
Token-Wise Residual Latent Adapters: Steering Seq2Seq Models for Protein Fitness Extrapolation

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Abstract

Protein design requires extrapolating beyond training data to achieve higher fitness. State-of-the-art methods typically fine-tune billion-parameter language models end-to-end, often combined with external scorers, data distillation, and multiple rounds of iterative refinement. We introduce a residual latent adapter, a 5M parameter MLP inserted between the encoder and decoder of a frozen ProtT5-3B model, which learns a token-wise residual transformation on encoder embeddings via a simple MSE objective. In a single forward pass with no external scorer, RLA achieves strong extrapolation rates and top-100 candidate fitness relative to methods requiring $600\times$ more trainable parameters and multi-stage pipelines, with the largest gains on the harder extrapolation benchmarks. All fitness values are evaluator-predicted following the benchmark protocol of Karimi et al. (2025). Our results demonstrate that a compact residual transformation in latent space provides a simple, data-efficient, and compute-efficient approach to in-silico protein fitness extrapolation.

1. Introduction

Improving protein designs with generative models fundamentally requires extrapolation: models must propose sequences with functional properties beyond those observed during training (Madani et al., 2020). In practice, protein language models are pretrained on large general sequence databases and subsequently adapted to specific protein families using relatively small labeled datasets (Suzek et al., 2007; Rives et al., 2021). State-of-the-art methods such as direct preference optimization (DPO) with data distillation achieve strong extrapolation, but require training all param-

eters of the base model, often combined with external scorers and multiple rounds of iterative refinement (Rafailov et al., 2023; Karimi et al., 2025; 2024). Parameter-efficient alternatives such as LoRA reduce trainable parameters but typically underperform full fine-tuning in extrapolation quality (Hu et al., 2022).

We propose a different approach: freezing the encoder-decoder language model (Raffel et al., 2020) entirely and training a residual latent adapter that operates on encoder embeddings to learn a token-wise transformation toward higher-fitness representations. The key insight is that the preference between a lower- and higher-fitness sequence can be captured as a residual update in embedding space, without modifying the encoder-decoder mapping itself. Existing latent-space methods typically aggregate token embeddings into a pooled sequence-level representation before applying updates (Lee et al., 2024); LatProtRL (Lee et al., 2024) notably learns an RL policy over latent representations rather than a feed-forward adapter. In contrast, our method operates directly on per-token representations using a supervised MSE objective on paired embeddings, preserving positional alignment. Our approach is also related to activation addition and contrastive steering vectors (Turner et al., 2023; Rimsky et al., 2023), which steer model outputs via fixed residual updates to intermediate representations; RLA generalizes this to a learned, position-conditioned nonlinear residual from paired preference data.

We validate this approach on GFP and AAV benchmarks (Figure 1), demonstrating that our 5M parameter adapter, trained with a simple MSE objective, achieves strong extrapolation performance relative to methods requiring $600\times$ more trainable parameters and multi-stage pipelines. Our contributions are:

- We introduce a residual latent adapter between the encoder and decoder of a frozen T5 model for protein sequence extrapolation.
- We show that this simple approach matches or exceeds state-of-the-art methods, including those using external scorers and data distillation, particularly on harder extrapolation benchmarks.

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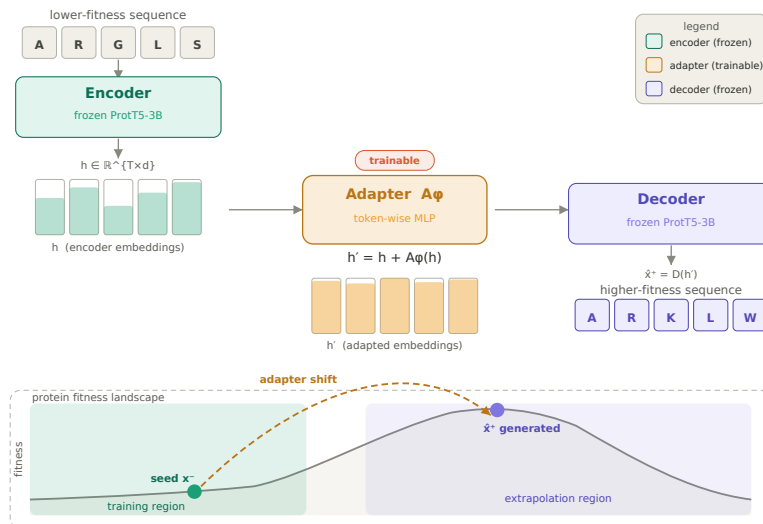


Figure 1. Overview of RLA approach for protein fitness extrapolation.

- We demonstrate data efficiency, with extrapolation performance saturating at 10–20% of available training pairs.

2. Method

We freeze a pretrained ProtT5-3B encoder–decoder and insert a trainable residual latent adapter between them, which applies a token-wise function (approximated by a multilayer perceptron) to encoder embeddings via a residual update before decoding. Given paired lower- and higher-fitness sequences, the adapter is trained with a mean squared error (MSE) loss to regress encoder embeddings of worse sequences toward those of better sequences.

Formally, our generative protein design model uses a frozen ProtT5-3B encoder-decoder backbone. Let $E(\cdot)$ and $D(\cdot)$ denote the encoder and decoder, respectively. Given an input (lower-fitness) sequence x^- , the encoder produces token-wise latent representations:

$$h = E(x^-) \in \mathbb{R}^{T \times d}$$

where T is the sequence length and d is the embedding dimension, with $h_t \in \mathbb{R}^d$ denoting the embedding at position t .

We introduce a trainable residual latent adapter A_ϕ , parameterized as a residual MLP, which is applied independently at each sequence position:

$$h'_t = h_t + A_\phi(h_t), \quad t = 1, \dots, T$$

Equivalently, assume A_ϕ is applied row-wise, in matrix form we have:

$$h' = h + A_\phi(h)$$

The adapted token embeddings h' are then passed to the frozen decoder to generate an improved sequence:

$$\hat{x}^+ = D(h')$$

Only the adapter parameters ϕ (approximately 5M parameters) are optimized; both the encoder and decoder remain frozen. Training is performed on paired sequences (x^-, x^+) , where x^+ has higher measured fitness than x^- . Note that x^- and x^+ must have equal length since the MSE loss is computed position-wise; the current formulation therefore handles substitution mutations only and does not support insertions or deletions. Let

$$h^+ = E(x^+)$$

denote the encoder embeddings of the higher-fitness target sequence. The adapter is trained to regress from h to h^+ using a mean squared error objective applied across all positions:

$$\mathcal{L}(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_{(x^-, x^+) \sim \mathcal{D}_{\text{pair}}} \left[\frac{1}{d \cdot T} \sum_{t=1}^T \|h_t + A_\phi(h_t) - h_t^+\|_2^2 \right]$$

Standard dropout is applied within A_ϕ for regularization. This formulation learns a token-wise residual transformation in latent space, translating lower-fitness embeddings toward higher-fitness regions while preserving the pretrained encoder-decoder manifold.

2.1. Dataset

We use the same AAV and GFP training pair splits as previous work to allow a direct benchmark of our method against

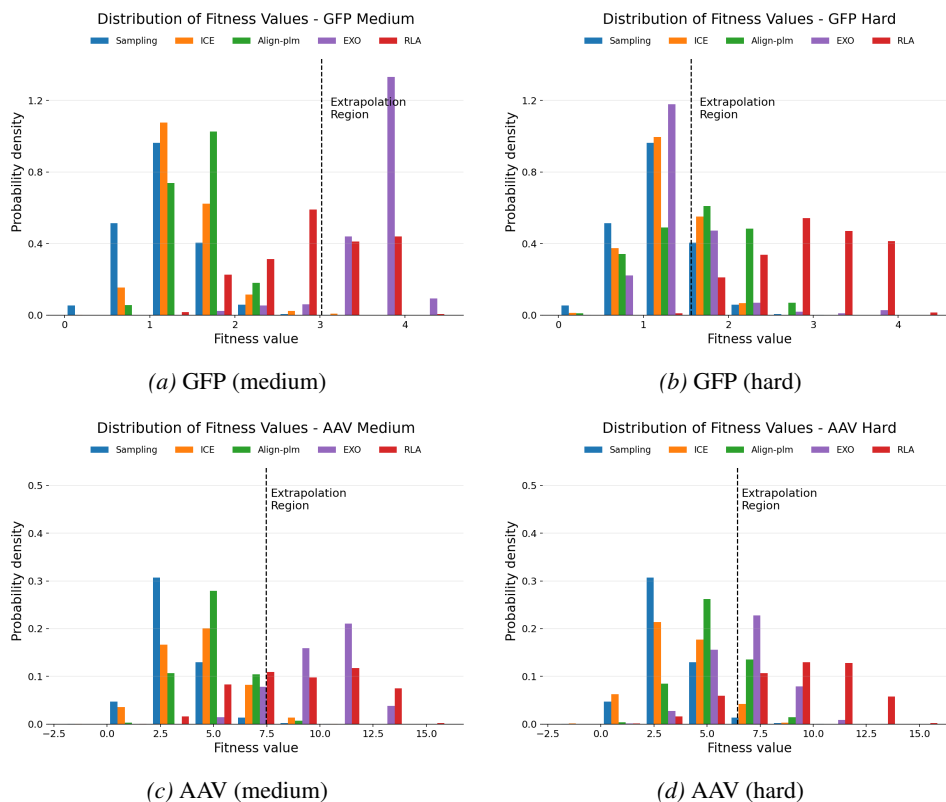


Figure 2. Distribution of predicted fitness values for all scorer-free methods. The dashed line indicates the extrapolation threshold. RLA produces a distribution shifted toward higher fitness values compared to all baselines, particularly on the hard splits.

existing results (Bryant et al., 2021; Sarkisyan et al., 2016; Karimi et al., 2025). Briefly, the dataset comprises AAV and GFP protein sequences with experimentally measured reward values. Each dataset is divided into two subtypes based on the difficulty of extrapolation: a *medium* dataset, in which the highest-performing proteins are 6 mutations away from training sequences, and a *hard* dataset, in which the distance is 7 mutations. The highest-performing sequences are held out during training, and the goal is to generate proteins that extrapolate into this unseen high-fitness region.

2.2. Training and Baselines

We compare RLA approach against several baselines:

- Full end-to-end fine-tuning of the pretrained T5 model
- LoRA adapters applied to encoder and decoder layers
- State-of-the-art Direct Preference Optimization (DPO) with data distillation
- Negative control, where the residual adapter is randomly initialized and not trained

For all experiments, the residual adapter is trained solely on the pairwise “worse \rightarrow better” data using MSE loss, and no

other model parameters are updated. This setup isolates the effect of the residual adapter and allows a fair comparison with prior state-of-the-art methods in low-data extrapolative protein design. We generate 10,000 sequences per run for AAV and 2,000 for GFP using the same generation budget and seed sequences as Karimi et al. (2025), ensuring a direct comparison.

2.3. Evaluation Metrics

To benchmark against prior work, we adopt the same four evaluation metrics used in previous studies:

1. **Extrapolation Percentage:** The percentage of generated sequences that fall within the extrapolation region of the fitness landscape, as assessed by evaluator models. This is our primary metric.
2. **Fitness100:** The average fitness of the top 100 generated sequences, measuring how far the generated sequences are from the training region in the fitness landscape.
3. **Distance100:** The average edit distance between each of the top 100 generated sequences and their closest top 100 ground truth sequences from the extrapolation

region (sequences unseen by any model).

4. **Diversity100:** The median pairwise distance among the top 100 generated sequences. Higher diversity does not necessarily correlate with better performance, as random sequences can achieve maximal diversity, but it provides insight into the exploration–exploitation trade-off.

3. Results

We evaluate RLA against all published baselines from Karimi et al. (2025), including methods that employ external scorers, data distillation, and multiple rounds of iterative refinement. Our method uses none of these: it requires only a single forward pass through a 5M parameter adapter (roughly $600\times$ fewer trainable parameters than the full 3B model), trained with a simple MSE objective on pairwise data.

3.1. Main Results

Table 1 and Figure 2 compare our method against scorer-free baselines. Results are mean \pm std over 5 independent seeds. Among ProfT5-based methods, RLA outperforms EXO on 3 of 4 datasets in top-100 fitness while training $600\times$ fewer parameters. On AAV Hard, we achieve 14.17 ± 0.10 fitness and $78.92 \pm 3.96\%$ extrapolation versus EXO’s 10.95 and 52.75% . On GFP Hard, we reach 3.94 ± 0.01 fitness and $97.94 \pm 0.89\%$ extrapolation versus 2.81 and 24.27% . We achieve the lowest distance to ground truth on 3 of 4 splits. GFP Med is our weakest setting in extrapolation ($37.01 \pm 2.30\%$ versus EXO’s 92.92%); fitness remains competitive (3.93 versus 4.04). We hypothesize the GFP Med extrapolation region is more diffuse in latent space, making a single directed residual shift less effective. All fitness values are evaluator-predicted following Karimi et al. (2025); top- N slices at $N \in \{100, 250, 500\}$ are in Supplementary Table S3.

Karimi et al. (2025) conducted a series of ablations to improve their results, including adding an external scorer for iterative candidate selection, data distillation to retrain on generated sequences, and combining both strategies. Table 2 compares RLA against these enhanced variants, as well as BiGGS and LatprotRL which use different model architectures entirely. Even without any of these enhancements, RLA remains competitive or superior on fitness and distance. On AAV Med, RLA achieves the highest fitness of any method (14.23), surpassing EXO+scorer (13.90) and the full distillation pipeline (13.19). On GFP Hard, RLA fitness (3.94) exceeds all methods including BiGGS (3.83) and LatprotRL (3.88), with the lowest distance to ground truth (1.12).

RLA is designed as a single-pass generator. Repeated application of the learned residual transformation tends to converge due to the limited capacity of the residual network, a trade-off inherent to lightweight models. While this limits the use of iterative design strategies, it does not diminish the quality of the initial generation, which already matches or exceeds methods requiring substantially more complex pipelines.

3.2. Low-Parameter Ablations

We additionally evaluate a parameter-matched linear probe ($\sim 5M$, two linear layers, no activations) as an ablation of the nonlinear MLP. The linear probe achieves nominally high extrapolation (99.7% on AAV Hard, 100% on both GFP splits) but collapses entirely in diversity, generating only 1 unique sequence for GFP and 4–14 for AAV out of the full library (Supplementary Table S2). This confirms that non-linearity is essential: a linear map cannot capture the curved transformation in ProfT5’s high-dimensional embedding space needed to produce diverse high-fitness designs.

To evaluate alternative parameter-efficient approaches, we compare against LoRA-SFT (Table 3). LoRA-SFT is trained on the same worse \rightarrow better pairs using cross-entropy loss (rank=16, $\alpha=32$, dropout=0.05, targets: q/k/v/o_proj, lr=1e-4, 1 epoch, $\sim 12.6M$ parameters). The key distinction from RLA is not whether preference data is used, but *where* adaptation occurs: LoRA modifies weight matrices distributed across the full model (weight-space adaptation), while RLA applies a targeted residual transformation to encoder embeddings before decoding (embedding-space adaptation). LoRA-SFT substantially underperforms RLA across all settings: on AAV Hard, LoRA achieves a top-100 fitness of 8.18 compared to our 14.17 (mean across 5 seeds). This suggests that embedding-space adaptation is more effective than weight-space low-rank updates for this task.

To further verify that the adapter’s improvements are not simply an artifact of perturbing the latent space, we evaluate a noise perturbation baseline. We add Gaussian noise to encoder embeddings ($h += \sigma \cdot \epsilon$, $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I)$). For $\sigma \in [0, 0.1]$, no change in output is observed; for $\sigma > 1$, the decoder produces no viable sequences. At $\sigma = 0.25$, the model generates sequences with poor fitness (e.g., AAV Hard top-100 fitness of 7.95 versus our 14.17), confirming that the adapter’s gains arise from a learned directional transformation rather than arbitrary perturbation.

3.3. Latent Space Visualization

To visualize the effect of the residual adapter, we project encoder embeddings of training data, held-out extrapolation sequences, and generated designs into a shared UMAP space (Figure 4), with kernel density estimates for the training and held-out distributions. We track seed sequences before

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Table 1. Comparison against scorer-free baselines on GFP and AAV benchmarks. Baseline results are reproduced from Karimi et al. (2025) (average of 5 runs). RLA results are mean \pm std over 5 independent seeds; full per-seed results in Supplementary Table S1. All methods use a single generation pass with no external scorer. RLA trains 5M parameters versus 3B for ICE and EXO.

Method	Hard				Medium			
	Ext. \uparrow	Fit. ₁₀₀ \uparrow	Dist. ₁₀₀ \downarrow	Div. ₁₀₀	Ext. \uparrow	Fit. ₁₀₀ \uparrow	Dist. ₁₀₀ \downarrow	Div. ₁₀₀
<i>AAV</i>								
Sampling	1.64	7.42	4.49	7.18	1.64	7.42	4.49	7.18
ICE	5.58	8.18	9.08	13.56	4.59	9.43	7.72	11.49
Align-plm	20.76	9.01	7.60	8.16	3.49	8.66	7.29	6.22
EXO	52.75	10.95	5.30	8.46	85.07	13.18	1.64	1.08
RLA	78.92\pm3.96	14.17\pm0.10	4.01\pm0.12	4.00 \pm 0.00	64.32 \pm 5.22	14.23\pm0.10	3.06 \pm 0.19	4.00 \pm 0.00
<i>GFP</i>								
Sampling	18.52	1.94	10.21	20.10	18.52	1.94	10.21	20.10
ICE	27.16	2.07	10.93	15.76	0.16	2.39	8.47	14.41
Align-plm	54.45	2.55	9.64	4.17	0.00	2.12	6.13	5.41
EXO	24.27	2.81	9.08	14.96	92.92	4.04	2.13	2.57
RLA	97.94\pm0.89	3.94\pm0.01	1.12\pm0.15	2.20 \pm 0.45	37.01 \pm 2.30	3.93 \pm 0.01	1.08\pm0.14	2.20 \pm 0.45

Table 2. Comparison against enhanced baselines from Karimi et al. (2025) that use external scorers, data distillation, or both, as well as BiGGS and LatProtRL (Lee et al., 2024). RLA uses none of these enhancements. Numbers for all baselines are from Karimi et al. (2025). RLA values are means over 5 seeds; see Table 1 for standard deviations.

Method	Hard				Medium			
	Ext. \uparrow	Fit. ₁₀₀ \uparrow	Dist. ₁₀₀ \downarrow	Div. ₁₀₀	Ext. \uparrow	Fit. ₁₀₀ \uparrow	Dist. ₁₀₀ \downarrow	Div. ₁₀₀
<i>AAV</i>								
ICE+scorer	37.01	10.26	6.50	9.90	33.17	10.80	6.52	9.89
BiGGS	16.80	10.85	5.70	6.38	4.88	10.21	8.05	8.34
LatprotRL	64.82	13.29	2.45	4.67	38.63	12.53	2.83	5.21
EXO+scorer	84.04	14.25	1.52	2.53	94.23	13.90	2.00	3.05
EXO (Comb. distill.)	78.19	13.97	1.74	1.70	70.85	13.24	2.85	2.91
EXO (Comb. distill.)+scorer	98.96	14.21	1.51	1.08	84.71	13.19	3.14	3.34
RLA	78.92	14.17	4.01	4.00	64.32	14.23	3.06	4.00
<i>GFP</i>								
ICE+scorer	14.87	1.96	9.52	18.19	0.02	2.53	8.22	15.68
BiGGS	99.53	3.83	3.48	6.01	55.50	3.89	4.13	5.74
LatprotRL	88.28	3.88	1.48	2.86	38.22	3.92	1.56	3.04
EXO+scorer	50.91	3.79	1.73	3.08	58.09	3.96	2.75	4.04
EXO (Comb. distill.)	65.86	3.65	2.42	4.07	28.84	3.82	2.24	3.14
EXO (Comb. distill.)+scorer	71.15	3.75	2.10	3.46	32.41	3.86	2.16	3.19
RLA	97.94	3.94	1.12	2.20	37.01	3.93	1.08	2.20

and after applying the adapter and observe a consistent shift toward regions associated with higher-fitness, held-out sequences. Several seeds exhibit low measured fitness despite lying close in latent space to the extrapolation region prior to adaptation. After applying the learned residual transformation, these seeds are moved directly into high-density, high-fitness regions, suggesting that the adapter learns a structured mapping toward favorable areas of the latent landscape.

3.4. Data Efficiency

We perform data ablation experiments by training on progressively smaller fractions of the pairwise training data (Figure 3). Since training pairs are constructed combinatori-

ally from unique sequences, reducing the number of pairs does not necessarily remove unique sequences from the training set, but rather reduces the number of pairwise orderings the model observes. Despite this, extrapolation performance saturates at approximately 10–20% of the original pairs, already exceeding prior state-of-the-art, suggesting that the adapter learns the residual transformation efficiently from a relatively small number of pairwise comparisons.

4. Conclusion

Our results demonstrate that a 5M parameter residual latent adapter between a frozen ProtT5-3B encoder and decoder can match or exceed the extrapolation performance of methods that train the full 3B-parameter model with complex

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Table 3. Ablation study comparing RLA against LoRA-SFT and an embedding noise perturbation negative control ($\sigma = 0.25$). All methods use the same frozen ProtT5-3B backbone. RLA values are means over 5 seeds; see Table 1 for standard deviations.

Method	Hard				Medium			
	Ext.↑	Fit. ₁₀₀ ↑	Dist. ₁₀₀ ↓	Div. ₁₀₀	Ext.↑	Fit. ₁₀₀ ↑	Dist. ₁₀₀ ↓	Div. ₁₀₀
AAV								
RLA	78.92	14.17	4.01	4.00	64.32	14.23	3.06	4.00
LoRA-SFT	11.01	8.18	9.13	12.67	15.58	9.83	7.31	7.72
Noise ($\sigma=0.25$)	2.53	7.95	4.42	7.15	0.70	7.88	4.79	6.52
GFP								
RLA	97.94	3.94	1.12	2.20	37.01	3.93	1.08	2.20
LoRA-SFT	28.20	2.13	10.87	7.16	0.25	2.37	7.83	11.90
Noise ($\sigma=0.25$)	72.20	2.77	4.98	9.64	0.45	2.84	4.75	8.94

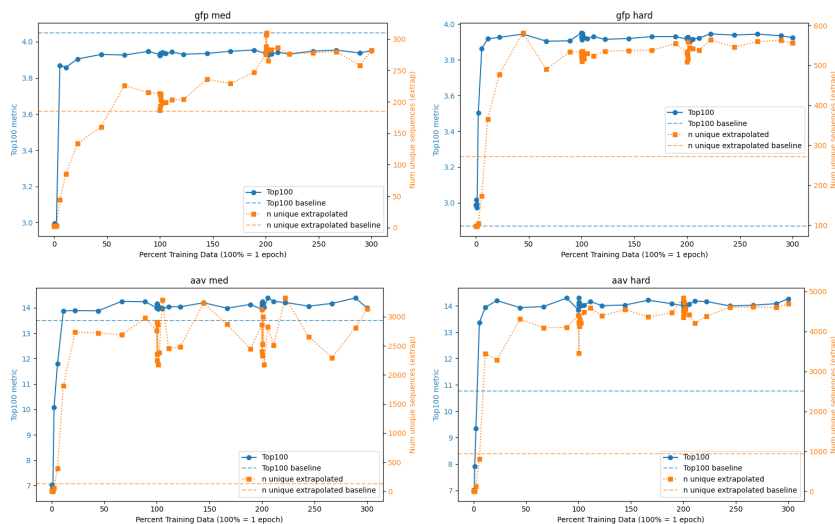


Figure 3. Data ablation results for GFP and AAV benchmarks (medium and hard splits). Each panel shows Top-100 fitness (left y -axis) and number of unique designs (right y -axis) as a function of the fraction of training data used. Dashed orange and blue lines indicate the published state-of-the-art baseline for each respective metric.

multi-stage pipelines. In a single forward pass with no external scorer, RLA produces comparable fitness and up to $4\times$ more unique extrapolating designs than the prior state-of-the-art, with the largest gains on the harder extrapolation benchmarks. The simplicity of the approach, a single MLP trained with MSE loss, combined with its data efficiency and low compute requirements, makes it well suited for rapid iteration in in-silico protein fitness extrapolation workflows. The current formulation handles substitution mutations only; extending to insertions and deletions is an important direction for future work. We note that the position-wise residual formulation is most effective when the per-residue mutation rate is sufficiently high, as in the AAV benchmarks, and future work could explore position-aware loss weighting or masking strategies to improve performance on proteins with lower mutation rates such as GFP.

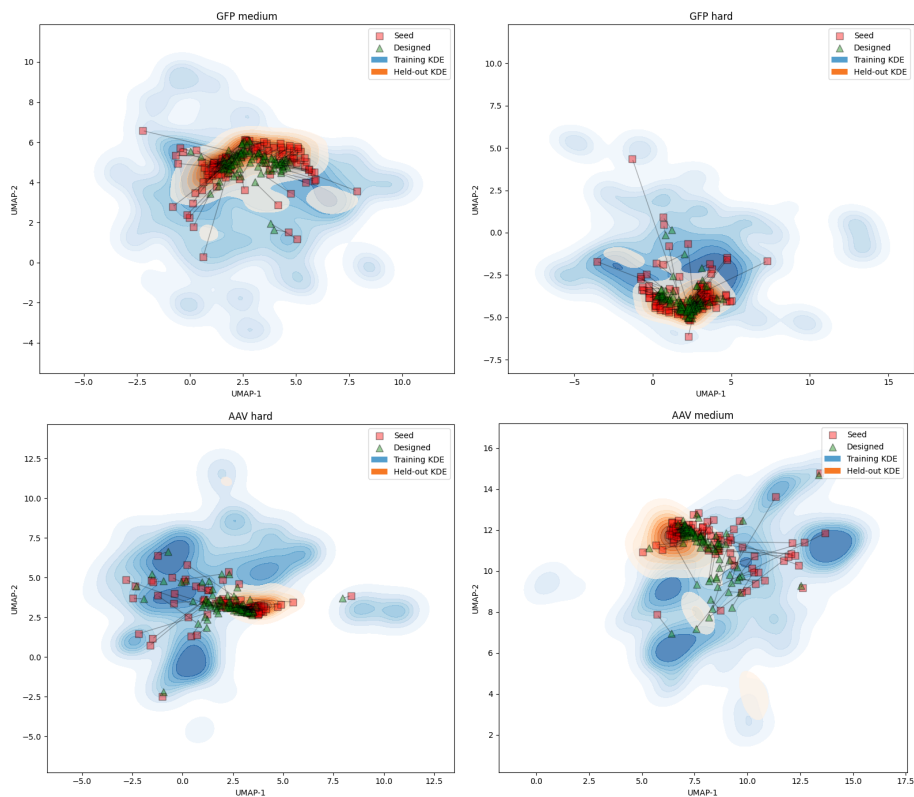


Figure 4. UMAP projections of ProtT5 encoder embeddings for GFP and AAV benchmarks (medium and hard splits). Background KDE contours show the density of 5,000 randomly sampled training sequences (teal) and held-out high-fitness extrapolation sequences (purple). Arrows connect the embeddings of seed sequences before and after applying the residual adapter, illustrating the learned shift toward high-fitness regions of latent space. Seed sequences are identical to those used by Karimi et al. (2025).

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Supplementary Tables

Table S1. Per-seed RLA results across 5 independent runs. Adapter retrained and generation re-run for each seed.

Condition	Seed	Extrap.%	Fit.100	Dist.100	Div.100	Fit.250	Fit.500	Uniq.100
AAV Hard	10	81.8	14.179	3.90	4.00	13.809	13.458	55
	20	76.0	14.154	4.10	4.00	13.805	13.501	52
	30	73.4	14.255	4.17	4.00	13.896	13.573	57
	40	81.7	14.268	4.00	4.00	13.809	13.444	59
	50	81.7	14.013	3.90	4.00	13.636	13.301	57
AAV Med	10	65.9	14.104	3.37	4.00	13.758	13.444	42
	20	71.8	14.233	3.02	4.00	13.916	13.616	45
	30	65.1	14.164	2.95	4.00	13.773	13.450	46
	40	58.6	14.351	3.09	4.00	14.008	13.680	40
	50	60.2	14.313	2.87	4.00	13.964	13.638	44
GFP Hard	10	96.4	3.930	1.16	2.00	3.825	3.674	32
	20	98.2	3.936	1.03	2.00	3.846	3.700	28
	30	98.7	3.959	0.98	2.00	3.900	3.773	26
	40	98.0	3.932	1.07	2.00	3.825	3.685	29
	50	98.3	3.934	1.36	3.00	3.853	3.726	34
GFP Med	10	33.4	3.909	1.29	3.00	3.770	3.567	24
	20	36.4	3.923	1.09	2.00	3.834	3.656	24
	30	39.4	3.935	1.10	2.00	3.837	3.679	30
	40	38.1	3.936	0.92	2.00	3.833	3.654	25
	50	37.8	3.937	1.01	2.00	3.861	3.692	21

Table S2. Adapter size and linear probe ablation (seed=42). Linear probe uses two parameter-matched linear layers with no activations (~5M params). Despite high extrap.%, the linear probe collapses to 1 unique sequence for GFP and 4–14 for AAV, confirming nonlinearity is essential. The ~25M MLP overfits in one epoch and degrades on most conditions.

Variant	Params	AAV Hard			AAV Med			GFP Hard			GFP Med		
		Extrap.%	Fit.100	Uniq.100	Extrap.%	Fit.100	Uniq.100	Extrap.%	Fit.100	Uniq.100	Extrap.%	Fit.100	Uniq.100
~1M	0.94M	16.3	12.176	44	16.5	13.321	48	96.4	3.890	23	33.2	3.923	18
~5M (ours)	4.72M	76.5	14.194	49	66.1	13.888	44	98.2	3.897	22	39.1	3.923	25
~11M	11.02M	81.2	14.075	54	75.6	14.102	35	98.9	4.003	24	63.6	3.978	37
~25M	24.39M	47.8	13.835	52	62.0	13.964	42	96.3	3.279	7	2.1	2.991	5
Linear ~5M	~5M	99.7	12.103	14	99.3	14.155	4	100.0	3.952	1	100.0	3.952	1

Table S3. Top- N fitness and unique sequence counts (mean across 5 seeds). Fitness degrades gracefully and unique counts scale proportionally, confirming genuine library diversity beyond top-100.

Condition	Fit.100	Fit.250	Fit.500	Uniq.100	Uniq.250	Uniq.500
AAV Hard	14.174	13.791	13.455	56.0	142.2	279.0
AAV Med	14.233	13.884	13.566	43.4	104.0	208.8
GFP Hard	3.938	3.850	3.711	29.8	73.6	147.6
GFP Med	3.928	3.827	3.649	24.8	61.8	124.2

Supplementary Figures

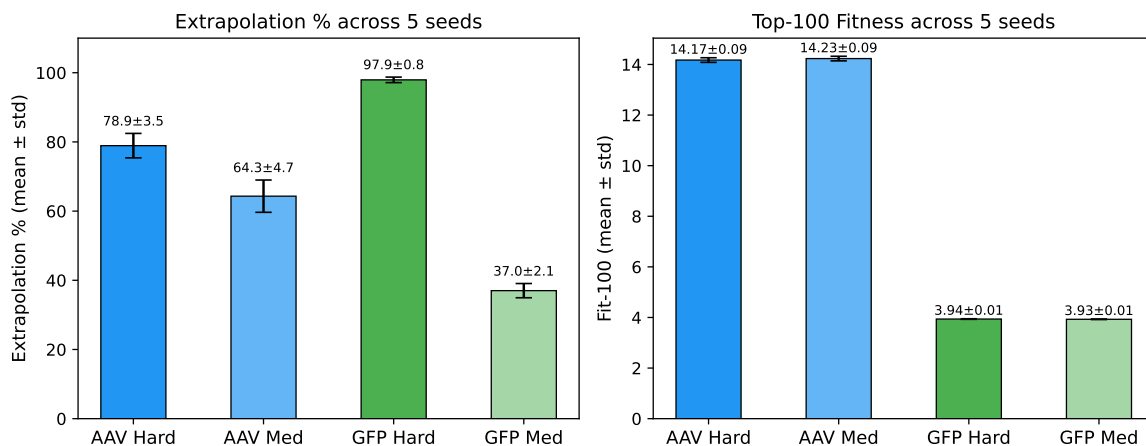


Figure S1. Multi-seed RLA results (5 independent seeds). Left: Extrapolation % with mean \pm std. Right: Top-100 fitness with mean \pm std. Low variance confirms results are stable across seeds.

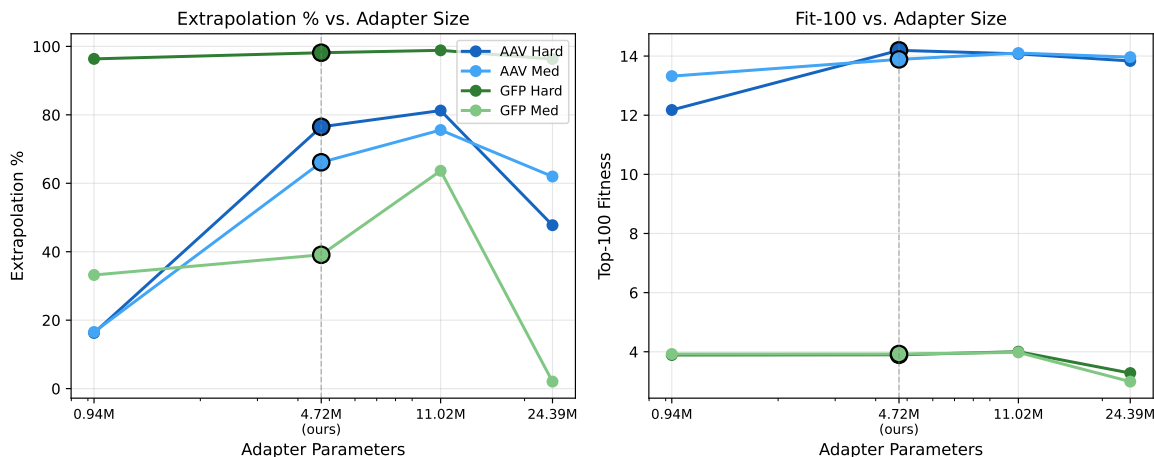


Figure S2. Adapter capacity ablation. Left: Extrapolation % vs. adapter size. Right: Top-100 fitness vs. adapter size. The dashed vertical line marks the 5M baseline (ours). Performance is stable from 5M to 11M, with the \sim 11M model yielding further gains on several splits (most notably GFP Med extrapolation, 39% \rightarrow 64%); the \sim 25M model degrades sharply, consistent with overfitting in a single training epoch. We adopt 5M as a favorable accuracy–compute trade-off.

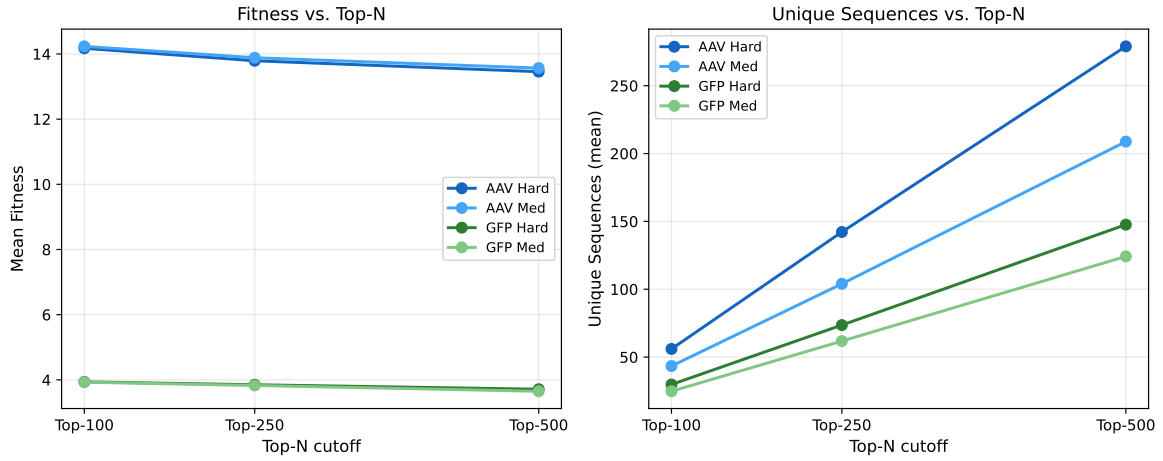


Figure S3. Top- N fitness and unique sequence counts (mean across 5 seeds) at $N \in \{100, 250, 500\}$. Fitness degrades gracefully and unique counts scale proportionally, indicating the full generation library has genuine diversity beyond the top-100 candidates.

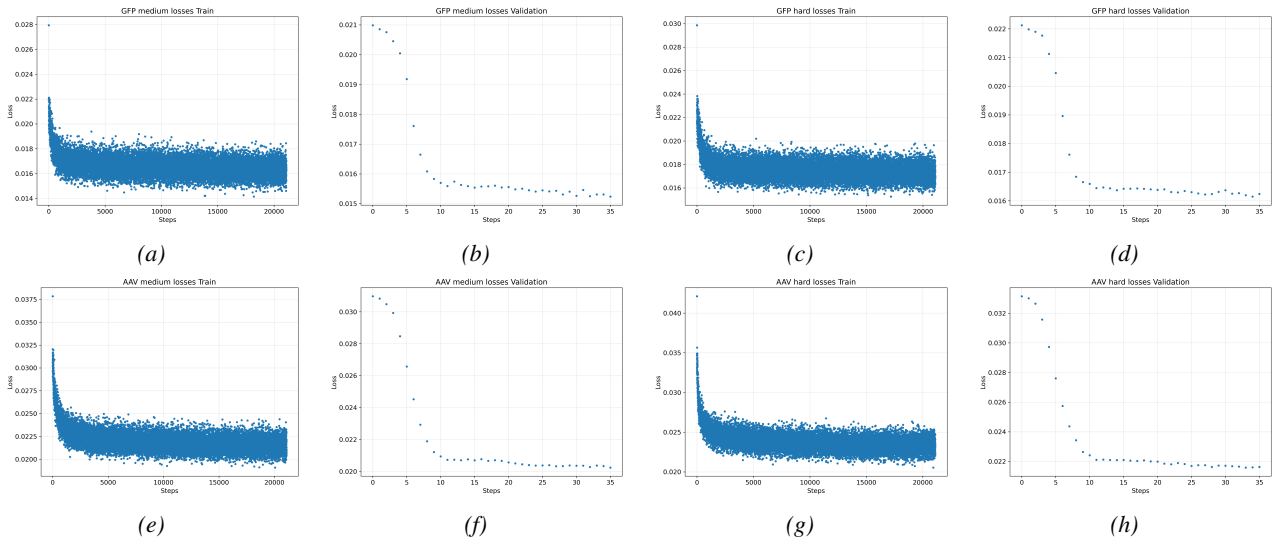


Figure S4. Adapter training and validation losses for each dataset.