H3-OPT: Accurate prediction of CDR-H3 loop structures of antibodies with deep learning

Hedi Chen[1#], Xiaoyu Fan[1#], Shuqian Zhu[1#], Yuchan Pei[2], Xiaochun Zhang[1], Xiaonan Zhang[3], Lihang Liu[3], Feng Qian[1*] Boxue Tian[1*]

[1]MOE Key Laboratory of Bioinformatics, State Key Laboratory of Molecular Oncology, School of Pharmaceutical Sciences, Tsinghua University, Beijing, 100084, China

[2]Tsinghua Institute of Multidisciplinary Biomedical Research, Tsinghua University, Beijing, 102206, China

[3]Department of Natural Language Processing, Baidu International Technology (Shenzhen) Co., Ltd, Shenzhen 518000, China

[#]These authors contribute equally to this work.

[*]To whom correspondence should be addressed:

Boxue Tian: boxuetian@mail.tsinghua.edu.cn

Feng Qian: qianfeng@tsinghua.edu.cn

Abstract

Accurate prediction of the structurally diverse complementarity determining region heavy chain 3 (CDR-H3) loop structure remains a primary and long-standing challenge for antibody modeling. Here, we present the H3-OPT toolkit for predicting the 3D structures of monoclonal antibodies and nanobodies. H3-OPT combines the strengths of AlphaFold2 with a pre-trained protein language model, and provides a 2.24 Å average $RMSD_{C\alpha}$ between predicted and experimentally determined CDR-H3 loops, thus outperforming other current computational methods in our non-redundant high-quality dataset. The model was validated by experimentally solving three structures of anti-VEGF nanobodies predicted by H3-OPT. We examined the potential applications of H3-OPT through analyzing antibody surface properties and antibody-antigen interactions. This structural prediction tool can be used to optimize antibody-antigen binding, and to engineer therapeutic antibodies with biophysical properties for specialized drug administration route.

Introduction

Antibodies protect the host by recognizing and neutralizing foreign microbes or viruses and provide immunity against future infections. Furthermore, the use of therapeutic antibodies is steadily increasing in clinical treatments for infectious diseases, cancers, and autoimmune disorders[1,2]. For example, anti-PD-L1 antibodies block PD-L1/PD-1 interactions to inhibit tumor growth in patients[3]. A typical monoclonal antibody (mAb) is composed of heavy and light chains, while a nanobody (Nb) has only a single-domain variable heavy chain. The CDR heavy chain 3 (CDR-H3) loop is the most variable region in both length and amino acid sequence, and it plays a central role in antigen binding for both mAbs and Nbs. The development of effective therapeutic antibodies requires the solved structures of candidate antibodies, including the CDR-H3. However, it is both costly and labor intensive to experimentally obtain structures, and thus computationally predicted structures are often used to guide antibody design[4]. Despite major advances in computational methods, structure prediction for CDR-H3 loops remains challenging.

Traditional template-based modeling methods, such as RosettaAntibody[5], PIGS[6], ABodyBuilder[7], and MODELLER[8], often provide demonstrably inaccurate predictions for CDR-H3 sequences[9-11], and as a result, alternative artificial intelligence (AI)-based approaches, such as AlphaFold2 (AF2)[12], trRosetta[13] and RoseTTAFold[14], are increasing in popularity. AF2 has shown comparable accuracy to experimentally determined structures by capturing physical and biological information about protein folding, thus providing a versatile deep learning framework for structure prediction. Structure prediction methods using pre-

trained protein language models (PLMs), e.g., HelixFold-Single[15] and ESMFold[16], have

shown comparable performance to AF2 with accelerated prediction speed. PLMs can be

trained with datasets comprising tens of millions of unlabeled protein sequences in a self-

supervised manner, and can be subsequently applied to a variety of downstream tasks,

such as druggable protein target prediction[17], predicting protein function, and protein

design[18-20]. Antibody-specific tools such as IgFold[21], tFold-Ab[22], DeepAb[23] and NanoNet[24]

have also been developed to improve accuracy in CDR-H3 prediction. Among them, IgFold

leverages sequence representations from PLMs to efficiently predict antibody structures

within seconds, and notably, IgFold can provide accuracy comparable to AF2, enabling

high-throughput prediction of antibody structures.

In this study, we present H3-OPT, which combines features of AF2 and PLMs to predict

antibody structures. We compare H3-OPT with several other antibody structure prediction

methods and found that it can provide a lower average $RMSD_{C\alpha}$ for CDR-H3 loops than

other algorithms in three subsets of varying difficulty. To further validate our model, we

experimentally solved the structures of three anti-VEGF nanobodies predicted by H3-OPT[25].

We examined the potential applications of H3-OPT through analyzing antibody surface

properties and antibody-antigen interactions. We demonstrate the informative value of high-

quality H3 loops for predicting binding affinity, and further support the use of H3-OPT as a

powerful and versatile tool for studying antigen-antibody interactions. This structural

prediction tool can be used to optimize antibody-antigen binding, and to engineer

therapeutic antibodies with biophysical properties.

Results

The H3-OPT workflow

Prior to training H3-OPT, we first conducted a thorough evaluation of currently available antibody structure prediction tools, including AF2, RoseTTAFold, trRosetta, NanoNet, DeepAb, MODELLER, and AbodyBuilder (Supplementary Section 1). AF2 provided high-accuracy predictions for the overall structures of both mAbs and Nbs, with template modeling scores (TM-scores) and global distance test scores (GDT scores) greater than 0.9. Based on the relatively higher accuracy of AF2 in structural predictions, its prediction was used to extract structural features of CDR-H3 loops for further optimization by H3-OPT. Using a mAb/Nb sequence and its Fv model structure from AF2 as input, H3-OPT was then used to generate a refined structure. As data quality has large effects on prediction accuracy, we constructed a non-redundant dataset with 1286 high-resolution (<2.5 Å) antibody structures from SAbDab[26] (Fig. 1a). The dataset was then divided into training, validation, and test sets based on amino acid sequence identity, which was done by using the UCLUST[27] software. To assess the prediction results, the test set was split into 3 subgroups according to the differences in AF2 accuracy stemming from the length of CDR-H3 sequence: easy-to-predict targets (0 - 2 Å, Sub1); moderate difficulty targets (2 - 4 Å, Sub2); and challenging-to-predict targets (> 4 Å, Sub3), with average CDR-H3 loop sequence lengths of 9.12, 11.08, and 16.43, respectively.

The workflow of H3-OPT is depicted in Fig. 1b. H3-OPT consists of a Template module and

a PLM-based structure prediction module (PSPM). The Template module determines

whether to use PSPM to optimize CDR-H3 and comprises two sub-modules: a confidence-

based module (CBM) and a template-grafting module (TGM). The CBM calculates an AF2

confidence score to evaluate the reliability of CDR-H3 loop sequence inputs through MSA

and template searching. The TGM then identifies a template from the H3 template database

and grafts the CDR-H3 loop onto the AF2 model if such a template is available (Fig. 1c).

The PSPM contains a series of attention-based components to ensure that the complete

structural context is extracted from the input sequences. Specifically, the PSPM employs a

row-wise gated attention layer that updates residue-level information and exchanges

information within residue pair representations and residue features to infer relationships

between the spatial and residue representations. Additionally, by leveraging sequence-level

representations from PLMs along with residue-level information, the PSPM can integrate

high-information features, such as protein folding patterns, across a vast protein space to

predict final three-dimensional (3D) atomic coordinates (Fig. 1d).

To better understand the contribution of each module to H3-OPT accuracy with varying

factors, we next examined how incorporating different approaches through the Template

and PSPM modules could improve accuracy of H3-OPT. While AF2 showed markedly

stronger predictions than IgFold in Sub1 (Fig. 2a), IgFold provided higher accuracy in Sub3.

In light of previous studies that showed PLM-based models are computationally more

efficient but have unsatisfactory accuracy when high-resolution templates and MSA are

available[16], we therefore sought to combine the strengths of AF2 with PLM-based modeling.

Similar to IgFold[21], an initial version of H3-OPT lacking the CBM could not replicate the

accuracy of AF2 in Sub1. Interestingly, we observed that AF2 confidence score shared a

strong negative correlation with Cα-RMSDs (Pearson correlation coefficient =-0.67 (Fig. 2b),

which led to us to hypothesize that AF2 models with high confidence scores might be

sufficiently accurate, and therefore do not require further optimization. Following this notion,

we incorporated a CBM sub-module that could directly retain high-confidence structures

from AF2. TGM sub-module was added as a means of grafting identical H3 loop templates

from public PDBs onto AF2-predicted models to further improve accuracy. Ablation studies

in which the CBM or TGM were excluded to determine their respective contributions to the

final predictive accuracy (Fig. 2c-f) revealed that H3-OPT without the Template Module

could generate structures with average Cα-RMSDs of 1.76 Å, 2.76 Å, and 4.86 Å for the

Sub1, Sub2, and Sub3 datasets, respectively. Incorporating only the CBM into our model

significantly improved $RMSD_{Cα}$ score by 0.62 Å for Sub 1, but exerted negligible effects on

Sub2 and Sub3. By contrast, including the TGM alone resulted in substantially improved

$RMSD_{Cα}$ for Sub2 and Sub3 by 0.68 Å and 1.04 Å, respectively, suggesting that templates

were more effective for relatively long CDR-H3 antibodies. These results suggested that the

combination of TGM and CBM modules could leverage available templates to improve

prediction accuracy.

Since the large majority of sequences in Sub2 and Sub3 have long CDR-H3 loops with

few sequence homologs, attaining high accuracy in structural predictions becomes

increasingly challenging for AF2[28]. Inspired by IgFold and other PLM-based methods (Fig

3a), we thus developed a PSPM module to capture structural information from the

sequence embeddings of PLMs[29]. The key innovations of the PSPM for our workflow were

the integration of sequence-level representations from PLMs and the simplified architecture

of AF2. ProtTrans-T5, AntiBERTy, and ESM2 were initially used without fine-tuning,

resulting in overall average Cα-RMSDs of 2.40 Å, 2.49 Å, and 2.32 Å, respectively (Table 1).

To improve accuracy, we employed a fine-tuning approach for the downstream CDR-H3

structure prediction task. As ESM2 outperformed other PLMs in our test set, we fine-tuned

parameters of all ESM2 hidden layers, which resulted in an overall $RMSD_{C\alpha}$ of 2.24 Å for

H3-OPT. It should be noted that most computational models, such as IgFold, froze PLM

weights during model training[21]. Analysis of test subsets showed that H3-OPT could provide

high accuracy in sidechain predictions, high template modeling scores (TM-scores), and

high global distance test scores (GDT scores) in Sub2 and Sub3 (Fig 3b-c).

To expand its generalizability, we simplified the Evoformer architecture and introduced

parameter-sharing to directly predict Cartesian coordinates of CDR-H3 loops through both

residue-level features and pair representations. In residue-level representations, rows

represented amino acid types and structural features derived from AF2, while columns

represented individual residues from the input sequence. The pair representations

contained information about the residue pairs, such as Cα-Cα distance. These residue-level

representations were updated by the attention-based layers and continuously

communicated with pair representations; the pair representations were then updated via

triangular multiplicative layers[28]. This simplified architecture improved model efficiency and

avoided overfitting. We also applied a structural alignment strategy for feature extraction

and model prediction. Given the high conservation of Fv structures, the alignment strategy

was designed to effectively capture residue contribution to loop folding, resulting in

improved training speed and accuracy. Token together, H3-OPT provided high-accuracy

predictions for CDR-H3 loops, facilitating the development of antibody therapeutics.

H3-OPT provides higher accuracy CDR-H3 models than existing structure prediction

software

We then evaluated the performance of H3-OPT against currently available methods,

including AF2, IgFold, HelixFold-Single, and ESMFold. H3-OPT achieved an average Cα

root mean square deviation ($RMSD_{C\alpha}$) of 2.24 Å for CDR-H3, while AF2 and IgFold had

CDR-H3 RMSDs of 2.85 Å and 2.87 Å, respectively (Fig. 4a). HelixFold-Single and ESM-

Fold generated comparatively poor predictions, with RMSDs for CDR-H3 of 3.39 Å and 4.23

Å, respectively. As shown in Fig. 4b, H3-OPT provided higher accuracy predictions than

other methods in all 3 subgroups, with average RMSDs of 1.10 Å, 2.28 Å and 3.99 Å,

respectively. While the predictions of H3-OPT were comparable to AF2 in Sub1, its

accuracy was higher than AF2 in Sub2 and Sub3.

In light of these results, we then sought to validate H3-OPT using three experimentally

determined structures of anti-VEGF nanobodies, including a wild-type (WT) and two mutant

(Mut1 and Mut2) structures, that were recently deposited in protein data bank (Fig. 4c).

Although Mut1 (E45A) and Mut2 (Q14N) shared the same CDR-H3 sequences as WT, only

minor variations were observed in the CDR-H3. H3-OPT generated accurate predictions

with Cα-RMSDs of 1.510 Å, 1.541 Å and 1.411 Å for the WT, Mut1, and Mut2, respectively.

Subsequent comparison with IgFold, showed that IgFold could not accurately predict the

short helix in CDR-H3, resulting in Cα-RMSDs of 2.776 Å (WT), 2.888 Å (Mut1), and 2.448

Å (Mut2) and more diverse conformations of Mut1 and Mut2. These results indicated that

IgFold was capable of learning long-range correlations in protein sequences, but that these

long-range correlations could introduce larger errors when MSA and templates were

available. These results thus demonstrated that MSA could strongly influence the accuracy

for which similar CDR-H3 template structures were available.

H3-OPT can predict antibody surface properties

To demonstrate how improved CDR-H3 structural accuracy can assist antibody

engineering, we applied H3-OPT to predict surface properties. Comparison of H3-OPT with

AF2 for identifying surface amino acids (SAAs) by the relative accessible surface areas

(rASAs) of CDR-H3 loops showed that H3-OPT could predict SAAs, on average, close to

that of the native structures (9.46 vs 9.40, Fig. 5a), whereas AF2 predicted an average of

9.81 SAAs. Furthermore, H3-OPT predicted closer values to native structures than AF2 in

predicting diverse surface properties, such as the distribution of hydrophilic or charged

SAAs (Fig. 5b).

To examine insights H3-OPT could provide into the biophysical properties of

antibodies[30], we next estimated the solvent-accessible surface areas (SASAs). The average

SASAs of H3-OPT loops closely resembled that of the native structures, with larger

differences in AF2 predictions (Fig. 5c). Plots of SASA distributions at each alignment

position revealed smaller errors in H3-OPT than AF2, with ΔSASA ranging from -12.17 to

9.74 $Å^2$ (Extended Data Fig. 1). In addition, comparison of surface charge distributions on

the predicted CDR-H3 loops generated by H3-OPT and AF2 in an electrostatic map of a

representative structure (PDB 5U3P, Fig. 5d) showed that H3-OPT predictions were

consistent with the experimental structure. These results collectively showed that accurate

surface properties predicted by H3-OPT could provide insights into antibody folding and

stability, as well as their interactions with antigens.

H3-OPT can facilitate investigation of antibody-antigen interactions.

To explore the potential applications of H3-OPT in studying antibody-antigen interactions,

we analyzed contact patterns at predicted binding sites. Given that predicting the structure

of an antibody-antigen complex remains challenging, we superimposed V_H fragments from

H3-OPT and AF2 onto experimentally determined native complex structures available in our

test set. After identifying the contact residues of antigens by H3-OPT, we found that H3-

OPT could substantially outperform AF2 (Fig. 6a), with a precision of 0.75 and accuracy of

0.94 compared to 0.66 precision and 0.92 accuracy of AF2. Next, we estimated the

distances among interface residues, which are related to binding affinity at the interface. We

found that H3-OPT had less error in distance metrics than predictions by AF2 across

different distance thresholds, with average mean squared errors of 5.61 Å and 7.08 Å,

respectively (Fig. 6b). Furthermore, calculation of H3 contact propensities to assess

potential differences in binding patterns between the predicted and native structures using

high-quality H3 conformations indicated that H3-OPT also displayed higher accuracy in

predicting contact propensities (Fig. 6c).

Finally, to test whether H3-OPT was reliable for investigation of the detailed

mechanisms underlying antigen-antibody binding, we generated contact maps and

calculated binding affinities for complex structures obtained by H3-OPT, AF2, or through

experiments (see Methods for details). We found that contact maps predicted by H3-OPT

were consistent with those observed in the experimental structures (Fig. 6d). Calculation of

binding affinities through MD simulations showed that the average affinities of structures

obtained by H3-OPT prediction were closer to those of experimentally determined

structures than values obtained through AF2 (Table 2). These cumulative findings illustrate

the informative value of high-quality H3 loops for predicting binding affinity and facilitating

antibody engineering, and further support the use of H3-OPT as a powerful and versatile

tool for investigating antigen-antibody interactions.

Discussion

Several platforms for in silico antibody engineering have been developed to improve

binding affinity[31-34], humanization[35,36] and stability[37,38]. At present, engineering these

biophysical properties of therapeutic antibodies heavily relies on the availability of the

structures of thousands of antibodies. The accurate structure of CDR-H3 is crucial for

understanding the mechanism(s) of antigen-antibody interactions. Although AF2 performs

well when MSA and templates are available, its predictive capability decreases for targets

with long CDR-H3 loops. By contrast, PLMs leverage tens of millions of protein sequences

to learn relevant structural patterns, consequently enhancing their capacity to predict

orphan antibodies[39]. The results of IgFold indicate that PLMs, which incorporate

transformer-based attention mechanisms, are capable of learning both local and global

sequence information[21]. While global information can be useful for challenging targets, it

may lead to large errors when templates were available, as demonstrated by our case study

of anti-VEGF nanobodies (Fig. 1).

H3-OPT combines the strengths of AF2 and PLMs to predict the structures of mAbs and

Nbs, and our results show that combining these features can improve the average $RMSD_{C\alpha}$

by 20% over that of AF2 or IgFold. However, H3-OPT is less efficient than PLM-based

methods like IgFold because it relies on AF2 structures. To improve efficiency, one possible

solution is to cluster the targets based on sequence identity and compute AF2 structures for

each cluster, followed by generation of mutant structures. Despite the lower efficiency, H3-

OPT offers several notable advantages over IgFold (Extended Data Fig. 2). First, H3-OPT

incorporates a simplified version of Evoformer, which improves training efficiency. In

addition, H3-OPT employs an alignment-based strategy to extract structural features that

are then used to directly predict the Cα coordinates of H3 loops, effectively capturing the

residue features relevant to loop folding. Moreover, we found that IgFold uses an

augmented dataset containing AF2-predicted structures, which could potentially propagate

errors during model training. In contrast, H3-OPT was trained by using high-quality and

non-redundant antibody structures. Finally, H3-OPT also shows lower Cα-RMSDs

compared to AF2 or tFold-Ab for the majority of targets in an expanded benchmark dataset,

including all antibody structures from CAMEO 2022 (Extended Data Fig. 3).

Although H3-OPT can provide high accuracy with a small training dataset, it is likely

that a larger dataset containing high-resolution structures will further improve our model. In

the current study, we observed that the accuracy of AF2 CDR-H3 predictions was correlated

with the length of the H3 loop. Thus, AF2 can provide accurate predictions for short loops

with fewer than 10 amino acids, with PLM-based models offering little or no improvement in

such cases. Conversely, antibodies with H3 loop lengths exceeding 25 residues (common

in Sub3) pose a long-standing challenge for structural prediction algorithms, and none of

the existing methods (including H3-OPT) tested here could provide accurate predictions

due to a lack of homologous sequences and a high degree of freedom in this subgroup.

Notably, H3-OPT outperformed AF2 in Sub3 because the context of protein sequences

learned from ESM2 was fine-tuned to fit antibody structures. Furthermore, we envision that

antibodies with H3 loop lengths ranging from 10 to 25 amino acids could be further

optimized using PLMs with more model parameters. In addition, we attempted to optimize

the H3 loop structure through molecular dynamics simulations and quantum mechanics-

based methods (Supplementary Section 2). However, these approaches generally yielded

less accurate predictions than AF2 due to inaccurately described solvent effects and other

environmental factors. The development of a more accurate, physics-based method for

modeling long loops may be another potentially effective strategy for improving H3-OPT.

Deep generative models are playing a vital role in the field of protein design, leading to

several successful applications[40-45]. These models capture the intricate relationship

between sequences and structures, enabling the generation of novel protein scaffolds not

existing in nature. However, the potential immunogenicity concerns associated with these

newly designed proteins require comprehensive preclinical and clinical investigations.

Consequently, conventional mAbs and Nbs remain the prevailing choices in medicine.

Recognizing that the properties of antibodies are heavily influenced by their structures,

accurate prediction of the structures of mAbs and Nbs is of great significance in optimizing

their therapeutic effectiveness and clinical relevance. To this end, H3-OPT has strong

potential to accelerate optimization of antibody-antigen binding as well as engineering of

therapeutic antibodies with specialized biophysical properties.

Method

H3-OPT dataset

Crystal structures of antibodies were obtained from SAbDab, a non-redundant nanobody database[46] and a subset of DeepAb. The structures with resolution greater than 2.5 Å or redundant sequences with 95% or greater identity were removed (Fig. 1a). We removed the structures with missing loops in CDR-H3 or lengths greater than 45. The structures with missing residues at CDR-H3 loops were also dropped. To enhance the generalizability of H3-OPT, the sequences were clustered based on a 90% similarity cutoff by using UCLUST[27]. The resulting clusters were then randomly divided into training, validating, and testing sets to avoid overestimation of performance. The number of sequences in training, validating and testing sets was 1021(925 mAbs, 96 Nbs), 134 (122 mAbs, 12Nbs) and 131 (119 mAbs, 12 Nbs), respectively, with average CDR-H3 loop length of 11.8, 11.9 and 11.7, respectively. Schrödinger v. 2017-2 (Schrödinger, New York, NY, USA), Numpy 1.18.5 and Pandas 1.0.5 was used for data preparation.

Structure preparation

To address the transformational invariance for predicting 3D coordinates, we applied a structural alignment strategy. Prior to feature extraction, we removed all atoms of light chains in mAbs Fv structures and any non-standard residues in native structures. All antibody V_H native structures were aligned using StructAlign module in Schrödinger with a randomly selected reference structure (PDBID: 1GIG). Next, we superimposed AF2 predicted models to their corresponding native structures. This alignment allowed the model

to learn the interactions between residues located in H3 loops while disregarding the

rotation and translation of the entire structure. The heavy chain fragments were determined

using Chothia definitions[47].

Feature generation

As shown in Table 3, structural features were extracted and aggregated into the following

inputs to PSPM of H3-OPT: A residue feature vector of size $[N_{res}, 34]$ was constructed by

concatenating "Amino acid type", "AF2 predicted coordinates", "AF2 predicted backbone

torsion angles", "Torsion angles mask" and "Predicted residue mask". The pairwise feature

vector of size $[N_{res}, N_{res}, 60]$ included the "Pairwise distances" and "Pairwise amino acid

type".

Network architecture

H3-OPT took the predicted H3 loops of AF2 as input and generate the antibody structure

with the optimized CDR-H3 loops as output. H3-OPT was composed of a Template module

and a PSPM. The Template module contains two submodules, i.e., CBM and TGM. The

CBM calculated the average confidence score of H3 residues and retained AF2 structures

with confidence score greater than 0.8. The TGM grafted the template loop structure onto

the input AF2 model, when their CDR-H3 sequences were identical. We replaced the

predicted CDR-H3 loop generated by AF2 with the template loop by aligning corresponding

atoms, which included Cα atoms and carbonyl carbon atoms in the first two residues and

Cα atoms and backbone nitrogen atoms in the last two residues.

The input residue-level features are extracted from AF2 predicted structures as

mentioned above, resulting in a dimension of $L \times 34$, where L is the padding length of

antibody heavy chain. Similarly, the pairwise features has a dimension of $L \times L \times 60$. The

PSPM network began with a row-wise gated multi-head self-attention layer which updated

residue-level features from pair representations. After that, the residue-level information

updated the pair representations via outer product mean module. Pair representations were

updated by two multiplicative update modules. During training, the weights of the attention

layer and the triangle multiplicative update modules were updated 4 times per epoch. Then,

the final hidden states from ESM2 (esm2_t33_650M_UR50D) were passed to a linear layer

and then concatenated with the residue-level features to enable the learning of latent

information from vast protein sequences. To predict all Cα coordinates for the CDR-H3 loop,

the output vector was passed through three linear layers with a hidden size of 64. In

summary, PSPM utilized an attention-based mechanism to learn the contribution of

individual residues and incorporate sequence representations from PLMs into final

predictions. We used OpenFold[48] (based on GitHub from June 2022: commit

3f57b4a041f063406059f42080ede6d495479617) to implement partial networks of AF2.

We employed a fine-tuning strategy to update the sequence representations in ESM2.

Initially, we froze all weights of the 33 representation layers in ESM2 and updated only the

weights of the attention layers and pair representation update modules. Subsequently, we

fixed all weights of the remaining components in H3-OPT and performed fine-tuning

exclusively on all hidden layers of ESM2 for the H3 loop prediction task. Finally, we fine-

tuned all parameters of H3-OPT to predict the atomic coordinates of all CDR-H3 Cα atoms.

During training, we trained our model on the training set and validated it on the

validation set. The dropout rates of H3-OPT were set to 0.25. Mean squared error (MSE)

loss was utilized to train the model. We used Adam optimizer with a learning rate of

1×10^{-4}, weight decay of 5×10^{-4} for training. The model was trained on an NVIDIA

V100 super GPU and took one hour per epoch over the entire training set with a batch size

of 64. We randomly selected 10% of all structures for model validation. The H3-OPT was

implemented using PyTorch 1.12.1 in Python 3.7.2. The hyperparameters used during

training process for H3-OPT were presented in Table 4.

Structure generation and refinement

We utilized a structure refinement strategy to generate structures of CDR-H3 loops and

rectify structural errors. Initially, we used PSPM predictions to modify the Cα coordinates of

predicted CDR-H3 loops generated by AF2. Then, we minimized the remaining atoms of the

CDR-H3 loops, while keeping their Cα coordinates fixed, by using the OPLS 2005 force

field[49]. After the initial energy minimization step, we applied a force constant of 10 kcal/mol

to these fixed atoms to guarantee complete relaxation of the entire loops.

Validation settings

H3-OPT, AF2, HelixFold-Single, IgFold and ESMFold were compared on the test subset.

Given that tFold-Ab is only available on webserver, we compared H3-OPT with tFold-Ab on

CAMEO 2022 dataset. We removed the target antibody structures from AF2 database

before prediction to evaluate the performance of AF2. This ensured that the predictions

depended solely on the information derived from other template structures, thus avoiding

biased results. Since all other methods did not require MSA searching, we did not exclude

these targets from their database. To predict the entire Fv structures, we included 50

glycine residues as a linker between the heavy chain and the light chain for antibodies[50].

The Cα-RMSDs of all predicted H3 loops were calculated after superimposing the V_H

backbone heavy atoms (without CDR-H3) to the reference structures. All structures were

generated using publicly available code repositories: AF2 v2.1.1(based on GitHub the

November   2021   version   at   GitHub: commit

91b43223422420d1783ed802c8b3a8382a9309fd), IgFold (based on GitHub from February

2023: commit 6a09298d165ed1deb438c0b6eefcbcb03ed0eca5), HelixFold-Single (based

on GitHub from January 2023: commit 5f39b2c2a4ecc00b89ba05b95dc56212bdd5d886)

and   ESMFold   v1   (based   on   GitHub   from   October   2022:   commit

dc823b89c6acb9f67caea53704c2a97524fbd456).

Analysis of SASAs and pairwise residue contacts

We computed the SASAs and rASAs of all CDR-H3 loops by using the ANARCI

webserver[51] with the default settings. Residue with an rASA greater than 25% was

considered surface residues[52]. Subsequently, we applied AHo alignment software[53] to

report the averaged SASA per alignment position. The samples and alignment positions

with more than 10 gaps were removed to avoid randomness and bias, reducing the final

samples to 123. Finally, the difference in SASAs between H3-OPT and AF2 was calculated

by subtracting predicted H3 loops SASAs from the ground truth.

To examine the contribution of H3-OPT in discovering antibody-antigen interactions, we

identified contact residue pairs that were within this distance as binding sites by setting a

threshold of 5 Å. We next calculated the pairwise residue distance matrices for each

individual predicted complex and native structure, where each element represented the

closest distance between the heavy atoms of two residues. From these pairwise distances,

we derived contact propensity matrices that specifically indicated the presence or absence

of interactions between residues.

Binding affinity calculation

We analyzed the binding affinities of antibody-antigen complexes predicted by AF2 and H3-

OPT. Their relative binding affinities were calculated through molecular dynamics

simulations. Initially, the missing side-chains and loops in the antibody structures were filled

using the Protein Preparation Wizard module within Schrödinger software. Subsequently,

the tLEaP module of AMBER[54] was employed to construct the simulation system with the

ff19SB force field[55] and OPC solvent model[56]. Additionally, the simulation system was

solvated with a 0.15 M NaCl solution. Energy minimization was performed through a 5000-

step steepest descent algorithm, followed by a 5000-step conjugate gradient algorithm.

Afterwards, a 25000-step NVT simulation with a time step of 1 fs was performed to

gradually heat the system from 0 K to 100 K. A 250000-step NPT simulation with a time

step of 2 fs was carried out to further heat the system from 100 K to 298 K. In the

production run, 100-ns MD simulations were performed with a time step of 2 fs. The

distance cutoff for nonbonded interactions was set to 10 Å, and the Berendsen algorithm

was utilized to maintain isotropic pressure coupling at 1 bar. The Langevin algorithm was employed to maintain the simulation temperature at 298 K. The relative binding affinities of the antigen-antibody complexes were evaluated using the python script, which computed the MM/GBSA energies for the trajectory frames of last 10 ns.

Data and code availability

The datasets of our study and the codes of H3-OPT are freely available at https://github.com/chdcg/H3-OPT.

Acknowledgments

This work was supported by the Tsinghua University Initiative Scientific Research Program (No.20221080048, No.20231080030), the Tsinghua-Peking University Center for Life Sciences (No.20111770319), Tsinghua University - Peking Union Medical College and Hospital Collaboration Foundation (No. 20191080837).

Author contributions

H.C. and B.T. conceptualized the project. H.C. and X.F. developed the methodology. S.Z. solved crystal structures. H.C. and L.L. performed structural modeling. H.C. wrote the original paper. Q.F., X.Z., and B.T. edited the paper.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Reference

Meganck, R. M. & Baric, R. S. Developing therapeutic approaches for twenty-first-century emerging infectious viral diseases. *Nature Medicine* **27**, 401-410 (2021). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41591-021-01282-0

Kaplon, H. & Reichert, J. M. Antibodies to watch in 2021. *MAbs* **13**, 1860476 (2021). https://doi.org:10.1080/19420862.2020.1860476

Brahmer, J. R. *et al.* Safety and activity of anti-PD-L1 antibody in patients with advanced cancer. *The New England Journal of Medicine* **366**, 2455-2465 (2012). https://doi.org:10.1056/NEJMoa1200694

Aguilar Rangel, M. *et al.* Fragment-based computational design of antibodies targeting structured epitopes. *Science Advances* **8**, eabp9540 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1126/sciadv.abp9540

Adolf-Bryfogle, J. *et al.* RosettaAntibodyDesign (RAbD): A general framework for computational antibody design. *PLoS Computational Biology* **14**, e1006112 (2018). https://doi.org:10.1371/journal.pcbi.1006112

Marcatili, P., Rosi, A. & Tramontano, A. PIGS: automatic prediction of antibody structures. *Bioinformatics* **24**, 1953-1954 (2008). https://doi.org:10.1093/bioinformatics/btn341

Leem, J., Dunbar, J., Georges, G., Shi, J. & Deane, C. M. ABodyBuilder: Automated antibody structure prediction with data–driven accuracy estimation. *mAbs* **8**, 1259-1268 (2016). https://doi.org:10.1080/19420862.2016.1205773

Eswar, N. *et al.* Comparative Protein Structure Modeling Using Modeller. *Current Protocols in Bioinformatics* **15**, 5.6.1-5.6.30 (2006). https://doi.org:10.1002/0471250953.bi0506s15

Almagro, J. C. *et al.* Second antibody modeling assessment (AMA-II). *Proteins: Structure, Function, and Bioinformatics* **82**, 1553-1562 (2014). https://doi.org:10.1002/prot.24567

10   Teplyakov, A. *et al.* Antibody modeling assessment II. Structures and models. *Proteins: Structure,*

Function, and Bioinformatics **82**, 1563-1582 (2014). https://doi.org:10.1002/prot.24554

11   Almagro, J. C. *et al.* Antibody modeling assessment. *Proteins: Structure, Function, and Bioinformatics*

79, 3050-3066 (2011). https://doi.org:10.1002/prot.23130

12   Jumper, J. & Hassabis, D. Protein structure predictions to atomic accuracy with AlphaFold. *Nature*

Methods **19**, 11-12 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41592-021-01362-6

13   Du, Z. *et al.* The trRosetta server for fast and accurate protein structure prediction. *Nature Protocols*

16, 5634-5651 (2021). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41596-021-00628-9

14   Baek, M. *et al.* Accurate prediction of protein structures and interactions using a three-track neural

network. *Science* **373**, 871-876 (2021). https://doi.org:doi:10.1126/science.abj8754

15   Fang, X. *et al.* Helixfold-single: Msa-free protein structure prediction by using protein language model

as an alternative. Preprint at arXiv:*2207.13921* (2022).

https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.48550/arXiv.2207.13921

16   Lin, Z. *et al.* Evolutionary-scale prediction of atomic-level protein structure with a language model.

Science **379**, 1123-1130 (2023). https://doi.org:10.1126/science.ade2574

17   Chen, J. *et al.* QuoteTarget: A sequence-based transformer protein language model to identify

potentially druggable protein targets. *Protein Science* **32**, e4555 (2023).

https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1002/pro.4555

18   Hie, B. L. *et al.* Efficient evolution of human antibodies from general protein language models. *Nature*

Biotechnology (2023). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41587-023-01763-2

19   Ferruz, N., Schmidt, S. & Höcker, B. ProtGPT2 is a deep unsupervised language model for protein

design. *Nature Communications* **13**, 4348 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-022-32007-7

20   Madani, A. *et al.* Large language models generate functional protein sequences across diverse

families. *Nature Biotechnology* (2023). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41587-022-01618-2

21   Ruffolo, J. A., Chu, L.-S., Mahajan, S. P. & Gray, J. J. Fast, accurate antibody structure prediction from

deep learning on massive set of natural antibodies. *Nature Communications* **14** (2023).

https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-023-38063-x

22   Wu, J., Wu, F., Jiang, B., Liu, W. & Zhao, P. tFold-Ab: Fast and Accurate Antibody Structure Prediction

without Sequence Homologs. Preprint at bioRxiv, 2022.2011.2010.515918 (2022).

https://doi.org:10.1101/2022.11.10.515918

23   Ruffolo, J. A., Sulam, J. & Gray, J. J. Antibody structure prediction using interpretable deep learning.

Patterns **3**, 100406 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1016/j.patter.2021.100406

24   Cohen, T., Halfon, M. & Schneidman-Duhovny, D. NanoNet: Rapid and accurate end-to-end nanobody

modeling by deep learning. *Frontiers in Immunology* **13**, 958584 (2022).

https://doi.org:10.3389/fimmu.2022.958584

25   Zhu, S. *et al.* Polymorphic nanobody crystals as long-acting intravitreal therapy for wet age-related

macular degeneration. *Bioengineering & Translational Medicine*, e10523 (2023).

https://doi.org:https://doi.org/10.1002/btm2.10523

26   Dunbar, J. *et al.* SAbDab: the structural antibody database. *Nucleic Acids Res* **42**, D1140-1146 (2014).

https://doi.org:10.1093/nar/gkt1043

27   Edgar, R. C. Search and clustering orders of magnitude faster than BLAST. *Bioinformatics* **26**, 2460-

2461 (2010). https://doi.org:10.1093/bioinformatics/btq461

28   Jumper, J. *et al.* Highly accurate protein structure prediction with AlphaFold. *Nature* **596**, 583-589

(2021). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41586-021-03819-2

29   Rives, A. *et al.* Biological structure and function emerge from scaling unsupervised learning to 250

million protein sequences. *PNAS* **118** (2021). https://doi.org:10.1073/pnas.2016239118

30   Cong, Y. *et al.* Anchor-Locker Binding Mechanism of the Coronavirus Spike Protein to Human ACE2:

Insights from Computational Analysis. *Journal of Chemical Information and Modeling* **61**, 3529-3542

(2021). https://doi.org:10.1021/acs.jcim.1c00241

31   Lippow, S. M., Wittrup, K. D. & Tidor, B. Computational design of antibody-affinity improvement

beyond in vivo maturation. *Nature Biotechnology* **25**, 1171-1176 (2007).

https://doi.org:10.1038/nbt1336

32   Riahi, S. *et al.* Application of an integrated computational antibody engineering platform to design

SARS-CoV-2 neutralizers. *Antibody Therapeutics* **4**, 109-122 (2021).

https://doi.org:10.1093/abt/tbab011

33   Clark, L. A. *et al.* Affinity enhancement of an in vivo matured therapeutic antibody using structure-

based computational design. *Protein Science* **15**, 949-960 (2006).

https://doi.org:10.1110/ps.052030506

34   Shan, S. *et al.* Deep learning guided optimization of human antibody against SARS-CoV-2 variants

with broad neutralization. *PNAS* **119**, e2122954119 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1073/pnas.2122954119

35   Choi, Y., Hua, C., Sentman, C. L., Ackerman, M. E. & Bailey-Kellogg, C. Antibody humanization by

structure-based computational protein design. *mAbs* **7**, 1045-1057 (2015).

https://doi.org:10.1080/19420862.2015.1076600

36   Kurella, V. B. & Gali, R. Structure guided homology model based design and engineering of mouse

antibodies for humanization. *Bioinformation* **10**, 180-186 (2014).

https://doi.org:10.6026/97320630010180

37   Tomar, D. S., Singh, S. K., Li, L., Broulidakis, M. P. & Kumar, S. In Silico Prediction of Diffusion

Interaction Parameter (k(D)), a Key Indicator of Antibody Solution Behaviors. *Pharmaceutical*

Research **35**, 193 (2018). https://doi.org:10.1007/s11095-018-2466-6

38   Froning, K. *et al.* Computational stabilization of T cell receptors allows pairing with antibodies to form

bispecifics. *Nature Communications* **11**, 2330 (2020). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-020-16231-7

39   Chowdhury, R. *et al.* Single-sequence protein structure prediction using a language model and deep

learning. *Nature Biotechnology* **40**, 1617-1623 (2022). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41587-022-01432-w

40   Watson, J. L. *et al.* De novo design of protein structure and function with RFdiffusion. *Nature* (2023).

https://doi.org:10.1038/s41586-023-06415-8

41   Dauparas, J. *et al.* Robust deep learning-based protein sequence design using ProteinMPNN.

Science **378**, 49-56 (2022). https://doi.org:doi:10.1126/science.add2187

42   Shin, J.-E. *et al.* Protein design and variant prediction using autoregressive generative models. *Nature*

Communications **12**, 2403 (2021). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41467-021-22732-w

43   Luo, S. *et al.* Antigen-specific antibody design and optimization with diffusion-based generative

models for protein structures. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems* **35**, 9754-9767

(2022).

44   Watson, J. L. *et al.* Broadly applicable and accurate protein design by integrating structure prediction

networks and diffusion generative models. Preprint at bioRxiv, 2022.2012.2009.519842 (2022).

https://doi.org:10.1101/2022.12.09.519842

45   Ingraham, J., Garg, V., Barzilay, R. & Jaakkola, T. Generative models for graph-based protein design.

Advances in neural information processing systems **32** (2019).

46   Zavrtanik, U. & Hadzi, S. A non-redundant data set of nanobody-antigen crystal structures. *Data Brief*

24, 103754 (2019). https://doi.org/10.1016/j.dib.2019.103754

47   Chothia, C. & Lesk, A. M. Canonical structures for the hypervariable regions of immunoglobulins.

Journal of Molecular Biology **196**, 901-917 (1987). https://doi.org:10.1016/0022-2836(87)90412-8

48   Gustaf, A. *et al.* OpenFold: Retraining AlphaFold2 yields new insights into its learning mechanisms

and capacity for generalization. Preprint at bioRxiv, 2022.2011.2020.517210 (2022).

https://doi.org:10.1101/2022.11.20.517210

49   Banks, J. L. *et al.* Integrated Modeling Program, Applied Chemical Theory (IMPACT). *Journal of*

Computational Chemistry **26**, 1752-1780 (2005). https://doi.org:10.1002/jcc.20292

50   Mirdita, M. *et al.* ColabFold: making protein folding accessible to all. *Nature Methods* **19**, 679-682

(2022). https://doi.org:10.1038/s41592-022-01488-1

51   Dunbar, J. & Deane, C. M. ANARCI: antigen receptor numbering and receptor classification.

Bioinformatics **32**, 298-300 (2016). https://doi.org:10.1093/bioinformatics/btv552

52   Levy, E. D. A simple definition of structural regions in proteins and its use in analyzing interface

evolution. *Journal of Molecular Biology* **403**, 660-670 (2010).

https://doi.org:10.1016/j.jmb.2010.09.028

53   Honegger, A. & Pluckthun, A. Yet another numbering scheme for immunoglobulin variable domains:

an automatic modeling and analysis tool. *Journal of Molecular Biology* **309**, 657-670 (2001).

https://doi.org:10.1006/jmbi.2001.4662

54   Salomon-Ferrer, R., Case, D. A. & Walker, R. C. An overview of the Amber biomolecular simulation

package. *Wiley Interdisciplinary Reviews: Computational Molecular Science* **3**, 198-210 (2013).

https://doi.org:10.1002/wcms.1121

55   Tian, C. *et al.* ff19SB: Amino-Acid-Specific Protein Backbone Parameters Trained against Quantum

596   Mechanics Energy Surfaces in Solution. *Journal of Chemical Theory and Computation* **16**, 528-552

597   (2020). https://doi.org:10.1021/acs.jctc.9b00591

598   56   Izadi, S., Anandakrishnan, R. & Onufriev, A. V. Building Water Models: A Different Approach. *Journal*

599   *of Physical Chemistry Letters* **5**, 3863-3871 (2014). https://doi.org:10.1021/jz501780a

602 **Tables**

603 Table 1. Performance of H3-OPT with different PLMs

	RMSDCα (Å)
H3-OPT	2.24 ± 1.05
AF2	2.85 ± 0.69
ESM2	2.31 ± 1.13
Without PLM	2.41 ± 1.26
AntiBERTy	2.49 ± 1.42
ProtTrans-T5	2.40 ± 1.28

606   Table 2. Comparison of binding affinities obtained from MD simulations using AF2 and H3-

607   OPT .

| PDBID | AF2 (kcal/mol) | | AF2 RMSD$_{C\alpha}$ (Å) | H3-OPT (kcal/mol) | | H3-OPT RMSD$_{C\alpha}$ (Å) | Experiment (kcal/mol) | |
	MM/ GBSA	MM/ PBSA		MM/ GBSA	MM/ PBSA		MM/ GBSA	MM/ PBSA
6flc	-0.01	-0.21	2.87	-17.68	-27.50	2.92	-27.61	-30.80
4qhu	0.09	-11.95	1.21	-29.69	-35.21	1.51	1.22	-1.44
4xnq	-13.50	-22.29	2.73	-37.31	-35.63	0.47	-31.05	-30.00
6kyz	-24.67	-29.30	4.01	-17.05	-29.01	3.70	-35.03	-36.92
3l95	-6.41	-30.38	2.52	-32.57	-55.34	2.52	-59.15	-73.97
5f7y	-40.90	-52.40	2.68	-77.05	-94.92	1.42	-51.91	-64.40
6u9s	-48.93	-49.30	1.04	-0.02	0.38	1.29	-57.66	-65.42
3u30	-34.10	-39.69	2.63	-38.83	-41.85	2.47	-40.82	-40.73
4cni	7.12	-3.93	1.00	-38.14	-47.16	1.32	1.58	-1.80
4nbz	-34.03	-40.83	1.89	-63.01	-70.99	0.59	-77.85	-84.35
5e5m	-61.29	-66.17	3.02	-33.61	-43.65	7.29	-73.69	-79.68
4ydl	-43.28	-59.15	4.79	-39.22	-54.10	3.61	-58.48	-79.55
6plk	1.78	-3.31	5.80	-0.10	-15.25	5.05	-12.07	-20.78
6pyd	-48.44	-58.57	0.96	-40.74	-44.89	1.07	-42.60	-45.29
2yc1	-30.98	-38.46	2.28	-60.53	-64.99	1.53	-45.29	-54.09
2ghw	-39.90	-43.52	2.65	-8.96	-15.82	2.97	-36.03	-35.95
6o9h	-5.27	-10.97	2.83	-31.53	-34.72	0.59	-1.96	-2.98
Average	-24.87	-32.97	2.64	-33.30	-41.80	2.37	-38.14	-44.01

609   Table 3. Features to the model. N$_{res}$ is the number of residues.[28]

Feature & Shape	Description
Amino acid type [N_{res}, 21]	One-hot representation of the input amino acid sequence (including 20 amino acids and unknown)
3D coordinates [N_{res}, 3]	Cα coordinates of all AlphaFold2 predicted residues
backbone torsion angles [N_{res}, 6]	Sine and cosine encoding of all predicted three backbone torsion angles
Torsion angles mask [N_{res}, 3]	A mask indicating if the angle was presented in the predicted structure.
H3 residue mask [N_{res}, 1]	A mask indicating if the residue was located in H3 loop.
Pairwise distances [N_{res}, N_{res}, 39]	One hot representation of residue alpha carbon atoms distance. The pairwise distances ranging from 3.25 Å to 50.75 Å were put into 38 bins equally and the last bin contained any larger distances.
Pairwise amino acid type [N_{res}, N_{res}, 21]	One-hot representation of the input amino acid sequence.

611   Table 4. Hyperparameters for H3-OPT models

Model	2	5	1	3	Best
Initial learning rate	1^{-4}	5^{-4}	1^{-3}	5^{-4}	1^{-4}
Hidden layers	64	64	64	64	64
Iterations numbers of Evoformer-like layer	6	6	4	4	4
Average $RMSD_{C\alpha}$(Å)	2.42	2.36	2.35	2.33	2.24

Figures

Fig. 1 | H3-OPT architecture. a, Schematic for dataset preparation. Structures were

screened from the SAbDab database based on resolution and sequence identity. Clustering

of the filtered, high-resolution structures yielded three datasets for training, validation, and

testing. **b,** The workflow of H3-OPT includes two modules. The template module determines

whether to use PSPM, while the PSPM module optimizes the AF2 input structures. **c,** The

Template module retains AF2-predicted loops when the confidence score is greater than 0.8

and grafts CDR-H3 loops onto AF2 models for structures with an available template. **d,** In

the PSPM, the network extracts residue-level information and pairwise residue

representations from the AF2-predicted models, which are subsequently updated using

weight-sharing blocks and concatenated with sequence representations from ESM2. The

resulting data is used to predict the 3D coordinates of the H3 loops.

Fig. 2 | Template module and ablation studies. a, Side-by-side comparison of Cα-

RMSDs of AF2 and IgFold for Sub1 (n = 52); color scale for data points reflects CDR3

length. AF2 outperformed IgFold for targets left of the dashed diagonal; IgFold

outperformed AF2 for targets right of the dashed diagonal. **b,** Correlations between AF2

confidence score and amino acid sequence length of CDR-H3 loops. Datapoint color

indicates Cα-RMSD value for that target. The correlation coefficient for confidence score

and CDR-H3 loop length is –0.5921. **c,** The accuracy of H3-OPT in 3 subgroups of the test

set. ΔCα-RMSDs were calculated by subtracting the RMSD$_{Cα}$ of AF2 from that of H3-OPT.

AF2 had higher accuracy for targets above the dashed line; H3-OPT had better accuracy

for structures below the dashed line. **d,** Differences in H3-OPT accuracy without the

template module. **e,** Differences in H3-OPT accuracy without the CBM. **f,** Differences in H3-

OPT accuracy without the TGM.

Fig. 3 | PSPM module. a, Side-by-side comparison of Cα-RMSDs for AF2 and IgFold in the

Sub2 (n = 46) and Sub3 (n = 33) test sets. **b**, Comparison of prediction accuracy between

AF2 and H3-OPT for Sub2 and Sub3 targets. Metrics including RMSDs, TM-scores, and

GDT-scores were used to quantitatively assess similarity between predicted and

experimental structures. **c,** Comparison of prediction accuracy between AF2 and H3-OPT

using six metrics ($RMSD_{Cα}$, $RMSD_{backbone}$, $RMSD_{sidechain}$, TM-score, GDT-TS score and

GDT-HA score). Radar plots of the mean values of different methods and metrics in

predictions of Sub2 and Sub3 targets.

Fig. 4 | Accuracy of CDR-H3 loop prediction by H3-OPT. a, The performance of H3-OPT

in the test set (n_{mAbs} = 119, n_{Nbs} = 12) relative to other methods. **b**, The performance of H3-

OPT in structural predictions of 3 subgroups of the test set (n = 52, 46, and 33). **c,** H3-OPT

structural predictions for three anti-VEGF nanobodies (PDB ID: 8IIU, 8IJZ, 8IJS).

Fig. 5 | Analysis of surface patches. a, Analysis of surface amino acids for predicted H3

loops. Y-axis represents average number of surface residues for H3 loops (n = 131). **b,**

Histogram of surface patches with different properties predicted by H3-OPT, AF2, or

experimentally solved H3 loops. Error bars show standard deviations. **c,** Solvent-accessible

surface area (SASA) analysis of predicted H3 loops. Values represent the difference in

SASA between predicted and experimentally determined H3 structures using AF2 or H3-

OPT. **d,** Comparison of the charged surface patches between H3-OPT and AF2 for target

PDBID: 5U3P. Surface colors: Blue, positive charge; red, negative charge.

Fig.6 | Accuracy of H3-OPT predictions of antibody-antigen interactions. a,

Performance of H3-OPT in binding site prediction. comparison of prediction accuracy

between H3-OPT and AF2 for antibody-antigen binding sites (n = 27). Box represents

interquartile range (IQR); horizontal line in the center of the box shows median. **b,**

Comparison of the mean squared errors of residue pairs between H3-OPT and AF2 under

different distance thresholds. The x-axis represents the experimentally determined distance

between pairs of contacting residues at the binding site in the native structure. Y-axis shows

mean squared errors of H3-OPT and AF2. **c,** Heatmaps of the frequency of pairwise

residue-residue contacts across antibody-antigen interfaces. This analysis compares

contact frequency of H3 loops predicted by AF2 or H3-OPT with the native structure. Darker

shading indicates greater difference in contact frequency. **d,** The predicted H3 loops of two

targets interacting with antigens (PDB: 2YC1, 6O9H). The epitopes are highlighted in red

and antibody chains are green. H3-OPT could identify the epitopes of different antigens that

form the complementary binding interface(s) for the CDR-H3 of antibodies.

Extended Data Fig. 1| Solvent-accessible surface area analysis of predicted H3 loops.

The values represent the difference in SASA between H3 structures predicted by AF2 or

H3-OPT and experimentally determined structures. Positive values indicate that the

predicted structures have more exposed surface area compared to the native structures;

negative values indicate less exposed surface area.

Extended Data Fig. 2| Side-by-side comparison of the Cα-RMSDs of H3-OPT and

IgFold for moderate difficulty targets (n = 46) and challenging predictions (n = 33)

(Without TM). Each point represents the Cα-RMSD values of different methods.

Extended Data Fig. 3| Comparison of accuracy between AF2, H3-OPT, and tFold-Ab

methods using the CAMEO 2022 benchmark dataset. The x-axis represents different

targets; y-axis represents Cα-RMSD values.

a

Clustering cutoff: 0.8

Train Valid Test

Resolution <= 2.5 Å

Identity <= 95 %

b

AF2 model → Template module → PLM-based structure prediction module → Optimized CDR-H3 loop

c

High confidence → AF2 prediction

Low confidence → Has template → Y → Template grafting

→ N → H3-OPT prediction

Confidence-based module | Template-grafting module | H3-OPT outputs

d

Input sequence: QVQL...DYG...VTVS → Pre-trained protein language model → Fine-tuning → Sequence embeddings

AlphaFold2 prediction

AF2 model

Residue representations

Pair representations

Blocks with shared weights

Self-attention with bias

Outer product mean

Triangle update modules

Linear layers

Structure refinement

Optimized CDR-H3 loop

a

b

c

H3-OPT   IgFold   Experiment

Cα-RMSD = 1.510 Å

Cα-RMSD = 2.776 Å

H3-OPT   IgFold   Experiment

Cα-RMSD = 1.541 Å

Cα-RMSD = 2.888 Å

H3-OPT   IgFold   Experiment

Cα-RMSD = 1.411 Å

Cα-RMSD = 2.448 Å

a

b

c

d

AF2

Cα-RMSD: 4.60 Å

H3-OPT

Cα-RMSD: 2.26 Å

Experiment

Extended Data Fig 1

Extended Data Fig 2

Extended Data Fig 3