering synthetic crystal structures from antibody prediction networks [7, 8, 21], we explore a structure-based pretraining model for antibodies which efficiently incorporates both amino acid representations and structural information. Furthermore, we are going to utilize a contrastive learning framework with augmentation functions to discover substructures in different antibodies, serving as a crucial step for allowing self-supervised learning on antibody structures.

Geometry-Aware Relational Graph Neural Network

Considering antibody structures, the following model aims to learn encoded characteristics of spatial and chemical information. These representations must be invariant under 3D space of translations and rotations. To achieve this major requirement, we will first construct our antibody graph based on spatial features invariant under these transformations.

Antibody graph construction

We represent the structure of an antibody as a residue-level relational graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{R})$, in which \mathcal{V} and \mathcal{E} denote the set of nodes and edges respectively, and \mathcal{R} is the set of edge types. We use (i, j, r) to denote the edge from node i to node j with type r , and n, m denote the number of nodes and edges, respectively. In this project, every node of the antibody graph will indicate the residue’s alpha carbon with the 3D coordinates of all nodes $x \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times 3}$. We are going to utilize \mathbf{f}_i and $\mathbf{f}_{(i,j,r)}$ to represent the feature for node i and edge (i, j, r) , respectively.

Subsequently, 3 different types of directed edges will be added to these graphs: sequential, radius, and K-nearest neighbor edges. Among them, sequential edges will be further considered into 5 edge kinds dependent on the relative sequential distance $d \in \{-2, -1, 0, 1, 2\}$ between two end nodes, in which we will connect sequential edges only between the nodes within the sequential distance $d = 2$. Those edge types will reflect distinctive geometric characteristics, where all combined result in a comprehensive featurization of antibodies.

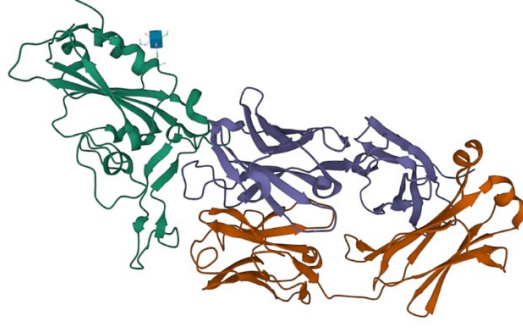


Figure 4.1: 7BWJ – crystal structure of SARS-COV-2 antibody from Protein Data Bank

Relational graph convolutional layer

Based on the protein graph construction from the previous section, we will use a Graph Neural Network (GNN) to obtain per-residue and whole-protein representations. One baseline example of GNNs is the Graph Convolution Networks (GCN) [23], where messages are computed by multiplying node features with a convolutional kernel matrix shared among all edges. In order to increase the model capacity in protein modeling, Intrinsic-Extrinsic Convolution (IEConv) [24] introduced a learnable kernel function on edge features. With this approach, m different kernel matrices would be applied on different edges, which results in a good performance but induces high memory costs.

To balance model capacity and memory cost, we will utilize a relational graph convolutional neural network [25] to learn graph representations, in which a convolutional kernel matrix is shared within each edge type and there are $|\mathcal{R}|$ different kernel matrices overall. Mathematically, the relational graph convolutional layer used in this work will be defined as

$$\mathbf{h}_i^{(0)} = \mathbf{f}_i, u_i^{(l)} = \sigma \left(\text{BN} \left(\sum_{r \in \mathcal{R}} W_r \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_r(i)} h_j^{(l-1)} \right) \right), \mathbf{h}_i^{(l)} = h_i^{(l-1)} + u_i^{(l)}$$

More specifically, we will use node features \mathbf{f}_i as initial representations. Then, taking into account the node representation of $\mathbf{h}_i^{(l)}$ for node i at the l -th layer, we will compute updated node representation $u_i^{(l)}$ by aggregating neighboring nodes' features from $\mathcal{N}_r(i)$, in which

$\mathcal{N}_r(i) = \{j \in \mathcal{V} \mid (j, i, r) \in \mathcal{E}\}$ indicates the neighborhood of node i with the edge type r , and \mathbf{W}_r represents the learnable convolutional kernel matrix for edge type r . For this relational graph construction, BN stands for a batch normalization layer and we will use a ReLU function as the activation $\sigma(\cdot)$. At the end, we will update $h_i^{(l)}$ with $u_i^{(l)}$ and add a residual connection from the last layer.

Edge Message Passing Layer

Reviewing the literature of molecular representation learning, we can observe the major importance of geometric encoders to explicitly modeling interactions between edges. For instance, Directional Message Passing Neural Network (DimeNet) [26] considers a 2D-spherical Fourier-Bessel basis function to indicate angles between 2 edges and pass messages between edges. AlphaFold2 [27] leverages the triangle attention designed for transformers to model pair representations. Encouraged from this literature, in this project, we will use a variant of Geometry-Aware Relational Graph Neural Network which is enhanced with an edge message passing layer. The edge message passing layer can be considered as a sparse version of the pair representation update designated for GNNs (Graph Neural Networks). The main goal is to model the dependency between different interactions of a residue with other sequentially/spatially adjacent residues.

Mathematically, we will first build a relational graph $\mathcal{G}' = (\mathcal{V}', \mathcal{E}', \mathcal{R}')$ among edges, mostly inspired from the old literature [28]. Every node in the graph \mathcal{G}' corresponds to the edge of the original graph \mathcal{G} . \mathcal{G}' links edge (i, j, r_1) in the original graph to edge (w, k, r_2) if and only if $j = w$ and $i \neq k$. The specific kind of this edge is obtained by the angle between (i, j, r_1) and (w, k, r_2) . To make computations easier, we are going to divide the range $[0, \pi]$ into eight bins and utilize the bin's index as the edge type.

Then, we will apply a similar relational graph convolutional network on the graph \mathcal{G}' to determine the message function for every edge. Specifically, the edge message passing layer for this model will be defined as follows:

$$\mathbf{m}_{(i,j,r_1)}^{(0)} = \mathbf{f}_{(i,j,r_1)}, \mathbf{m}_{(i,j,r_1)}^{(l)} = \sigma \left(\text{BN} \left(\sum_{r \in \mathcal{R}'} \mathbf{W}'_r \sum_{(w,k,r_2) \in \mathcal{N}'_r((i,j,r_1))} \mathbf{m}_{(w,k,r_2)}^{(l-1)} \right) \right)$$

In this case, we denote $m_{(i,j,r_1)}^{(l)}$ to be the message function for edge (i,j,r_1) in the l -th layer. Similar to the previous graph convolution equation, the message function for edge (i,j,r_1) will be updated by combining neighbor features $\mathcal{N}_r'((i,j,r_1))$, in which $\mathcal{N}_r'((i,j,r_1)) = \{(w,k,r_2) \in \mathcal{V}' \mid ((w,k,r_2), (i,j,r_1), r) \in \mathcal{E}'\}$ indicates the set of incoming edges of (i,j,r_1) with relation type r in the graph \mathcal{G}' .

At the end, we will replace the aggregation function from graph convolution equation in the original graph with the following (referenced to previous chapter):

$$u_i^{(l)} = \sigma \left(\text{BN} \left(\sum_{r \in \mathcal{R}} W_r \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_r'(i)} \left(h_j^{(l-1)} + \text{FC} \left(\mathbf{m}_{(j,i,r)}^{(l)} \right) \right) \right) \right)$$

where $\text{FC}(\cdot)$ indicates a linear transformation upon the message function.

5. Main results

In this section, we will first explore how to boost antibody representation learning via self-supervised pretraining on a huge number of unlabeled antibody structures, and then present the antigen-specificity results from those representations.

Self-supervised pretraining methods

Even though self-supervised pretraining has proven to be effective in multiple fields, application of those methods to antibody representation learning is not easy because of the difficulty of incorporating both biochemical and spatial characteristics in antibody structures. In order to approach this challenge, we use a multi-view contrastive learning method with augmentation functions to discover correlated co-occurrence of antibody sub-structures and align their representations in the latent space.

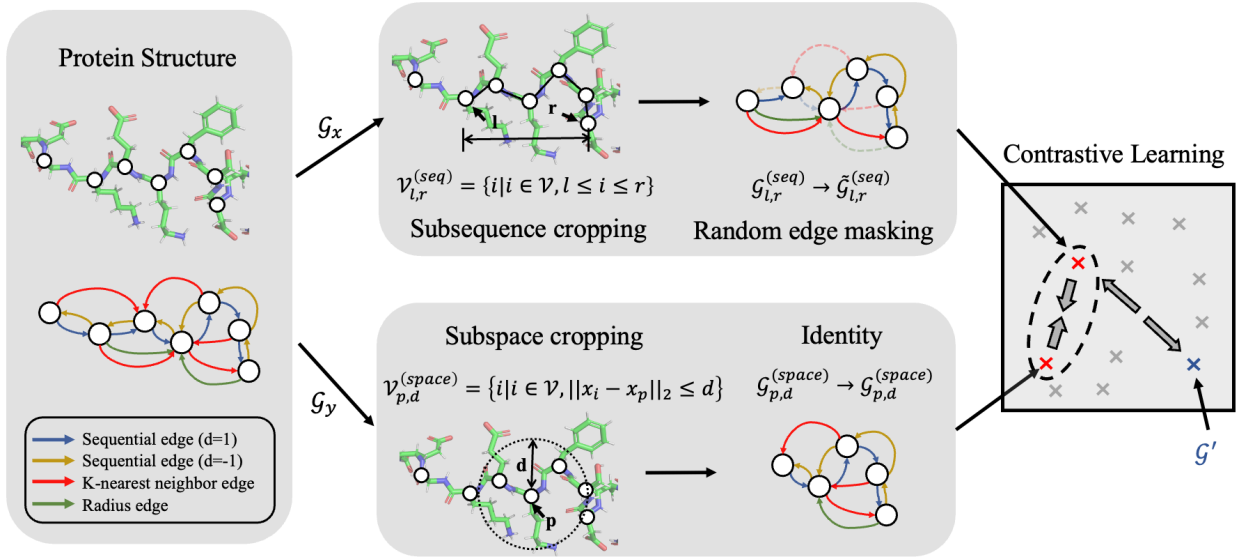


Figure 5.1: Multiview Contrastive Learning: For each antibody, we first construct the residue graph G based on the structural information. Then, two sub-views G_x and G_y of the antibody are generated by randomly choosing the sampling scheme and noise function. For G_x , we extract a subsequence and then perform random edge masking where dash lines represent masked edges. For G_y , we apply a subspace cropping and then keep the subspace graph $G_{p,d}^{(space)}$ intact. At the end, a contrastive learning loss is optimized to maximize the similarity between G_x and G_y in the latent space while minimizing its similarity with a negative sample G'

Multiview contrastive learning

Inspired by recent contrastive learning methods [29, 30] and the evolutionary history of antibody substructures within the same folded motif [31], we will explore a framework that aims to preserve the similarity between those correlated substructures before and after mapping to a low-dimensional latent space. Particularly, considering a similarity measurement that is applied in the latent space, biologically-correlated antibody substructures will be embedded close to each other, whereas the unrelated ones will be mapped far apart from each other. Figure 5.1 represents the high-level idea of this approach.

Construction of antibody substructures

Considering an antibody graph \mathcal{G} , we will apply 2 distinctive sampling schemes for reflecting substructure views. The first one is subsequence cropping, which randomly samples a left residue l and a right residue r and aggregates all amino acid residues from l to r . This sampling scheme aims to capture antibody domains, consecutive subsequences that reappear in different antibodies along with their functionalities [32]. But, just sampling antibody subsequences will not fully capture the 3D structural representation from antibody data. Thus, we further apply a subspace cropping scheme that explores spatially structurally correlated motifs in antibodies. We will randomly sample an amino acid residue p as the center and consider all residues within a Euclidean ball with a predefined radius d . For the two-sampling schematic, we will take the corresponding subgraphs from the antibody residue graph $\mathcal{G} = (\mathcal{V}, \mathcal{E}, \mathcal{R})$. Particularly, the subsequence graph $\mathcal{G}_{l,r}^{(\text{seq})}$ and the subspace graph $\mathcal{G}_{p,d}^{(\text{space})}$ are defined as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{V}_{l,r}^{(\text{seq})} &= \{i \mid i \in \mathcal{V}, l \leq i \leq r\}, \mathcal{E}_{l,r}^{(\text{seq})} = \{(i, j, r) \mid (i, j, r) \in \mathcal{E}, i \in \mathcal{V}_{l,r}^{(\text{seq})}, j \in \mathcal{V}_{l,r}^{(\text{seq})}\}, \\ \mathcal{V}_{p,d}^{(\text{space})} &= \{i \mid i \in \mathcal{V}, \|\mathbf{x}_i - \mathbf{x}_p\|_2 \leq d\}, \mathcal{E}_{p,d}^{(\text{space})} = \{(i, j, r) \mid (i, j, r) \in \mathcal{E}, i \in \mathcal{V}_{p,d}^{(\text{space})}, j \in \mathcal{V}_{p,d}^{(\text{space})}\}, \\ &\text{where } \mathcal{G}_{l,r}^{(\text{seq})} = (\mathcal{V}_{l,r}^{(\text{seq})}, \mathcal{E}_{l,r}^{(\text{seq})}, \mathcal{R}) \text{ and } \mathcal{G}_{p,d}^{(\text{space})} = (\mathcal{V}_{p,d}^{(\text{space})}, \mathcal{E}_{p,d}^{(\text{space})}, \mathcal{R}) \end{aligned}$$

Referencing the usual practice of self-supervised learning [29], once the substructures are sampled, we will apply a noise function to construct more diverse views which in turn, will improve the learned representations. In this project, we are going to use 2 noise functions: “Identity” which applies no transformation at all, and “Random edge masking” which randomly masks every edge with a probability $p = 0.20$

Contrastive learning

We use a Simple Framework for Contrastive Learning of Visual Representations (SimCLR) [29] to optimize a contrastive loss function and in turn, maximize the mutual information between biologically correlated views. Specifically, we sample views \mathcal{G}_x and \mathcal{G}_y for every antibody \mathcal{G} , first by randomly choosing one sampling scheme for extracting substructures and then, randomly selecting one of the two noise functions (i.e. “Identity” or “Random edge masking”) with equal probability. The graph representations \mathbf{h}_x and \mathbf{h}_y of two views will be obtained by applying the structure-based encoder we described in “Approach & Methods”. Then, 2-layer MLP (Multi-Layer Perceptron) projection head is used to map the representations to a lower-dimensional space, indicated as \mathbf{z}_x and \mathbf{z}_y . At the end, an InfoNCE (Noise-Contrastive Estimation) loss function is defined by differentiating views from the same or different antibodies using their similarities [33]. Specifically, for a positive pair x and y , we treat views from other antibodies in the same mini-batch as negative pairs. Mathematically, the loss function for a positive pair of views x and y will be written as:

$$\mathcal{L}_{x,y} = -\log \frac{\exp(\text{sim}(\mathbf{z}_x, \mathbf{z}_y)/\tau)}{\sum_{k=1}^{2B} \mathbb{1}_{[k \neq x]} \exp(\text{sim}(\mathbf{z}_y, \mathbf{z}_k)/\tau)}$$

Here, B denotes the batch size, τ indicates the temperature, $\mathbb{1}_{[k \neq x]} \in \{0,1\}$ is an indicator function that is equal to 1 if and only if $k \neq x$. The similarity function $\text{sim}(\mathbf{u}, \mathbf{v})$ is obtained by the cosine similarity between \mathbf{u} and \mathbf{v} .

Evaluation metrics

Now, we are going to discuss the evaluation metrics for antigen-specificity prediction. As a revision, our goal is to answer the following question: whether an antibody binds to SARS-CoV-2, HIV, or Hemagglutinin Influenza (HA), which can be regarded as a multi-class binary classification task.

The 1st metric, antibody-centric maximum F-score F_{\max} , is obtained by first computing the precision and recall for each antibody and then taking the average score over all antibodies. Mathematically, for a given target antibody i and a decision threshold $t \in [0,1]$, the precision and recall will be evaluated as follows:

$$\text{precision}_i(t) = \frac{\sum_f \mathbb{1}[f \in P_i(t) \cap T_i]}{\sum_f \mathbb{1}[f \in P_i(t)]},$$

and

$$\text{recall}_i(t) = \frac{\sum_f \mathbb{1}[f \in P_i(t) \cap T_i]}{\sum_f \mathbb{1}[f \in T_i]},$$

in which f is a function for the antigen-specificity, T_i is a set of experimentally determined antigen terms for antibody i , $P_i(t)$ denotes the set of predicted terms for antibody i with scores $\geq t$ and $\mathbb{1}[\cdot] \in \{0,1\}$ is an indicator function which is equal to 1 iff the condition is true.

Subsequently, the average precision and recall over all antibodies at threshold t will be as:

$$\text{precision}(t) = \frac{1}{M(t)} \sum_i \text{precision}_i(t)$$

and

$$\text{recall}(t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \text{recall}_i(t),$$

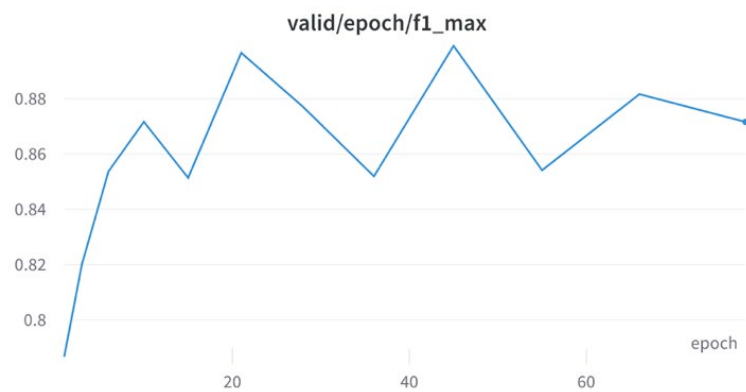
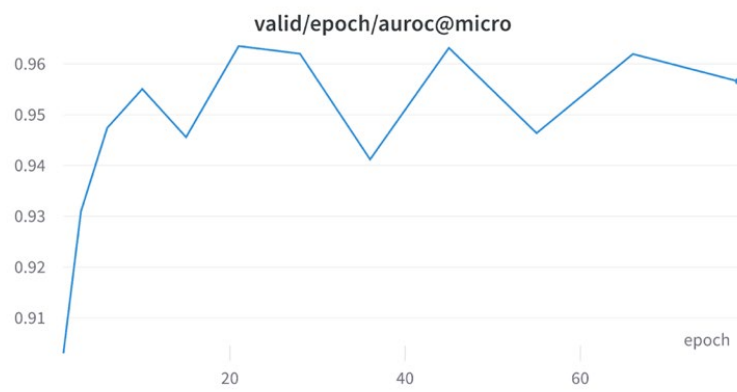
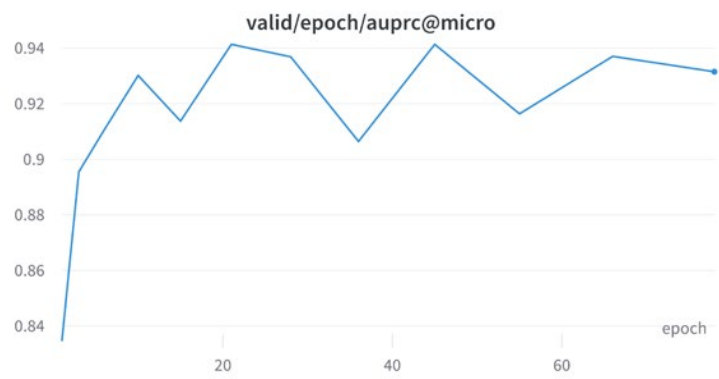
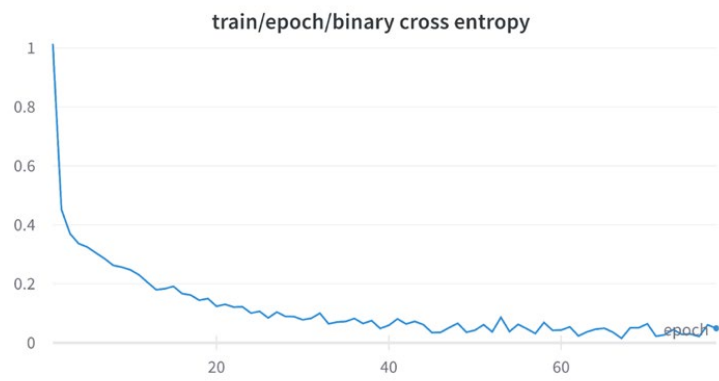
in which N indicates the number of antibodies and $M(t)$ represents the number of antibodies on which at least 1 prediction was made above threshold t ; in other words, $|P_i(t)| > 0$.

Aggregating those 2 evaluation measurements, the maximum F-score will be denoted as the maximum value of F-measure over all thresholds. In other words,

$$F_{\max} = \max_t \left\{ \frac{2 * \text{precision}(t) * \text{recall}(t)}{\text{precision}(t) + \text{recall}(t)} \right\}$$

The 2nd metric, pair-centric Area Under Precision-Recall Curve $\text{AUPRC}_{\text{pair}}$, is obtained as the average precision scores for all antibody-antigen pairs, which is actually the micro average precision score for multiple binary classification.

Experimental results




```
auroc@micro: 0.955297
auprc@micro: 0.92718
f1_max: 0.87721
```

Geometry-Aware Relational Graph Neural Network

```
auroc@micro: 0.962669
auprc@micro: 0.93664
f1_max: 0.883634
```

Geometry-Aware Relational Graph Neural Network + Edge Message Passing Layer

As seen from the above results, both of the explored methods indicate considerably good results for F_{\max} measurement, in which binary cross entropy loss for training shows the desired decreasing curve throughout the 80 epochs. Moreover, Area Under Precision-Recall Curve (AUPRC), and Area Under Receiver Operating Characteristic (AUROC) reveal the fluctuating curves for the validation dataset, along with accurate evaluation metrics during their final epochs.

Ablation studies

To analyze the contribution of different subcomponents in the explored methods, we will perform ablation studies on the antigen-specificity task. The results are shown in Table 5.1.

| Method | F_{\max} |
|-------------------------------------|--------------|
| Multiview contrastive learning | 0.884 |
| - subsequence + identity | 0.851 |
| - subspace+ identity | 0.862 |
| - subsequence + random edge masking | 0.858 |
| - subspace + random edge masking | 0.870 |

Table 5.1: Ablation studies on antibody-antigen datasets

6. Discussion

Different augmentations in Multiview contrast

We explore the contribution of every augmentation approach introduced in the Multiview Contrast method (previous page). Instead of randomly sampling cropping and noise functions, we will pretrain our model with 4 deterministic combinations of augmentations, correspondingly. As indicated in Table 5.1, all the four combinations yield good results, which suggests arbitrary combinations of the introduced cropping and noise schemes can yield informative partial views of antibodies. Moreover, we can also see that the results of Subspace Cropping are usually better than those of Subsequence Cropping with different noise functions, concluding that it is an efficient method to utilize 3D information to extract meaningful antibody substructures.

Protein latent space visualization

In order to evaluate the quality of the antibody embeddings learned by the pretraining method, we will visualize the latent space of the model pretrained by Multiview Contrast. Particularly, we will utilize the pretrained model to extract the embeddings of all the proteins from AlphaFold database, and these embeddings will be mapped to the 2-dimensional space by UMAP [34] for visualization. Referring to [35], we will highlight the 20 most common superfamilies within the database by distinct colors. The visualization results are indicated in Fig. 6.1. We can vividly observe that the pretrained model groups the same superfamily proteins together and divide the ones from different superfamilies apart. In fact, it succeeds in clearly separating three superfamilies, which are represented as Protein kinase superfamily, Cytochrome P450 family, and TRAFAC class myosin-kinesin ATPase superfamily.

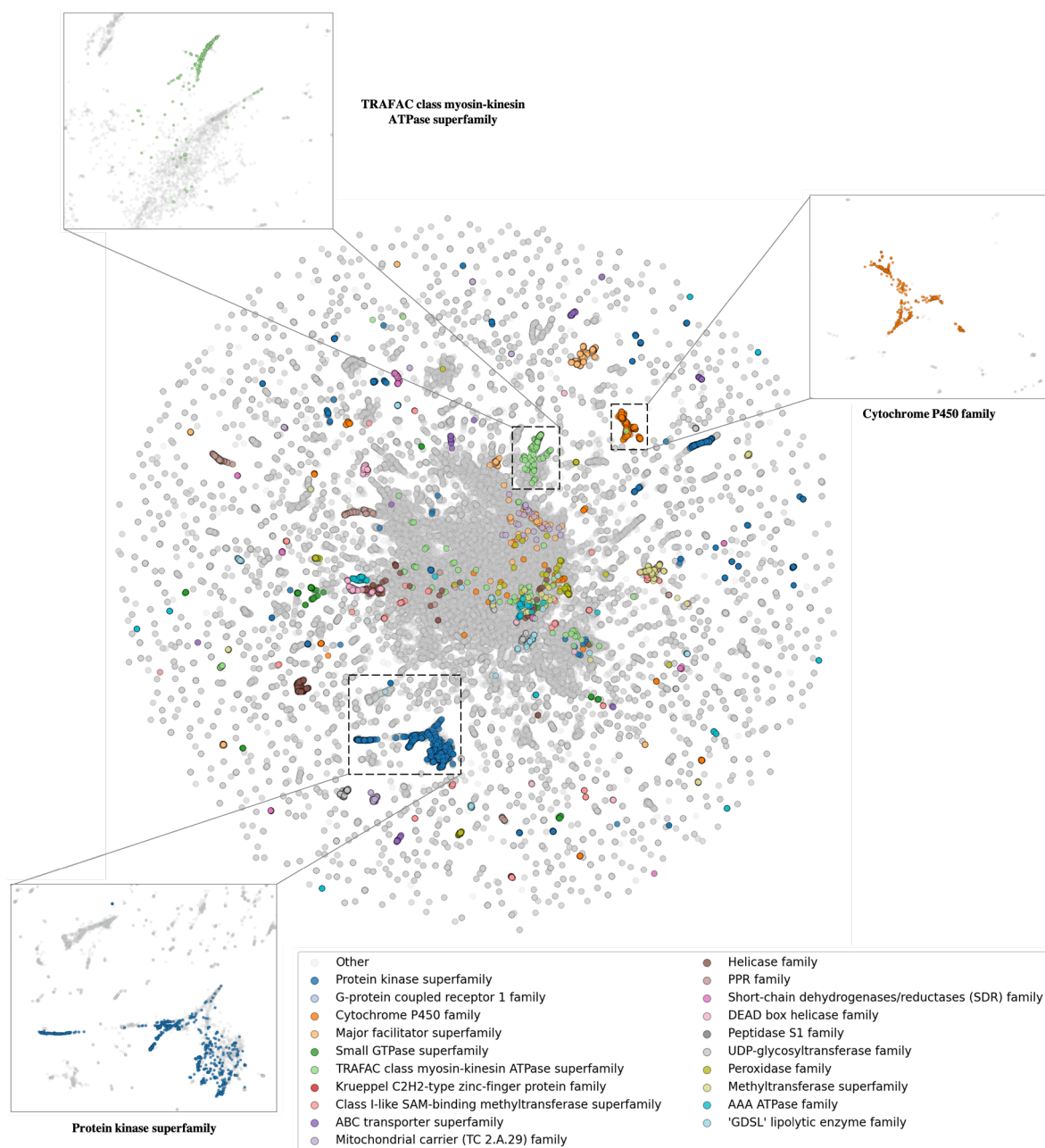


Figure 6.1: Latent space visualization of Multiview contrastive learning on the protein database

7. Future Research Plan & Proposal

Once we identify the epitope-paratope level interactions, binding sites, and neutralization activities available from antibody datasets, we can start experimenting with the benchmark architectures for contrastive representations based upon SimCSE [10] and SimCLR [11], along with appropriate graph-level embeddings for pathogenic antigens. Further data augmentation techniques for amino acid level representations may also be applied to improve the benchmark results of previous methods and efficiently create the massive antibody repertoire targeting new pathogens.

In recap, our summary for future work and ablation studies in this project can be summarized as follows:

- Obtain 3D surface/mesh-level representations of antibody structures using Geometric Deep Learning, including in silico synthetic datasets
- Propose a novel data augmentation mechanism for antibody data to produce additional synthetic structures for learning better representations using SimCSE and SimCLR algorithms.

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