Token-Level Guided Discrete Diffusion for Membrane Protein Design

Abstract

Reparameterized diffusion models (RDMs) have recently matched autoregressive methods in protein generation, motivating their application to membrane proteins, which contain interleaved soluble and transmembrane (TM) regions. We present the ***MeMbrane Diffusion Language Model*** (MeMDLM), a fine-tuned RDM-based protein language model for controllable membrane protein design. MeMDLM-generated sequences recapitulate the TM residue density and structural features of natural proteins and outperform state-of-the-art diffusion baselines in motif scaffolding with lower perplexity, higher BLOSUM-62 scores, and improved pLDDT confidence. To introduce specific functional properties in our designs, we develop Per-Token Guidance (PET), a classifier-guided sampling strategy that solubilizes sequences while preserving conserved TM domains, reducing TM density without disrupting functional cores. Importantly, MeMDLM designs validated in TOXCAT β-lactamase wet lab assays insert into membranes, distinguishing high-quality from poor designs. Together, MeMDLM and PET establish the first experimentally validated diffusion-based framework for rational membrane protein generation.

1 Introduction

Membrane proteins regulate molecular transport, signal transduction, and cellular communication Jelokhani-Niaraki [2022], and their ability to bind ligands or undergo conformational changes makes them critical drug targets across diverse diseases [Sanganna Gari et al., 2021]. Beyond natural functions, *de novo* membrane protein design offers a therapeutic strategy for engineering specific and stable proteins that modulate signaling, transport, and immunity, with applications in cancer and neurological disorders [Jelokhani-Niaraki, 2022]. However, current design pipelines depend on structure prediction networks [Wang et al., 2022, Yin et al., 2007, Elazar et al., 2022], but membrane proteins account for only ∼1% of the PDB, limiting training fidelity; physics-based models face similar challenges due to iterative optimization and poor treatment of membrane environments [Vorobieva et al., 2021]. As a result, most designs remain restricted to simple helical or β-barrel folds with low sequence complexity. Topology predictors such as DeepLoc and AllesTM can identify helices and localization but only analyze existing sequences rather than support *de novo* generation [Thumuluri et al., 2022, Hönigschmid et al., 2020], and prior efforts at designing zinc-transporting helices or small scaffolds often require templates and manual intervention [Joh et al., 2014]. What remains missing is a generative framework that can autonomously produce membrane protein sequences with controllable features, including TM helices, soluble domains, and higher-order topologies, without reliance on predetermined scaffolds [Goverde et al., 2024]. To address this, we introduce **MeMDLM**, a discrete diffusion protein language model for rational membrane protein design (Figure 1), incorporating ***PEr-Token Guidance*** (PET), a classifier-guided sampling method that integrates attention scores and classifier rewards to optimize tokens during inference. Unlike conventional classifier guidance [Gruver et al., 2024, Li et al., 2024, Vignac et al., 2022, Dhariwal

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Figure 1: **MeMDLM Schematic**. **A)** RDM-based model training diagram. **B)** AlphaFold3 visualizations of unconditional samples. **C)** Token-level classifier guided diffusion sampling with PET algorithm.

and Nichol, 2021, Tang et al., 2025, Chen et al., 2025], PET explicitly preserves conserved TM-like residues essential for topology, enabling MeMDLM to generate biologically plausible proteins with α-helical structures and to solubilize natural membrane proteins while retaining critical TM domains. Together, MeMDLM and PET establish a sequence-first framework for controllable membrane protein design with broad applications in therapeutics, drug delivery, and synthetic biology.

2 Methods

Language Modeling for Proteins Let $\mathbf{x} = (x^1, \dots, x^L) \in \{0, 1\}^{L \times |\mathcal{V}|}$ denote a discrete protein sequence of length L, with tokens one-hot over vocabulary $\mathcal{V}$ of amino acids and special tokens [Lin et al., 2023]. Under the RDM framework [Zheng et al., 2023], the forward process corrupts tokens into a stationary prior q_{noise} via

$$q(\mathbf{x}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{t-1}) = \alpha_t \mathbf{x}_0 + (1 - \alpha_t) q_{\text{noise}}, \quad \alpha_t = 1 - t/T, \quad (1)$$

with an absorbing state $\mathbf{x}_T = \{[\text{MASK}]\}^L$. The training objective reduces to a weighted cross-entropy:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{RDM}} = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_0)} \left[\lambda_t \sum_{i=1}^{L} b^i(t) \cdot \log p_\theta(x_0^i \mid \mathbf{x}_t) \right], \quad (2)$$

where $b^i(t) = \mathbf{1}_{x_t^i \neq x_0^i}$ and $\lambda_t = T - (t - 1)$. Additional derivations and training details are in Supplementary A.1 and B.2.

2.1 Path-Planning Sampling

At inference, we adopt Path-Planning (P2) sampling [Peng et al., 2025], which remasks tokens of low model confidence instead of unmasking uniformly. Candidate tokens are drawn via Gumbel-softmax,

$$x_{t-1}^i = \arg\max_v \left(\log \text{softmax} \left(\frac{z_{t-1}^{i,v}}{\tau} \right) + g^{i,v} \right), \quad g^{i,v} \sim \text{Gumbel}(0, 1), \quad (3)$$

and resampling is applied to the $K = \lfloor (1 - \kappa_t) |\mathcal{R}_t| \rfloor$ positions with lowest $s_t^i = \log p_\theta(x_t^i)$. This progressively fixes high-confidence tokens while refining uncertain ones, yielding improved diversity and stability (Supplementary B.3, Algorithm 2).

2.2 Per-Token Classifier Guided Sampling

To enable controllable solubilization, we introduce *Per-Token Guidance* (PET), which identifies an editable set $\mathcal{E}$ using a per-residue solubility classifier $v_\phi(h)$. For each token i, we compute context-aware saliency

$$\hat{s}^i = \frac{s^i - \min \mathbf{s}}{\max \mathbf{s} - \min \mathbf{s} + \delta}, \quad \tilde{s}^i = \hat{s}^i + \gamma \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \frac{A_{ij}}{\sum_{j' \in \mathcal{N}(i)} A_{ij'}} \hat{s}^j, \quad (4)$$

where $\mathcal{N}(i)$ is an attention-informed neighborhood from p_θ. Editable tokens are updated using a mixture distribution

$$\log P(x_t^i) = (1 - w^i) \cdot \log p_\theta(x_t^i) + w^i \cdot \pi(x_t^i), \quad w^i = \sigma(\alpha \tilde{s}^i), \qquad (5)$$

with temporal prior $\pi(x_t^i) = \log p_\theta(x_{t-1}^i)$. This biases conserved TM residues toward the prior while allowing flexible updates at non-critical sites, preserving membrane protein character while enhancing solubility (Supplementary B.4, Algorithm 3).

2.3 TOXCAT-β-Lactamase Growth Assay

We used the TOXCAT-β-lactamase assay to evaluate membrane insertion and TM association of MeMDLM-generated sequences [Russ and Engelman, 1999, Lis and Blumenthal, 2006]. Candidate designs were cloned between an N-terminal ToxR transcriptional activator and a C-terminal periplasmic β-lactamase in the pMAL_dstβL vector and transformed into *E. coli* Cloni cells. Single colonies were grown in LB with spectinomycin (50 μg/mL), diluted to $OD_{600} = 0.05$, and normalized to 1.95×10^5 cells per well in 96-well plates. Cultures were assayed under carbenicillin (300 μg/mL) to test insertion, or under carbenicillin (100 μg/mL) plus chloramphenicol (100–120 μg/mL) to test TM-driven oligomerization. Plates were incubated at 37°C with shaking in a BioTek Synergy H1 reader, and OD_{600} was measured every 10 minutes for 24 hours. Successful insertion positions β-lactamase in the periplasm to hydrolyze carbenicillin, while oligomerization activates ToxR and the *ctx* promoter, conferring chloramphenicol resistance.

3 Results

Given the limited availability of experimentally verified membrane structures, we focused on sequence-based metrics (Supplementary B.5). Notably, we computed the TM Residue Density of the generated sequences by predicting TM and soluble residue regions with DeepTMHMM [Hallgren et al., 2022]. To realize this comparison, we utilized all 1,098 sequences from the MeMDLM model test set as the basis for our experiments, yielding a realistic evaluation of sequence plausability and membrane character.

	PLDDT (↑)	TM RESIDUE DENSITY	PPL (↓)	ENTROPY (↑)
Test Set	76.637	0.294	5.707	3.918
MeMDLM	67.410	0.311	6.344	3.743

Table 1: Computational validation of generated and experimentally validated membrane proteins

Table 1 compares various metrics of experimentally annotated membrane proteins with *de novo*-generated sequences. The results show that MeMDLM generates sequences with a soluble residue density closely matching that of experimentally verified membrane proteins, indicating that MeMDLM has successfully learned their underlying distribution (Supplementary A1).

Figure 2: Growth curves of MeMDLM-generated TM sequences under carbenicillin (300 μg/mL).

To validate MeMDLM's *de novo* generative capabilities in bacterial cells, we selected three top-ranked single-pass designs ("GoodTM") and two low-ranked sequences ("PoorTM") for experimental testing in *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) using TOXCAT-β-lactamase bacterial growth assays [Lis and Blumenthal, 2006], which employ a dual-reporter system for evaluating membrane insertion and oligomerization of single-pass peptides and proteins [Russ and Engelman, 1999, Lis and Blumenthal, 2006, Ottemann and Mekalanos, 1995, Armstrong and Senes, 2016, Elazar et al., 2016] (Supplementary B.6, C.3). (Supplementary B.6, C.3). Figure 2 shows the TOXCAT growth curves for poor and high-quality MeMDLM sequences alongside the positive insertion controls GpA and CLS (Supplementary A5). Under carbenicillin selection (300 μg/mL),

GpA, CLS, GoodTM4, GoodTM5, and GoodTM8 exhibited similar growth kinetics, reaching the midpoint of log-phase growth at ∼4 hours, confirming efficient membrane insertion. PoorTM4 failed to grow, resembling negative controls (Supplementary A6), while PoorTM2, containing six charged residues within the predicted TM span, grew with delayed kinetics, indicating weaker insertion. These results show that GoodTM designs support robust TM insertion and that computational ranking effectively discriminates TM-like sequences, with PoorTM constructs further supporting MeMDLM's ability to distinguish functional from non-functional TM designs.

As a natural extension of *de novo* design, we scaffolded around TM and soluble motifs of experimentally annotated membrane proteins. We take the entire test set, comprising 1,098 experimentally verified membrane protein sequences with annotated TM and soluble motifs, and mask out all residues except those in the TM or soluble motif(s). We use these partially masked sequences as input to the models to assay their capability to generate scaffolds conditioned on known TM or soluble motifs. We focused on these domains due to their distinct hydrophilic and hydrophobic regions that govern the folding and thus function of the overall protein.

	pLDDT (↑)		PPL (↓)		BLOSUM-62 (↑)		Entropy (↑)	
	Insol	Sol	Insol	Sol	Insol	Sol	Insol	Sol
Test Set	76.637	76.637	5.707	5.707	–	–	3.918	3.918
EvoDiff	**64.058**	64.036	9.841	4.632	2.176	-0.188	3.841	**3.841**
MeMDLM	62.762	**70.112**	**8.748**	**3.242**	**2.964**	**0.512**	**3.876**	3.803

Table 2: Reconstruction quality comparison of models scaffolding around TM and soluble motifs of 1,098 experimental membrane protein sequences that represent the MeMDLM model test set.

Our results (Table 2, Supplementary A2, A3) show that MeMDLM-inpainted sequences achieve lower average pseudo-perplexities and higher pLDDT and BLOSUM-62 scores relative to EvoDiff-based ([Alamdari et al., 2023]) scaffolds. These results suggest that MeMDLM scaffolds functional motifs with greater confidence while preserving biological relevance compared to SOTA diffusion models. Finally, we apply PET to optimze specific residues spanning the insoluble regions of the test set proteins, observing a decrease in TM Residue Density while still preserving critical TM domains (Table 3, Supplementary A4).

	pLDDT (↑)	TM Residue Density (↓)	PPL (↓)	BLOSUM-62 (↑)	Entropy (↑)
Test Set	76.637	0.294	5.707	–	3.918
MeMDLM	62.979	0.181	8.472	0.495	3.870

Table 3: Computational validation of membrane proteins solubilized under the PET sampling strategy.

As a final validation, we visualize MeMDLM-generated sequences with AlphaFold3 (Supplementary D) and confirm the presence of hallmark membrane protein structures, including α-helical bundles and distinct TM and soluble regions [Zhang et al., 2015].

4 Discussion

In this work, we introduce MeMDLM, the first classifier-guided discrete diffusion language model for *de novo* membrane protein design. MeMDLM leverages masked diffusion to capture long-range dependencies essential for structural and functional integrity. With our Per-Token Guidance (PET) algorithm, MeMDLM enables discrete diffusion guidance on a token-level, enabling us to solubilize existing membrane protein sequences while retaining conserved amino acid tokens. MeMDLM further outperforms existing methods in scaffolding functional motifs by maintaining biological relevance and high similarity to natural proteins. Moving forward, we aim to extend MeMDLM to generate diverse topologies, including β-barrels and higher-order assemblies, and to experimentally validate its designs by assessing structural integrity, solubility, and stability to advance rational membrane protein design for therapeutic applications.

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A Extended Background

A.1 Language Modeling

Masked Language Models Masked Language Models (MLMs) employ Transformer-based archi-
tectures to learn bi-directional sequence context, distant token relationships, and predict the identity
of corrupted (masked) amino acid tokens. The model is trained under a sequence-recovery training
objective:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MLM}} = -\sum_{i \in \mathcal{M}} \log p_\theta(x^i | x^{\setminus \mathcal{M}}) \tag{6}$$

where the set of masked positions $\mathcal{M}$ is a fraction of the sequence tokens. MLMs are strong
representation-learners and excel at understanding both protein and natural languages. However,
training these models to reconstruct only a minor fraction of tokens (15-40%) across a sequence
makes complete *de novo* sequence generation difficult. [Devlin, 2018] [Lin et al., 2023] [Vincoff
et al., 2025].

Autoregression AR language models apply the chain rule to obtain a sequential factorization.
These models are trained to maximize the log-likelihood of the data:

$$\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x})} \log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}) = \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x})} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}^i | \mathbf{x}^{1:L}) \tag{7}$$

New samples can be drawn ancestrally in L steps $(x^1 \sim p_\theta(x^1), \ldots, x^L \sim p_\theta(x^L | x^{1:L-1}))$ following
a strictly left-to-right unidirectional protocol. These models are a viable choice for natural language
modeling schemes where a linear relationship between past and present values is inherently assumed.
However, in biological contexts, such as protein sequences, AR models are limited by their inability
to capture non-linear and long-range dependencies. For example, multi-pass membrane proteins
consist of interleaved TM and soluble regions that are spatially and functionally coupled but may be
separated by long sequence distances.

Denoising Diffusion Models Diffusion models are a class of generative models defined by
Markov processes [Ho et al., 2020] [Sohl-Dickstein et al., 2015]. The *forward* diffusion steps
$q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T}|\mathbf{x}_0) = \prod_{t=1}^{T} q(\mathbf{x}_t | \mathbf{x}_{t-1})$ progressively corrupt an initial data sample $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim q(\mathbf{x}_0)$ into a noisy
prior $\mathbf{x}_T \sim q_{\text{noise}}$ across T timesteps. The noise distribution q_{noise} typically corresponds to an
isotropic Gaussian, $\mathcal{N}(0, I)$, in continuous latent spaces, or a uniform categorical distribution over
the vocabulary, $\text{Cat}(|\mathcal{V}|)$, in the discrete case. During inference, the learned *backward* process
$p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{0:T}) = p(\mathbf{x}_t) \prod_{t=1}^{T} p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t)$ gradually denoises the corrupted data sample to obtain samples
from the true data distribution. Diffusion models are trained to maximize the evidence lower bound
(ELBO):

$$\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_0)} \left[\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_0) \right] \geq \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_{0:T})} \left[\log \frac{p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{0:T})}{q(\mathbf{x}_{1:T} \mid \mathbf{x}_0)} \right]$$

$$= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_0)} \left[\log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_0 \mid \mathbf{x}_1) + \text{const.} - \sum_{t=2}^{T} \underbrace{\text{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \mid \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_0) \parallel p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \mid \mathbf{x}_t) \right)}_{\mathcal{F}_t} \right] \tag{8}$$

New data samples can be drawn by sampling from $q_{\text{noise}}(\mathbf{x}_T)$ and iteratively applying the learned
denoising process $p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) = p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t)$. Various authors ([Sahoo et al., 2024], [Zheng et al.,
2023]) have made simplifying assumptions about the reverse process to derive a computationally
inexpensive loss function that reduces to a weighted negative log-likelihood, akin to a weighted form
of Eq. 6.

 A.2 Classifier-Guided Sampling

Preliminaries Given a property y, guided diffusion aims to maximize $q(y|\mathbf{x})$ by sampling from the joint distribution $\mathbf{x} \sim q(\mathbf{x}_0, y)$. Therefore, the reverse transition can be conditioned on the property value y and prior sequence samples. Using Bayes theorem, the conditional joint distribution can be decomposed:

$$q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, y) = \frac{q(y|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)}{q(y|\mathbf{x}_t)} \tag{9}$$

In practice, the true distribution of $q(y|\mathbf{x}_t)$ is unknown and can be learned with a neural network $p_\phi(y|\mathbf{x}_t)$. To yield a tractable marginal reverse transition from Eq. 9, we can substitute the true distribution $q(\cdot)$ with our learned neural networks:

$$p_{\theta,\phi}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, y) = \frac{p_\theta(y|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}, \mathbf{x}_t)}{p_\phi(y|\mathbf{x}_t)} \tag{10}$$

The normalization term in the denominator $p_\phi(y|\mathbf{x}_t)$ can be safely dropped since the model's parameters learn the normalized distribution. We can update the parameters θ, ϕ at each iteration in the direction given by the gradient

$$\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_{t-1}} \log p_{\theta,\phi}(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t, y) = \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_{t-1}} \log p_\phi(y|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) + \nabla_{\mathbf{x}_{t-1}} \log p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t-1}|\mathbf{x}_t) \tag{11}$$

With this formulation, we can steer the denoising trajectory of the unconditional diffusion model to maximize the target attribute y using gradients from an external classifier [Dhariwal and Nichol, 2021]. Unlike classifier-free guidance, classifier-guidance prevents expensive retraining of existing denoising network on high-quality, task-specific labeled data and opens avenues for flexible, plug-and-play conditioning for various downstream applications.

Discrete Classifier Guidance While classifier guidance is well-formulated for diffusion models that operate over continuous data in Euclidean space [Dhariwal and Nichol, 2021], applying it to discrete spaces requires additional approximation. One common approach treats discrete tokens as continuous relaxations on the probability simplex and uses a first-order Taylor expansion around $\mathbf{x}_t$ to approximate $\log p_\phi(y|\mathbf{x}_{t-1})$ by making $\nabla_{\mathbf{x}_t}(\cdot)$ a valid operator. However, this approximation can be inaccurate when the local linearization poorly captures the classifier's behavior over discrete transitions, especially in regions with sharp decision boundaries. To remedy this, several methods ([Li et al., 2024], [Vignac et al., 2022]) have been proposed to circumvent the lack of continuous representations in discrete gradient guidance; most relevant to our work is LaMBO-2 introduced by [Gruver et al., 2024].

LaMBO-2 To realize classifier-guidance for discrete sequences, LaMBO-2 first conducts sequence optimization using a Langevin process over a property-informed latent space. We begin with the discrete Langevin dynamics used in score-based models:

$$\mathbf{x}'_t = \mathbf{x}_t - \eta \nabla_\mathbf{x} \log p_\theta(y \mid \mathbf{x}_t) + \sqrt{2\eta\tau}\,\boldsymbol{\epsilon}, \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I), \tag{12}$$

and generalize this update to the continuous latent space $h'_t \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times D}$ guided by a differentiable surrogate of the discrete generative model. The batch size dimension B is set to 1 for simplicity. The latent update step is defined as:

$$h'_t \leftarrow h'_t - \eta \nabla_{h'_t} [\lambda \mathrm{KL}(p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|h'_t) \,||\, p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|h_t)) - \sigma(v_\theta(h'_t)_d)] + \sqrt{2\eta\tau}\,\boldsymbol{\epsilon}, \quad \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, I) \tag{13}$$

with step size η, temperature τ, and regularization strength λ, where the sigmoid operator $\sigma(\cdot)$ can be applied to produce a sequence-level binary class probability from the classifier's unnormalized logit. The explore-exploit loss $\mathcal{L}_{\mathrm{EE}} := \lambda[\mathrm{KL}(p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|h'_t) \,||\, p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t|h_t)] - \sigma(v_\theta(h'_t)_d)$ guides the latent representation towards high values of the property with the gradient $\nabla_h \sigma(v_\theta(h))$, while the KL

term ensures the transition distribution maximizes the original sequence likelihood. Given a discrete sequence $\mathbf{x}_t$ and its corresponding latent representation h_t, one can take N Langevin steps of Eq. 13 to realize optimized sequence latent representations before using the language-modeling head of the denoising network to project continuous embeddings to the discrete logit space ([Gruver et al., 2024], Appendix B.2). However, this construction does not guarantee the retention of specific tokens during inference because even if gradients are suppressed for particular positions, the subsequent projection through the language modeling head back into discrete logits does not ensure that the tokens with minimal gradient updates will be preserved.

B Extended Methods

B.1 Dataset Curation

MeMDLM   Bioassembly structures from X-ray scattering or electron microscopy with better than 3.5 Å resolution, annotated by PDBTM1, mpstruc2, OPM3, or MemProtMD4, were used to curate membrane protein sequences for fine-tuning. *de novo* designed membrane proteins were added manually to the database. The proteins were culled at 100% sequence identity and 30% sequence identity to result in a non-redundant set and a sequence-diverse set, respectively. Integral membrane residues, defined as residues with at least one atom within the bilayer, were parsed from the resulting bioassembly structures using the membrane boundaries predicted by PPM 3.0 [Lomize et al., 2021]. From the dataset of integral membrane residues, only structures with at least one TM chain spanning the entire membrane bilayer were included in the dataset. Additionally, chains without integral membrane residues were removed from the structure. All peripheral membrane proteins, defined as proteins with no TM chain, were filtered out. The TM protein sequences at the two sequence identity cut-offs and the Python script that parses the sequences from the PPM predictions are included in the SI. After these steps, 9,329 sequences with corresponding per-residue annotations remained. To augment this set of sequences, we obtained 2,579 unique PDB IDs from the Orientations of Proteins in Membranes (OPM) database with the provided "subunits" file [Lomize et al., 2006]. PDB IDs were converted to corresponding protein sequences and per-residue labels (TM or soluble) were assigned using the subunits file. The final set of 11,908 TM sequences were then split using the MMSeqs2 easy clustering module with a minimum sequence identity of 80% and a coverage threshold of 50%. The resulting clusters were split to an 80-10-10 ratio into the training set (9,802 sequences, 82.31%), the validation set (1,008 sequences, 8.47%), and the testing set (1,098 sequences, 9.22%).

PET Sampling Classifier   We leveraged the same train/test/val set of 11,908 membrane sequences from the MeMDLM dataset to develop a binary classifier that predicts the solubility of each amino acid within a protein sequence. Each sequence was annotated on a per-residue basis, with TM (class 1) and soluble (class 0) labels assigned according to the sequence's uppercase and lowercase residues, respectively.

B.2 Modeling MeMDLM

Reparameterized Diffusion Models   MeMDLM is built on the Reparameterized Diffusion Model (RDM) framework [Zheng et al., 2023]. We define $\text{CAT}(x; \mathbf{p})$ as the categorcial distribution on the discrete sequence $\mathbf{x}$ governed by the vector $\mathbf{p} \in \Delta^{|\mathcal{V}|-1}$, where $\Delta^{|\mathcal{V}|-1}$ denotes the $(|\mathcal{V}| - 1)$-dimensional probability simplex. Given a stationary noise distribution $\mathbf{q}_{\text{noise}}$, we define the unconditional prior as $q(\mathbf{x}_t) = \prod_{i=1}^{L} \text{CAT}(x_t^i; \mathbf{q}_{\text{noise}})$. We can then write the *forward* diffusion process as a transition kernel defined in closed-form as a convex combination of clean data and noise:

$$q(\mathbf{x}_t|\mathbf{x}_{t-1}) = \alpha_t \mathbf{x}_0 + (1 - \alpha_t)q_{noise} \qquad (14)$$

where $\alpha_t = \prod_{i=1}^{t} \beta_i = 1 - t/T$ is a linear noise schedule. This transition distribution in Eq. 14 shows that the forward process is ultimately a convex combination of α_t, the probability of clean data $\mathbf{x}_0$ remaining unchanged, and $1 - \alpha_t$, the probability of $\mathbf{x}_0$ transitioning to the [MASK] token. By sampling $t \sim \mathcal{U}(0, T = 500)$, we can determine the identity of a token at the given timestep of the forward process:

$$x_t^i = \begin{cases} [\text{MASK}] & \text{if } u_i < \frac{t}{T}, \quad u_i \sim \text{Uniform}(0,1) \\ x_0^i & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \tag{15}$$

Importantly, the forward noising process is characterized by an *absorbing state*: $\lim_{t \to T} \alpha_t = \lim_{t \to T}(1 - t/T) = 0$, indicating all tokens are guaranteed to be replaced by noise. During inference, MeMDLM$_\theta$ must *denoise* a fully masked sequence $\mathbf{x}_T = \{[\text{MASK}]_{i=1}^L\}$, rendering the absorbing state a necessary ingredient of the forward noising process. In Section 2.1, we formally outline a generalized denoising framework from [Peng et al., 2025] to obtain samples from masked diffusion models (e.g., RDMs).

Loss Function   Following the proof in [Wang et al., 2024] (Appendix A), the RDM framework simplifies the ELBO (Eq. 8) by breaking down the KL-divergence term to yield a simplified training objective:

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{L}_{\text{RDM}} &= -\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_0)} \, \text{KL} \left[q(\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \mid \mathbf{x}_t, \mathbf{x}_0) \parallel p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_{t-1} \mid \mathbf{x}_t) \right] \\ &= \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{x}_0)} \left[\lambda_t \sum_{i=1}^{L} b^i(t) \cdot \log p_\theta(x_0^i \mid \mathbf{x}_t) \right] \end{aligned} \tag{16}$$

where $\lambda_t := T - (t - 1)$ represents a linear, time-dependent coefficient and $b^i(t) = \mathbf{1}_{x_t^i \neq x_0^i}$. In practice, $\mathcal{L}_{\text{RDM}}$ can easily be computed using the cross-entropy loss between logits and sequence labels. In Supplementary B.2, we detail the specific architectural and training schemes used to construct MeMDLM.

Model Architecture   EvoFlow is a protein language model consisting of 33 Transformer-encoder layers and a language modeling head that is capable of *de novo* generating protein sequences. More formally, it can denoise a protein sequence consisting of all [MASK] tokens, making it a natural choice for a discrete diffusion-based protein language model. We use the pre-trained EvoFlow protein language model checkpoint (`https://huggingface.co/fredzzp/EvoFlow-650M-context-3070`) as the basis of our neural network p_θ since EvoFlow was trained under the RDM framework (forward process as defined by Eq. 14 and loss computation defined by Eq. 16). The Diffusion Protein Language Model (DPLM) was also trained under the RDM framework by [Wang et al., 2024] and is thereby an alternative choice for p_θ. However, we opt for EvoFlow over DPLM as the architecture for p_θ as DPLM is restricted by its shorter context length of 1,024 tokens, compared to EvoFlow's extended context length of 3,070 tokens.

Training   To achieve membrane protein-specific generation, we fine-tuned EvoFlow by selectively updating a subset of the encoder's attention layers. Specifically, the final $N = 3$ Transformer encoder layers $\{\mathcal{L}_{M-N+1}, \ldots, \mathcal{L}_M\}$ are partially unfrozen, where $M = 33$ is the total number of encoder layers. Within each layer, we enable gradient updates to only the key, query, and value projection matrices (W_K, W_Q, and W_V) of the self-attention mechanism and keep all other weights frozen. With this training recipe, we bias the pre-existing EvoFlow latent space with physicochemical features of membrane proteins without overfitting on the new sequences. MeMDLM was trained to minimize the objective in Eq. 16 on a 4xA6000 NVIDIA DGX server with 200 GB of shared VRAM for 3K steps using the AdamW optimizer (betas=($\beta_1 = 0.99, \beta_2 = 0.98$), weight decay $\lambda = 0.01$), a learning rate (LR) of 4×10^{-5} with a cosine schedule (150 warmup steps, LR minimum = 1×10^{-5}).

B.3   Path-Planning Sampling

Initial Token Sampling   Beginning with a fully masked sequence $\mathbf{x}_t = \{[\text{MASK}]\}_{i=0}^L$, MeMDLM predicts denoised logits $\mathbf{z}_{t-1} \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times |\mathcal{V}|}$ via $\mathbf{z}_{t-1} = p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t)$ at each timestep. Candidate tokens are sampled from the logits using Gumbel-softmax decoding with temperature parameter τ:

$$x_{t-1}^i = \arg\max_v \left(\log \text{softmax} \left(\frac{z_{t-1}^{i,v}}{\tau} + g^{i,v} \right) \right), \quad \mathbf{g}_i \sim \text{Gumbel}(0, 1) \tag{17}$$

Self-Planning An important requirement of self-planning is resampling low-value tokens using the predictions of the denoising model. Accordingly, we use MeMDLM's log probabilities to compute $s_t^i = \log p_\theta(x_t^i)$, a per-position score, and $\mathcal{R}_t = \mathbf{x}_{t-1}^{\backslash \mathcal{M}}$, the set of unmasked positions $\backslash \mathcal{M}$ eligible for remasking. We select the top-K tokens from $\mathcal{R}_t$ with the lowest log-probability scores s_t^i and remask them. Specifically, we dynamically compute $K = \lfloor (1 - \kappa_t) \cdot |\mathcal{R}_t| \rfloor$ as a fixed proportion of unmasked positions controlled by the monotonic scheduling function $\kappa_t = \kappa(i/N)$, where $i \in \{1, 2, \ldots, N\}$ and $\kappa : [0, 1] \to [0, 1]$. This update forces the token predictions MeMDLM was not confident about (low s_t^i) to be remasked.

Token Resampling We sample new tokens at the remasked positions by copying the most recent denoised tokens from the previous timestep $\mathbf{x}_{t-1}$ into the current sequence $\mathbf{x}_t$ at positions that were masked but are no longer among the K lowest-scoring tokens. This step progressively commits high-confidence tokens while leaving low-confidence regions available for further refinement in future steps, a key advantage over ancestral and greedy sampling schemes. By following the self-planning scheme of P2, no additional model training or overhead is required, providing a lightweight inference mechanism for membrane protein design tasks.

B.4 Per-Token Guidance Sampling

Setup Given a sequence consisting of only amino acid tokens, $\mathbf{x} = \{x_i \in \text{Canonical}\}_{i=1}^L$, PET first identifies a dynamic subset of editable positions $\mathcal{E} \subseteq \{1, \ldots, L\}$ using existing residue annotations or a trained per-token solubility classifier $v_\phi : \mathbb{R}^{B \times L \times D} \to \mathbb{R}^{B \times L}$. This classifier operates over the hidden states h derived from the ESM-2-650M protein language model [Lin et al., 2023] and is trained on fully unmasked sequences. See Section B.4 for full training details regarding v_ϕ.

Determining Editable Residues PET first constructs a set of conserved, *non-editable* token indices $\mathcal{C}$ based on solubility annotations or predictions:

1. If soluble residue annotations $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \{1, 2, \ldots, L\}$ are provided (e.g. experimentally-derived labels for known membrane protein sequences), initialize $\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{S}$.

2. If no annotations are provided, initialize $\mathcal{C} = \{i \in \{1, \ldots, L\} \mid v_\phi(h_t)_i \geq 0.5\}$. Inherently, it is assumed that some $v_\phi(h_t)_i < 0.5$.

Next, we consider low-value tokens, *i.e.*, insoluble amino acids with TM-like character. It is critical to maintain the most conserved TM regions during optimization to maintain the biological plausibility of the membrane protein. Thus, we guide the selection of *unimportant* TM residues under LaMBO-2's definition of a token's *saliency* $s^i(h)$, a score that quantifies a token's importance relative to the classifier v_ϕ [Gruver et al., 2024]. Given a sequence's latent representation, we construct a *saliency map* $\mathbf{s} = (s^1, s^2, \ldots, s^L) \in \mathbb{R}^L$:

$$\mathbf{s}(h) := \max\left\{ \left(\sum_{d=1}^D |\nabla_h v_\phi(h)_d| \right)^{1/\tau}, \quad \epsilon \right\}, \quad \hat{s}^i := \frac{s^i - \min \mathbf{s}}{\max \mathbf{s} - \min \mathbf{s} + \delta} \tag{18}$$

using temperature $\tau = 2.0$ and a ceiling $\epsilon = e^{-4}$ to stabilize gradient noise. Although LaMBO-2 normalizes the saliency map to the probability distribution $P_{\text{edit}}(\mathbf{x}_t) = \mathbf{s} / \sum_i s_i$ ([Gruver et al., 2024], Eq. 5), PET opts for min-max scaling (Eq. 18) to prevent vanishing probabilities for large L. If v_θ is well-trained, high values of $\mathbf{s}$ should correlate with low-value (TM-like) residues. To finalize $\mathcal{C}$, PET selects the top-K most salient tokens:

$$\mathcal{C} = \mathcal{C} \cup \text{top-}K\left(\hat{\mathbf{s}}, K = \max\left\{ 1, \tfrac{1}{10} \cdot (L - |\mathcal{C}|) \right\} \right), \quad \mathcal{E} = \{1, \ldots, L\} \setminus \mathcal{C} \tag{19}$$

Together, these token selection strategies define $\mathcal{E}$, the set of editable token indices. This set excludes soluble and highly salient residues to preserve membrane protein character (TM-like residues) while optimizing for sequence solubility.

Neighborhood Construction. For each editable token $i \in \mathcal{E}$, PET constructs a context-aware *neighborhood* $\mathcal{N}(i)$ based on attention scores. Let $A \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times L}$ be the final-layer attention matrix extracted from p_θ. The neighborhood $\mathcal{N}(i)$ is formed using top-p nucleus sampling over the normalized attention weights $\text{Norm}(A_{i,:}/\tau)$, excluding special tokens and the self-position i; we set $\tau = 1/\log L$ to ensure neighborhood selection is neither overly diffuse in long sequences nor overly narrow in short sequences. Thus, the final neighborhood contains all tokens j such that the cumulative attention probability $\sum_{j' \in \mathcal{N}(i)} A_{ij'}$ exceeds the threshold $p = 0.9$. The construction of an attention-informed neighborhood is necessary to propagate long-range residue information to avoid blindly modifying individual tokens.

Context-Aware Saliency PET then refines a token's raw saliency score s_i with contributions from the token's attention-weighted neighborhood $\mathcal{N}(i)$. The *context-aware saliency* score $\tilde{s}^i$ is defined as:

$$\tilde{s}^i := \hat{s}^i + \gamma \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \frac{A_{ij}}{\sum_{j' \in \mathcal{N}(i)} A_{ij'}} \cdot \hat{s}^j \tag{20}$$

where $\gamma = 0.5$ controls the influence of the neighborhood saliency. Overall, the context-aware saliency blends both the intrinsic importance of the token x^i with the contributions of tokens it attends to most strongly, creating a holistic representation of an individual residue's contribution to sequence-level solubility.

Mixture Distribution Let $\log p_\theta(x_t^i)$ be the log-probability distribution across the vocabulary for a singular token by the language model at timestep t, and let $\pi(x_t^i)$ be a prior token distribution in log-space. To update a token, PET defines a *mixture distribution* $\log P(x_t^i)$ for each editable position $i \in \mathcal{E}$:

$$\log P(x_t^i) = (1 - w^i) \cdot \log p_\theta(x_t^i) + w^i \cdot \pi(x_t^i) \tag{21}$$

By construction, $P(x_t^i)$ remains a valid probability distribution, as it is a convex combination of two normalized distributions. The mixture weight w^i can be computed as:

$$w_i = \sigma(\alpha \cdot \tilde{s}^i) \tag{22}$$

with $\sigma(\cdot)$ denoting the sigmoid function and $\alpha = 5.0$ controlling the sharpness of the transition. Eq. 21 ensures that an updated token's distribution is biased towards the prior when $\tilde{s}^i$ is large since $s_i \to 1$ when $v_\theta(h_t^i) \to 0$. Biologically, this corresponds to a residue with high TM-like character that is thus conserved and should remain fixed. Conversely, when $\tilde{s}^i$ is small, PET favors the model's default prediction, allowing more flexibility in low-saliency (non-critical) positions.

Prior Distribution In order to consutrct the mixture distribution, we define a *temporal prior* $\pi(x_t^i) := \log p_\theta(x_{t-1}^i)$ in PET sampling that leverages the denoising model's log probabilities from a previous diffusion timestep. This formulation maintains the likelihood of the original sequence while encouraging updates from the mixture weighting in Eq. 21.

Token Sampling and Preservation. A new token $\hat{x}^i$ is sampled from $P(x^i)$ for each position $i \in \mathcal{E}$. By design, PET will not update positions $j \notin \mathcal{E}$, resulting in an optimized sequence that preserves soluble and conserved TM regions while refining low-saliency, TM positions. To produce optimized amino acid tokens, we sample from a categorical distribution parameterized by the updated token probabilities at each position, $\hat{x}^i \sim \text{CAT}(\log P(x^i))$.

Per-Token Solubility Classifier Let $v_\phi : \mathbb{R}^{B \times L \times D} \to \mathbb{R}^{B \times L}$ be a neural network trained to predict per-token solubility scores from continuous latent representations h_t. The model is trained using clean protein sequences $\mathbf{x}$ with corresponding binary per-residue solubility labels $\mathbf{y} \in \{0, 1\}^L$ (0 = insoluble, 1 = soluble). Each input sequence is first embedded using the pretrained ESM-2-650M protein language model checkpoint (`https://huggingface.co/facebook/esm2_t33_650M_UR50D`) [Lin et al., 2023]. The resulting contextualized token embeddings are passed through a lightweight classifier v_ϕ with the following architecture: (i) trainable 2-layer Transformer encoder

Transformer$_\phi$; (ii) LayerNorm and dropout ($p = 0.5$); and (iii) a trainable 2-layer projection head MLP$_\phi$ outputs a scalar logit for each token position. All parameters in ESM-2 are frozen, and only the transformer encoder and MLP layers are updated during training. The classifier is optimized using a per-token binary cross-entropy loss with logits:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{BCE}}(\phi) = -\left[y \cdot \log \sigma(z) + (1 - y) \cdot \log(1 - \sigma(z)) \right] \tag{23}$$

where $\sigma(z)$ is the sigmoid activation function and $\mathbf{z} = v_\phi(h)$ is a vector of per-token logit predictions. The loss is computed without reduction to allow for masking padded positions and is averaged over all valid tokens in the batch. v_ϕ is trained on a 1xA6000 NVIDIA DGX server with 50 GB of shared VRAM for 50K steps using the AdamW optimizer (betas=($\beta_1 = 0.99, \beta_2 = 0.98$), weight decay $\lambda = 0.01$), a learning rate (LR) of $3e^{-5}$ with a cosine schedule (5000 warmup steps, LR minimum = $1e^{-5}$). The PET classifier was trained using the same train, test, and validation sequence splits as MeMDLM pre-training.

B.5 Computational Metrics

Sequence generation quality was computationally verified using the following metrics:

Pseudo Perplexity The model's generation quality was assessed using the ESM-2 [Lin et al., 2023] pseudo-perplexity metric. Typically, a lower pseudo-perplexity value indicates higher confidence. Specifically, the pseudo-perplexity is computed as the exponential of the negative pseudo-loglikelihood of a sequence. This metric yields a deterministic value for each sequence but necessitates L forward passes for computation, where L represents the input sequence length. It is formally defined as $\text{PPL}(\mathbf{x}) = \exp(-\frac{1}{L}) \sum_{i=1}^{L} \log p(x^i \mid x^{\setminus i})$.

pLDDT The structural confidence of generated sequences was assessed using predicted Local Distance Difference Test (pLDDT) scores from ESMFold [Lin et al., 2023], a protein language model-based tool to predict protein structures from amino acid sequences alone. Higher pLDDT indicates ESMFold is more confident in the produced structure, suggesting the initial input sequence is biologically plausible.

Shannon Entropy To measure the diversity and uncertainty of the model's token predictions, we compute the average Shannon entropy across the sequence. Let $p(x^i)$ denote the model's probability distribution over the vocabulary $\mathcal{V}$ at position i. Higher entropy values indicate greater diversity in the model's predictions, while lower values suggest more repetitive distributions. The entropy is defined as: $\text{Entropy}(\mathbf{x}) = -\frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^{L} \sum_{v \in \mathcal{V}} p(x^i = v) \cdot \log p(x^i = v)$.

BLOSUM62 Substituion Score The average BLOSUM62 score is a quantitative approach to determining whether an amino acid substitution is conservative or nonconservative. This value becomes an important computational metric for protein sequence infilling tasks (both unconditional and PET-based solubilization) to determine if the model is introducing non-conserved residue changes. For each aligned position between a generated sequence $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$ and reference sequence $\mathbf{x}$, we extract the substitution score $B(\hat{x}^i, x^i)$ from the BLOSUM62 matrix [Henikoff and Henikoff, 1992]. Higher scores indicate greater biochemical similarity to the native sequence, while lower scores suggest more divergent or potentially deleterious substitutions. The final score is computed as the mean over all aligned residues $\text{BLOSUM}(\hat{\mathbf{x}}, \mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{L} \sum_{i=1}^{L} B(\hat{x}^i, x^i)$.

TM Residue Density To estimate the membrane-localizing potential of generated sequences, we used DeepTMHMM v1.0 tool (https://services.healthtech.dtu.dk/services/DeepTMHMM-1.0/) [Hallgren et al., 2022] to produce per-residue topology annotations. Each residue is classified into one of six categories: signal peptide (S), inside cell/cytosol (I), alpha membrane (M), beta membrane (B), periplasm (P), or outside cell/lumen (O). For our analysis, we consider residues labeled as alpha membrane (M) to be "soluble" in the membrane context, and all other classes, including beta membrane (B), to be "insoluble." We explicitly exclude B-labeled residues from the soluble category due to the structural and biophysical differences between beta-barrel and alpha-helical transmembrane domains, the latter being dominant in our training set. Using these annotations, we define the *TM Residue Density* of a sequence as the number of residues predicted to lie within alpha membrane ("M" predictions) regions divided by the sequence length as a normalization factor.

B.6 Wet-Lab Experiments

B.6.1 Cloning and Plasmid Construction

DNA sequences of our MeMDLM-designed and control peptides were cloned. Target sequences derived from MeMDLM were cloned into the pMAL_dstβL vector (Addgene plasmid #73805) between the genes encoding for ToxR and β-lactamase using blunt-end ligation. The resulting constructs were initially transformed into *E. coli* XL-10 Gold cells. Transformants were selected on Luria Broth (LB) agar plates containing spectinomycin and sequences were verified by Sanger sequencing. Confirmed plasmids were subsequently transformed into *E. coli* Cloni cells for the assay.

Cell lines:

REAGENT	CATALOG INFORMATION
E. Cloni 10G DUOs Chemically Competent Cells	Cat. No. 60107-1 (BioSearch Technologies)
XL 10-Gold Ultracompetent Cells	Cat. No. 200315 (Agilent)

Table 4: Competent cell reagents used in this study.

Genes inserted into the pMAL_dstβL plasmid vector:

- **Human CLS:**
    - Uniprot: UPI000007083D
    - Amino acid sequence: PLFIPVAVMVTAFSGLAFIIWLA
    - Gene: CCGCTGTTCATCCCGGTTGCAGTTATGGTTACCGCTTTTAGTGGATTG-GCGTTTATCATCTGGCTGGCT
- **GpA-TM Region:**
    - Uniprot: UPI000012B75E
    - Amino acid sequence: LIIFGVMAGVIGTILI
    - Gene: TTAATTATTTTCGGAGTGATGGCCGGAGTTATCGGCACAATTTTAATC
- **ErbB2 TM Region:**
    - Uniprot: P04626-1
    - Amino acid sequence: SIISAVVGILLVVVLGVVFGIL
    - Gene: TCCATTATCTCCGCTGTCGTAGGAATCTTGTTAGTTGTCGTC-CTTGGGGTTGTGTTTGGAATTTTA
- **Qsox2 TM Region:**
    - Uniprot: Q6ZRP7
    - Amino acid sequence: SLCVVLYVASSLFMVMYFF
    - Gene: AGTCTTTGCGTCGTACTTTACGTCGCATCTTCACTGTTTATGGTGATG-TATTTCTTT
- **EK3 Water Soluble Helix** [Wolny et al., 2017]:
    - Amino acid sequence: SAEEEKKKAEEEKKKAEEEKKKAE
    - Gene: TCCGCAGAGGAAGAAAAGAAAAAAGCTGAAGAAGAAAAGAAAAAG-GCAGAAGAAGAGAAAAAAAAGGCAGAG
- **PoorTM2**
    - MeMDLM amino acid sequence: SSLLFSYQGAKKEEERVFLDNF
    - Gene: AGTTCTTTGTTATTCAGCTATCAGGGAGCCAAGAAAGAAGAA-GAACGTGTGTTTCTGGATAACTTC
- **PoorTM4**
    - MeMDLM amino acid sequence: GTHAKDWRVTSWKRYGEIE
    - Gene: GGAACACATGCTAAAGATTGGCGTGTGACATCTTGGAAGCGTTACG-GCGAGATTGAA

- **GoodTM4**

    - MeMDLM amino acid sequence: DLSKWLGIVLLLLLAILALLLIR
    - Gene: GATTTAAGCAAATGGCTGGGTATCGTACTGTTACTGTTACTGGC-TATTTTGGCTTTATTACTGATTCGT

- **GoodTM5**

    - MeMDLM amino acid sequence: SLRWLWSLVIGLLLIVAFYLLLR
    - Gene: AGCCTGCGTTGGTTGTGGTCTTTAGTGATCGGCTTACTGCT-TATCGTTGCCTTCTACCTGCTGCTTCGC

- **GoodTM8**

    - MeMDLM amino acid sequence: DFLRKAVIVLLVLVIVAGLLVIR
    - Gene: GATTTTCTGCGTAAGGCAGTGATTGTATTACTTGTCTTGGTTATTGTG-GCGGGTCTGCTGGTTATTCGC

B.6.2 TOXCAT-β-Lactamase Growth Assay

Single colonies of plasmid-containing E. *coli* Cloni cells were used to inoculate 6-mL LB cultures supplemented with 50 μg/mL spectinomycin. Glycerol stocks were made and used to inoculate new fresh LB culture tubes with 50 μg/mL spectinomycin. Cultures were incubated for $\sim$8 h or overnight at 37∘C with shaking. Optical density at 600 nm (OD$_{600}$) was measured, and cultures were diluted with fresh LB + spectinomycin to an OD$_{600}$ of 0.05. Growth was continued until an OD$_{600}$ of $\sim$0.1 was reached.

To ensure consistent inoculation density across assays, the number of cells per well was normalized to 1.95×10^5 cells. This value was calculated using the relationship of 1 OD$_{600} \approx 8 \times 10^8$ cells/mL and adjusted for the measured absorbance at OD$_{600}$ of each culture. Growth under spectinomycin confirmed that the pMal_dsTBL plasmid was successfully introduced into E. *coli* Cloni cells across all conditions. All cultures grew equally under this condition, demonstrating comparable inoculation densities and consistent plasmid uptake.

Assays were performed in 96-well plates, with each well containing a final total volume of $\sim$200 μL LB medium supplemented with the appropriate antibiotics in the following concentrations: Spectinomycin (50 μg/mL), Carbenicillin (300 μg/mL), Carbenicillin (100 μg/mL) + chloramphenicol (100 μg/mL), Carbenicillin (100 μg/mL) + chloramphenicol (120 μg/mL). Wells were inoculated with the calculated volume of diluted culture corresponding to 1.95×10^5 cells. Each antibiotic reporter was run in triplicate. Plates were incubated at 37°C in a pre-heated plate reader (BioTek Synergy H1). Bacterial growth was monitored by measuring absorbance at 600 nm for 24 hours with measurements taken every 10 minutes under continuous shaking.

C Extended Results

C.1 Density Plots

We visualize the density distribution of the various computational metrics to assess membrane protein sequences. When using P2 Self-Planning to generate sequences, we set $\tau = 0.7$ to have a slight bias towards deterministic model outputs.

Unconditional Generation We unconditionally generate 1,000 membrane protein sequences. Lengths are randomly chosen from 50-250 residues.

Figure A1: *De novo*-generated and natural membrane protein sequences.

Motif Scaffolding   We mask out and infill both the insoluble and soluble regions of natural membrane proteins derived from the model's test set.

Figure A2: Infilling Insoluble Domain

Figure A3: Infilling Soluble Domain

Solubilization   We optimize the solubility of the proteins in the model's test set by applying our PET algorithm.

Figure A4: Solubilizing TM Domains

C.2 Physciochemical Property Prediction

As a surrogate task, we assessed if RDM training retains physicochemical information critical to membrane protein function by predicting per-residue solubility and membrane localization (Table 3). We use embeddings from three models–vanilla ESM-2-650M, ESM-2-650M fine-tuned on membrane protein sequences, and MeMDLM–as inputs to a per-residue solubility and sequence-level membrane localization classifiers. We outline the dataset, training details, and evaluation results of these models in the following.

C.2.1 Datasests

Solubility Prediction   We leveraged the same set of 11,908 membrane sequences from the MeMDLM training dataset to develop a binary classifier that predicts the solubility of each amino acid within a protein sequence. Each sequence was annotated on a per-residue basis, with TM (class 1) and soluble (class 0) labels assigned according to the sequence's uppercase and lowercase residues, respectively. The same training, testing, and validation data splits used to train MeMDLM were also utilized to train and evaluate this classifier.

Membrane Localization   We collected 30,020 protein sequences from DeepLoc 2.0 [Thumuluri et al., 2022] to build a binary classifier that predicts a protein sequence's cellular localization. The authors of the dataset provided a multi-label label for each sequence indicating its localization(s). We used the authors' provided data splits, with training sequences having 11 labels and testing sequences having 8 labels.

C.2.2 Models

Solubility Prediction   We first predicted TM and soluble residues, a hallmark characteristic of membrane protein sequences. We utilized embeddings from each pLM's latent space (ESM-2-150M, ESM-MLM, and MeMDLM) as inputs to train a two-layer perceptron classifier that minimized the standard binary cross-entropy (BCE) loss to compute the probability that each residue in the sequence is either soluble (probability < 0.5, class 0) or TM (probability > 0.5, class 1).

Membrane Localization Prediction   Proteins originating from the endomembrane system and localizing in the plasma membrane differ in conformation and function from those in the cytosol and other cellular organelles. We predicted the subcellular localization of protein sequences by utilizing embeddings from each pLM's latent space (ESM-2-150M, ESM-MLM, and MeMDLM) to train a XGBoost classifier that minimized the standard BCE loss to compute the probability that a protein sequence localizes in the plasma membrane (probability > 0.5, class 1) or in other regions (probability < 0.5, class 0).

Fine-Tuning ESM-2   We fine-tune the ESM-2 pLM ([Lin et al., 2023]) to achieve an encoder that produces membrane-aware protein sequence embedding used as a baseline comparison for the RDM training task. We trained a MLM head on top of ESM-2-650M using membrane protein sequences to force comprehension of membrane protein properties. We chose to randomly mask 40% of amino acid tokens during training over the standard 15% to more closely resemble the dynamics of diffusion-based (RDM) training; masking rates above 40% have been seen as detrimental during MLM training tasks [Wettig et al.]. Corrupted sequences were passed into ESM-2-650M to retrieve their output embeddings. During training, we unfroze the key, query, and value weights in the attention heads of the final three encoder layers, similar to fine-tuning EvoFlow during MeMDLM training. During ESM-2 fine-tuning, the model performed a *masked-prediction* task over masked amino acid tokens to minimize the NLL loss in Eq. (6). 2xH100 NVIDIA GPUs, learning rate of 5e-3, the Adam optimizer, and a batch size of 8 over 10 epochs were used.

C.2.3   Results

We leveraged the trained solubility prediction and membrane localization classifiers to determine if latent spaces from RDM-based generative models are aligned with relevant membrane protein properties. Table ?? shows that MeMDLM latent embeddings achieve predictive performance that closely parallels SOTA pLM embeddings, which are designed specifically for delivering precise representations.

MODEL	SOLUBILITY ($\uparrow$)	MEMBRANE LOCALIZATION ($\uparrow$)
ESM-2-650M	0.9383	0.6011
Fine-Tuned ESM-2	0.9375	0.6000
MeMDLM	0.9375	0.5964

Table 5: Performance comparison (AUROC) of embeddings derived from various models in predicting physico-chemical properties of MeMDLM test set sequences.

In total, these results demonstrate that MeMDLM accurately captures the biological features under-pinning functional membrane proteins despite being trained on a sequence generation task rather than a masked-prediction task.

C.3 Wet-Lab Experiments

C.3.1 TOXCAT Assay

	ΔToxR-POI-βL	ΔPOI	Soluble	TM (monomer)	TM (dimer)
Control Samples	ΔToxR-POI-βL	ΔPOI	EK3	CLS	ErbB2, GpA, Qsox2
Spectinomycin	Growth	Growth	Growth	Growth	Growth
Carbenicillin	No growth	No growth	No growth	Growth	Growth
Carbenicillin + Chloramphenicol	No growth	No growth	No growth	No growth	Growth

Figure A5: Summary of control constructs for the TOXCAT-β-lactamase assay and their expected growth responses to antibiotics.

Schematic showing gene ToxR-POI-βL, where POI is the peptide of interest and βL is β-lactamase. Periplasmic β-lactamase and cytoplasmic ToxR proteins are represented by blue and yellow dots, respectively. Expected growth phenotypes under spectinomycin and carbenicillin +/-chloramphenicol are indicated for each control. Negative controls ΔToxR-POI-βL, ΔPOI, and EK3 should not survive in carbenicillin because they lack a TM domain. Positive controls CLS, ErbB2, GpA, and Qsox2 all have TM domains and should survive in carbenicillin. Further, ErbB2, GpA, and Qsox2 are dimers. Expression of these controls should also confer resistance to chloramphenicol.

C.3.2 TOXCAT Sequence Selection

From 1,000 MeMDLM-generated sequences, three sequences from the top 100 predicted performers ("GoodTM") and two sequences from the bottom 22 predicted performers ("PoorTM") were selected for screening in the TOXCAT assay. The following selection criteria was used:

CATEGORY	PLDDT	PPL	TM RESIDUE DENSITY	SEQUENCES SELECTED
GoodTM (Top 100)	> 60	< 10	Non-zero	3
PoorTM (Bottom 22)	< 60	< 15	Non-zero	2

Table 6: Selection criteria and sequence counts for MeMDLM-generated sequences screened in the TOXCAT assay.

The top-ranked (GoodTM) sequences represented a diverse set of high-scoring designs. For example, GoodTM5 (SLRWLWSLVIGLLLIVAFYLLLR, rank 57) contained a small-X_3-small motif known to promote TM helix association [Russ and Engelman, 1999] [Li et al., 2004] [Russ and Engelman, 2000]. This further demonstrates that MeMDLM generates plausible protein sequences with TM-like character.

C.3.3 Growth Curves

Control Plasmids Growth curves of *E. coli* Cloni cells containing control plasmids.

Figure A6: **A)** Survival in spectinomycin (50 μg/mL) confirmed plasmid uptake for all controls. **B)** Growth curves of control plasmids under carbenicillin (300 μg/mL) showed that control plasmids containing TM sequences survived selective pressure. **C)** Growth curves of control plasmids under combined carbenicillin (100 μg/mL) and chloramphenicol (80 μg/mL) selection, which tests both transmembrane insertion and association, show that the dimeric Qsox2, GpA, and ErbB2 controls begin growing in chloramphenicol earlier than the monomeric CLS control.

702 **MeMDLM-Generated Sequences** Growth curves for MeMDLM's *de novo*-generated sequences.

Figure A7: GpA is used as a positive control for insertion and TM association. CLS is the positive insertion and negative TM association control. **A)** Growth curve of *E. coli* Cloni cells containing *de novo* MeMDLM TM sequences under spectinomycin (50 μg/mL) confirmed plasmid uptake. **B)** Growth curves of MeMDLM peptides under carbenicillin (300 μg/mL) show GoodTM4, GoodTM5, and GoodTM8 growing as expected. PoorTM4 did not survive, indicating that it is not membrane inserting. PoorTM2 showed delayed growth, suggesting that it has lower membrane insertion propensity than the GoodTM constructs. **C)** Growth curves of MeMDLM plasmids under combined carbenicillin (100 μg/mL) and chloramphenicol (120 μg/mL), used to select for both transmembrane insertion and transmembrane association, reveal that some of the TM designs may be oligomeric.

D Visualizations

AlphaFold3 visualizations of MeMDLM-generated membrane protein sequences. TM Residue Density (TMRD) scores are derived from DeepTMHMM predictions. Structures and colors are from AlphaFold3 predictions, and pLDDT scores are from ESMFold.

D.1 *De novo* Generation

Figure A1: *De novo*-generated protein sequences from MeMDLM across different lengths.

D.2 Solubilization

Figure A2: Original and solubilized versions of MeMDLM test set protein sequences. Grey residues were annotated as soluble in the given sequence and were thus "fixed" during PET sampling.

 # E Algorithm Pseudocode

Algorithm 1 MeMDLM Training

Require: Protein sequence dataset $\mathcal{D}$, diffusion model p_θ, number of diffusion timesteps T
1: **while** not converged **do**
2:    Sample batch $\mathbf{x}_0 \sim \mathcal{D}$
3:    Sample timestep $t \sim \mathcal{U}(1, T)$
4:    Corrupt sequence: $\mathbf{x}_t \sim q(\mathbf{x}_t \mid \mathbf{x}_{t-1})$
5:    Compute RDM loss: $\mathcal{L}_{\text{RDM}} = -\lambda_t \sum_{i=1}^{L} \log p_\theta(x_0^i \mid \mathbf{x}_t)$
6:    Take gradient descent step on: $\nabla_\theta \mathcal{L}_{\text{RDM}}$
7: **end while**
8: **return** Trained MeMDLM p_θ

Algorithm 2 MeMDLM Sampling with P2 Self-Planning and Optional Sequence Refinement

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Require: Fully masked sequence $\mathbf{x}_T = \{[\text{MASK}]\}_{i=1}^{L}$, trained MeMDLM p_θ, number of denoising steps T
1: **for** $t \in \{T, T-1, \ldots, 0\}$ **do**
2:    Compute logits: $\mathbf{z}_{t-1} = p_\theta(\mathbf{x}_t)$
3:    Sample candidate tokens: $x_{t-1}^i = \arg\max_v \left(\frac{z_{t-1}^{i,v}}{\tau} + g^{i,v} \right), \quad g^{i,v} \sim \text{Gumbel}(0, 1)$
4:    Compute per-token log-probabilities: $s_t^i = \log p_\theta(x_t^i)$
5:    Identify unmasked positions: $\mathcal{R}_t = \{i \mid x_{t-1} \neq [\text{MASK}]\}$
6:    Compute $K = \lfloor (1 - \kappa_t) \cdot |\mathcal{R}_t| \rfloor$
7:    Select top-K lowest scoring tokens from $\mathcal{R}_t$ and remask them: $x_t^i = [\text{MASK}]$ for $i \in$ top-$K(s_t^i)$
8:    Copy high-confidence predictions: $x_{t-1}^i \leftarrow x_t^i$ for positions previously masked but not in top-K
9: **end for**
10: **if** PET Optimization **then**
11:    Perform Algorithm 3
12: **end if**
13: **return** Final decoded sequence $\mathbf{x}_0$

Algorithm 3 PET-based MeMDLM Sampling

Require: Candidate protein sequence $\mathbf{x}$, trained MeMDLM p_θ, trained solubility classifier v_ϕ, pre-trained encoder Encoder_ϕ, number of optimization steps N
1: Produce sequence embeddings $h = \text{Encoder}_\phi(\mathbf{x})$
2: Compute saliency map $\mathbf{s}$ using gradients $\nabla_h v_\phi(h)$
3: Normalize saliency map $\hat{s}^i \leftarrow s_i$
4: Determine editable positions $\mathcal{E}$ based on soluble residues and saliency scores
5: **for** each $i \in \mathcal{E}$ **do**
6:    Define neighborhood $\mathcal{N}(i)$
7:    Compute $\tilde{s}^i = \hat{s}^i + \gamma \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \text{Norm}(A_{ij}) \cdot \hat{s}^j$
8:    Construct prior distribution $\pi(x^i)$
9:    Compute guidance distribution: $\log P(x^i) = (1 - \sigma(\alpha \tilde{s}^i)) \cdot \log p_\theta(x^i) + \sigma(\alpha \tilde{s}^i) \cdot \pi(x^i)$
10:   Sample token $\hat{x}^i \sim \text{CAT}(\log P(x^i))$
11:   Update $\mathbf{x}[i] \leftarrow \hat{x}^i$
12: **end for**
13: **return** Optimized sequence $\hat{\mathbf{x}}$