
gRNAd: Geometric Deep Learning for 3D RNA inverse design

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Abstract

1 Computational RNA design tasks are often posed as inverse problems, where
2 sequences are designed based on adopting a single desired secondary structure
3 without considering 3D geometry and conformational diversity. We introduce
4 **gRNAd**, a **geometric RNA design** pipeline operating on 3D RNA backbones to
5 design sequences that explicitly account for structure and dynamics. Under the
6 hood, gRNAd is a multi-state Graph Neural Network that generates candidate
7 RNA sequences conditioned on one or more 3D backbone structures where the
8 identities of the bases are unknown. On a single-state fixed backbone re-design
9 benchmark of 14 RNA structures from the PDB identified by [Das et al. \[2010\]](#),
10 gRNAd obtains higher native sequence recovery rates (56% on average) compared
11 to Rosetta (45% on average), taking under a second to produce designs compared
12 to the reported hours for Rosetta. We further demonstrate the utility of gRNAd on
13 a new benchmark of multi-state design for structurally flexible RNAs, as well as
14 zero-shot ranking of mutational fitness landscapes in a retrospective analysis of a
15 recent RNA polymerase ribozyme structure. Open source code and tutorials are
16 available at: anonymous.4open.science/r/geometric-rna-design

17 1 Introduction

18 **Why RNA design?** Historical efforts in computational drug discovery have focussed on designing
19 small molecule or protein-based medicines that either treat symptoms or counter the end stages
20 of disease processes. In recent years, there is a growing interest in designing new RNA-based
21 therapeutics that intervene earlier in disease processes to cut off disease-causing information flow
22 in the cell [[Damase et al., 2021](#), [Zhu et al., 2022](#)]. Notable examples of RNA molecules at the
23 forefront of biotechnology today include mRNA vaccines [[Metkar et al., 2024](#)] and CRISPR-based
24 genomic medicine [[Doudna and Charpentier, 2014](#)]. Of particular interest for structure-based design
25 are ribozymes and riboswitches in the untranslated regions of mRNAs [[Mandal and Breaker, 2004](#),
26 [Leppek et al., 2018](#)]. In addition to coding for proteins (such as the spike protein in the Covid vaccine),
27 naturally occurring mRNAs contain riboswitches that are responsible for cell-state dependent protein
28 expression of the mRNA. Riboswitches act by ‘switching’ their 3D structure from an unbound
29 conformation to a bound one in the presence of specific metabolites or small molecules. Rational
30 design of riboswitches will enable translation to be dependent on the presence or absence of partner
31 molecules, essentially acting as ‘on-off’ switches for highly targeted mRNA therapies in the future
32 [[Felletti et al., 2016](#), [Mustafina et al., 2019](#), [Mohsen et al., 2023](#)].

33 **Challenges of RNA modelling.** Despite the promises of RNA therapeutics, proteins have instead
34 been the primary focus in the 3D biomolecular modelling community. Availability of a large number
35 of protein structures from the PDB combined with advances in deep learning for structured data
36 [[Bronstein et al., 2021](#), [Duval et al., 2023](#)] have revolutionized protein 3D structure prediction [[Jumper](#)

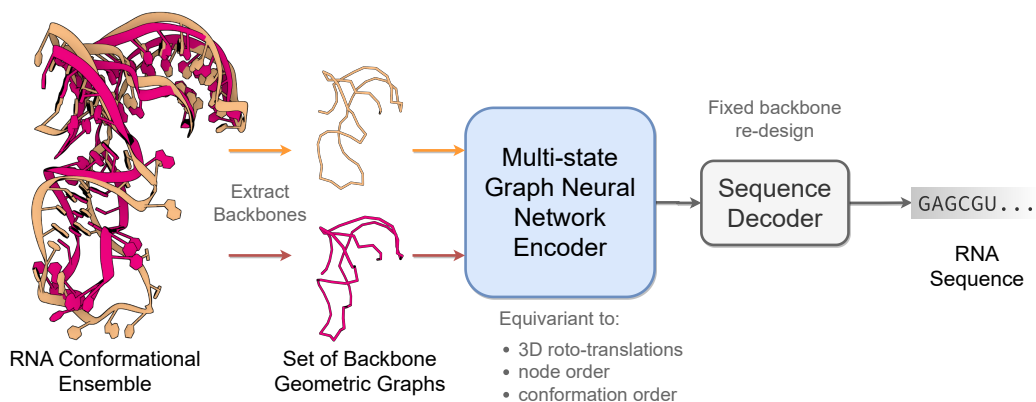


Figure 1: **The gRNAde pipeline for 3D RNA inverse design.** gRNAde is a generative model for RNA sequence design conditioned on backbone 3D structure(s). gRNAde processes one or more RNA backbone graphs (a conformational ensemble) via a multi-state GNN encoder which is equivariant to 3D roto-translation of coordinates as well as conformer order, followed by conformer order-invariant pooling and autoregressive sequence decoding.

37 et al., 2021] and rational design [Dauparas et al., 2022, Watson et al., 2023]. Applications of deep
 38 learning for computational RNA design are underexplored compared to proteins due to paucity of
 39 3D structural data [Schneider et al., 2023]. Most tools for RNA design primarily focus on secondary
 40 structure without considering 3D geometry [Churkin et al., 2018] and use non-learned algorithms for
 41 aligning 3D RNA fragments [Han et al., 2017, Yesselman et al., 2019], which can be restrictive due
 42 to the hand-crafted nature of the heuristics used.

43 In addition to limited 3D data for training deep learning models, the key technical challenge is that
 44 RNA is more dynamic than proteins. The same RNA can adopt multiple distinct conformational
 45 states to create and regulate complex biological functions [Ganser et al., 2019, Hoetzl and Suess,
 46 2022, Ken et al., 2023]. Computational RNA design pipelines must account for both the 3D geometric
 47 structure and conformational flexibility of RNA to engineer new biological functions.

48 **Our contributions.** This paper introduces **gRNAde**, a geometric deep learning-based pipeline for
 49 RNA inverse design conditioned on 3D structure, analogous to ProteinMPNN for proteins [Dauparas
 50 et al., 2022]. As illustrated in Figure 1, gRNAde generates candidate RNA sequences conditioned
 51 on one or more backbone 3D conformations, enabling both single- and multi-state fixed-backbone
 52 sequence design.

53 We demonstrate the utility of gRNAde for the following design scenarios:

- 54 • **Improved performance and speed over Rosetta.** We compare gRNAde to Rosetta [Leman
 55 et al., 2020], the state-of-the-art physically based tool for 3D RNA inverse design, for single-
 56 state fixed backbone design of 14 RNA structures of interest from the PDB identified by Das
 57 et al. [2010]. We obtain higher native sequence recovery rates with gRNAde (56% on average)
 58 compared to Rosetta (45% on average). Additionally, gRNAde is significantly faster than Rosetta
 59 for inference; e.g. sampling 100+ designs in 1 second for an RNA of 60 nucleotides on an A100
 60 GPU, compared to the reported hours for Rosetta.
- 61 • **Enables multi-state RNA design**, which was previously not possible with Rosetta. gRNAde
 62 with multi-state GNNs improves sequence recovery over an equivalent single-state model on
 63 a benchmark of structurally flexible RNAs, especially for surface nucleotides which undergo
 64 positional or secondary structural changes.
- 65 • **Zero-shot learning of RNA fitness landscape.** In a retrospective analysis of mutational fitness
 66 landscape data for an RNA polymerase ribozyme [McRae et al., 2024], we show how gRNAde’s
 67 perplexity, the likelihood of a sequence folding into a backbone structure, can be used to
 68 rank mutants based on fitness in a zero-shot/unsupervised manner and outperforms random
 69 mutagenesis for improving fitness over the wild type in low throughput scenarios.

70 2 The gRNAde pipeline

71 2.1 The 3D RNA inverse folding problem

72 **Figure 1** illustrates the RNA inverse folding problem: the task of designing new RNA sequences
73 conditioned on a structural backbone. Given the 3D coordinates of a backbone structure, machine
74 learning models must generate sequences that are likely to fold into that shape. The underlying
75 assumption behind inverse folding (and rational biomolecule design) is that structure determines
76 function [Huang et al., 2016]. To the best of our knowledge, gRNAde is the first explicitly multi-state
77 inverse folding pipeline, allowing users to design sequences for backbone conformational ensembles
78 (a set of 3D backbone structures) as opposed to a single structure.

79 2.2 RNA conformational ensembles as geometric multi-graphs

80 **Featurization.** The input to gRNAde is an RNA to be re-designed. For instance, this could be a
81 set of PDB files with 3D backbone structures for the given RNA (a conformational ensemble) and
82 the corresponding sequence of n nucleotides. As shown in Appendix **Figure 11**, gRNAde builds a
83 geometric graph representation for each input structure:

- 84 1. We start with a 3-bead coarse-grained representation of the RNA backbone, retaining the
85 coordinates for P, C4', N1 (pyrimidine) or N9 (purine) for each nucleotide [Dawson et al., 2016].
86 This ‘pseudotorsional’ representation describes RNA backbones completely in most cases while
87 reducing the size of the torsional space to prevent overfitting [Wadley et al., 2007].
- 88 2. Each nucleotide i is assigned a node in the geometric graph with the 3D coordinate $\vec{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^3$
89 corresponding to the centroid of the 3 bead atoms. Random Gaussian noise with standard
90 deviation 0.1Å is added to coordinates during training to prevent overfitting on crystallisation
91 artifacts, following Dauparas et al. [2022]. Each node is connected by edges to its 32 nearest
92 neighbours as measured by the pairwise distance in 3D space, $\|\vec{x}_i - \vec{x}_j\|_2$.
- 93 3. Nodes are initialized with geometric features analogous to the featurization used in protein
94 inverse folding [Ingraham et al., 2019, Jing et al., 2020]: (a) forward and reverse unit vectors
95 along the backbone from the 5' end to the 3' end, $(\vec{x}_{i+1} - \vec{x}_i$ and $\vec{x}_i - \vec{x}_{i-1})$; and (b) unit
96 vectors, distances, angles, and torsions from each C4' to the corresponding P and N1/N9.
- 97 4. Edge features for each edge from node j to i are initialized as: (a) the unit vector from the
98 source to destination node, $\vec{x}_j - \vec{x}_i$; (b) the distance in 3D space, $\|\vec{x}_j - \vec{x}_i\|_2$, encoded by 32
99 radial basis functions; and (c) the distance along the backbone, $j - i$, encoded by 32 sinusoidal
100 positional encodings.

101 **Multi-graph representation.** As described in the previous section, given a set of k (conformer)
102 structures in the input conformational ensemble, each RNA backbone is featurized as a separate
103 geometric graph $\mathcal{G}^{(k)} = (\mathbf{A}^{(k)}, \mathbf{S}^{(k)}, \vec{\mathbf{V}}^{(k)})$ with the scalar features $\mathbf{S}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times f}$, vector features
104 $\vec{\mathbf{V}}^{(k)} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times f' \times 3}$, and $\mathbf{A}^{(k)}$, an $n \times n$ adjacency matrix. For clear presentation and without loss of
105 generality, we omit edge features and use f, f' to denote scalar/vector feature channels.

106 The input to gRNAde is thus a set of geometric graphs $\{\mathcal{G}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathcal{G}^{(k)}\}$ which is merged into what we
107 term a ‘multi-graph’ representation of the conformational ensemble, $\mathcal{M} = (\mathbf{A}, \mathbf{S}, \vec{\mathbf{V}})$, by stacking the
108 set of scalar features $\{\mathbf{S}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{S}^{(k)}\}$ into one tensor $\mathbf{S} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k \times f}$ along a new axis for the set size
109 k . Similarly, the set of vector features $\{\vec{\mathbf{V}}^{(1)}, \dots, \vec{\mathbf{V}}^{(k)}\}$ is stacked into one tensor $\vec{\mathbf{V}} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k \times f' \times 3}$.
110 Lastly, the set of adjacency matrices $\{\mathbf{A}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{A}^{(k)}\}$ are merged via a union \cup into one single joint
111 adjacency matrix \mathbf{A} .

112 2.3 Multi-state GNN for representation learning on conformational ensembles

113 The gRNAde model, illustrated in Appendix **Figure 12**, processes one or more RNA backbone graphs
114 via a multi-state GNN encoder which is equivariant to 3D roto-translation of coordinates as well as to
115 the ordering of conformers, followed by conformer order-invariant pooling and sequence decoding.
116 We describe each component in the following sections.

117 **Multi-state GNN encoder.** When representing conformational ensembles as a multi-graph, each
118 node feature tensor contains three axes: (#nodes, #conformations, feature channels). We perform

119 message passing on the multi-graph adjacency to *independently* process each conformer, while
 120 maintaining permutation equivariance of the updated feature tensors along both the first (#nodes)
 121 and second (#conformations) axes. This works by operating on only the feature channels axis and
 122 generalising the PyTorch Geometric [Fey and Lenssen, 2019] message passing class to account for
 123 the extra conformations axis; see Appendix Figure 14 and the pseudocode for details.

124 We use multiple rotation-equivariant GVP-GNN [Jing et al., 2020] layers to update scalar features
 125 $s_i \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times f}$ and vector features $\vec{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^{k \times f' \times 3}$ for each node i :

$$m_i, \vec{m}_i := \sum_{j \in \mathcal{N}_i} \text{MSG}((s_i, \vec{v}_i), (s_j, \vec{v}_j), e_{ij}), \quad (1)$$

$$s'_i, \vec{v}'_i := \text{UPD}((s_i, \vec{v}_i), (m_i, \vec{m}_i)), \quad (2)$$

126 where MSG, UPD are Geometric Vector Perceptrons, a generalization of MLPs to take tuples of
 127 scalar and vector features as input and apply $O(3)$ -equivariant non-linear updates. The overall GNN
 128 encoder is $SO(3)$ -equivariant due to the use of reflection-sensitive input features (dihedral angles)
 129 combined with $O(3)$ -equivariant GVP-GNN layers.

130 Our multi-state GNN encoder is easy to implement in any message passing framework and can be
 131 used as a *plug-and-play* extension for any geometric GNN pipeline to incorporate the multi-state
 132 inductive bias. It serves as an elegant alternative to batching all the conformations, which we found
 133 required major alterations to message passing and pooling depending on downstream tasks.

134 **Conformation order-invariant pooling.** The final encoder representations in gRNAd account for
 135 multi-state information while being invariant to the permutation of the conformational ensemble. To
 136 achieve this, we perform a Deep Set pooling [Zaheer et al., 2017] over the conformations axis after the
 137 final encoder layer to reduce $S \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k \times f}$ and $\vec{V} \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times k \times f' \times 3}$ to $S' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times f}$ and $\vec{V}' \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times f' \times 3}$:

$$S', \vec{V}' := \frac{1}{k} \sum_{i=1}^k (S[:, i], \vec{V}[:, i]). \quad (3)$$

138 A simple sum or average pooling does not introduce any new learnable parameters to the pipeline and
 139 is flexible to handle a variable number of conformations, enabling both single-state and multi-state
 140 design with the same model.

141 **Sequence decoding and loss function.** We feed the final encoder representations after pooling,
 142 S', \vec{V}' , to autoregressive GVP-GNN decoder layers to predict the probability of the four possible base
 143 identities (A, G, C, U) for each node/nucleotide. Decoding proceeds according to the RNA sequence
 144 order from the 5' end to 3' end. gRNAd is trained in a self-supervised manner by minimising a
 145 cross-entropy loss (with label smoothing value of 0.05) between the predicted probability distribution
 146 and the ground truth identity for each base. During training, we use autoregressive teacher forcing
 147 [Williams and Zipser, 1989] where the ground truth base identity is fed as input to the decoder at
 148 each step, encouraging the model to stay close to the ground-truth sequence.

149 **Sampling.** When using gRNAd for inference and designing new sequences, we iteratively sample
 150 the base identity for a given nucleotide from the predicted conditional probability distribution,
 151 given the partially designed sequence up until that nucleotide/decoding step. We can modulate the
 152 smoothness or sharpness of the probability distribution by using a temperature parameter.

153 2.4 Evaluation metrics for designed sequences

154 In principle, inverse folding models can be sampled from to obtain a large number of designed
 155 sequences for a given backbone structure. Thus, in-silico metrics to determine which sequences are
 156 useful and which ones to prioritise in wet lab experiments are a critical part of the overall pipeline. We
 157 currently use the following metrics to evaluate gRNAd’s designs, visualised in Appendix Figure 13:

- 158 • **Native sequence recovery**, which is the average percentage of native (ground truth) nucleotides
 159 correctly recovered in the sampled sequences. Recovery is the most widely used metric for
 160 biomolecule inverse design [Dauparas et al., 2022] but can be misleading in the case of RNAs
 161 where alternative nucleotide base pairings can form the same structural patterns.
- 162 • **Secondary structure self-consistency score**, where we ‘forward fold’ the sampled sequences
 163 using a secondary structure prediction tool (we used EternaFold [Wayment-Steele et al., 2022])

164 and measure the average Matthew’s Correlation Coefficient (MCC) to the groundtruth secondary
165 structure, represented as a binary adjacency matrix. MCC values range between -1 and +1,
166 where +1 represents a perfect prediction, 0 an average random prediction and -1 an inverse
167 prediction. This measures how well the designs recover base pairing patterns.

168 • **Tertiary structure self-consistency scores**, where we ‘forward fold’ the sampled sequences
169 using a 3D structure prediction tool (we used RhoFold [Shen et al., 2022]) and compute the
170 average RMSD, TM-score and GDT_TS to the groundtruth C4’ coordinates to measure how
171 well the designs recover global structural similarity and 3D conformations.

172 • **Perplexity**, which can be thought of as the average number of bases that the model is selecting
173 from for each nucleotide. Formally, perplexity is the average exponential of the negative
174 log-likelihood of the sampled sequences. A perfect model would have perplexity of 1, while
175 a perplexity of 4 means that the model is making random predictions (the model outputs a
176 uniform probability over 4 possible bases). Perplexity does not require a ground truth structure
177 to calculate, and can also be used for ranking sequences as it is the model’s estimate of the
178 compatibility of a sequence with the input backbone structure.

179 **Significance and limitations.** Self-consistency metrics, termed ‘designability’ (eg. $\text{scRMSD} \leq 2\text{\AA}$),
180 as well as perplexity have been found to correlate with experimental success in protein design
181 [Watson et al., 2023]. While precise designability thresholds are yet to be established for RNA,
182 pairs of structures with $\text{TM-score} \geq 0.45$ or $\text{GDT_TS} \geq 0.5$ are known to correspond to roughly the
183 same fold [Zhang et al., 2022]. Another major limitation for in-silico evaluation of 3D RNA design
184 compared to proteins is the relatively worse state of structure prediction tools [Schneider et al., 2023].

185 3 Experimental Setup

186 **3D RNA structure dataset.** We create a machine learning-ready dataset for RNA inverse design
187 using RNASolo [Adamczyk et al., 2022], a novel repository of RNA 3D structures extracted from
188 solo RNAs, protein-RNA complexes, and DNA-RNA hybrids in the PDB. We used structures at
189 resolution $\leq 4.0\text{\AA}$ resulting in 4,223 unique RNA sequences for which a total of 12,011 structures
190 are available (RNASolo date cutoff: 31 October 2023). Dataset statistics are available in Appendix
191 Figure 15, illustrating the diversity of our dataset in terms of sequence length, number of structures
192 per sequence, as well as structural variations among conformations per sequence.

193 **Structural clustering.** In order to ensure that we evaluate gRNAd’s generalization ability to novel
194 RNAs, we cluster the 4,223 unique RNAs into groups based on structural similarity. We use US-align
195 [Zhang et al., 2022] with a similarity threshold of $\text{TM-score} > 0.45$ for clustering, and ensure that
196 we train, validate and test gRNAd on structurally dissimilar clusters (see next paragraph). We also
197 provide utilities for clustering based on sequence homology using CD-HIT [Fu et al., 2012], which
198 leads to splits containing biologically dissimilar clusters of RNAs.

199 **Splits to evaluate generalization.** After clustering, we split the RNAs into training (~ 4000 samples),
200 validation and test sets (100 samples each) to evaluate two different design scenarios:

- 201 1. **Single-state split.** This split is used to fairly evaluate gRNAd for single-state design on a
202 set of RNA structures of interest from the PDB identified by Das et al. [2010], which mainly
203 includes riboswitches, aptamers, and ribozymes. We identify the structural clusters belonging to
204 the RNAs identified in Das et al. [2010] and add all the RNAs in these clusters to the test set
205 (100 samples). The remaining clusters are randomly added to the training and validation splits.
- 206 2. **Multi-state split.** This split is used to test gRNAd’s ability to design RNA with multiple
207 distinct conformational states. We order the structural clusters based on median intra-sequence
208 RMSD among available structures within the cluster¹. The top 100 samples from clusters with
209 the highest median intra-sequence RMSD are added to the test set. The next 100 samples are
210 added to the validation set and all remaining samples are used for training.

211 Validation and test samples come from clusters with at most 5 unique sequences, in order to ensure
212 diversity. Any samples that were not assigned clusters are directly appended to the training set. We

¹For each RNA sequence, we compute the pairwise C4’ RMSD among all available structures. We then compute the median RMSD across all sequences within each structural cluster.

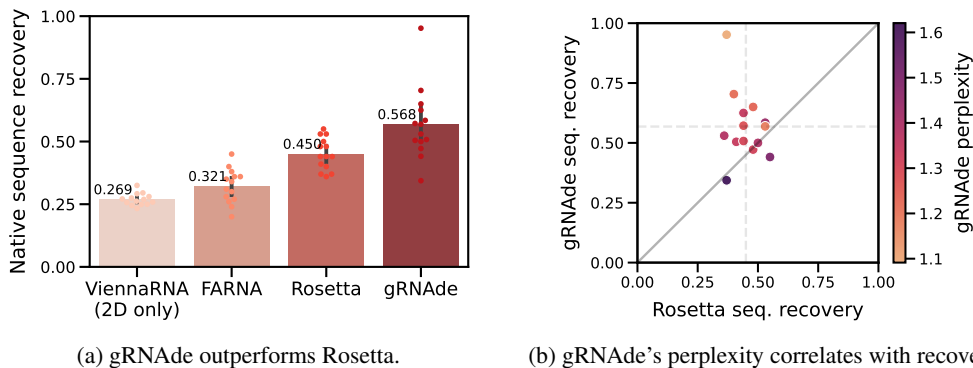


Figure 2: **gRNAd compared to Rosetta for single-state design.** (a) We benchmark native sequence recovery of gRNAd, Rosetta, FARNa and ViennaRNA on 14 RNA structures of interest identified by Das et al. [2010]. gRNAd obtains higher native sequence recovery rates (56% on average) compared to Rosetta (45%). (b) Sequence recovery per sample for Rosetta and gRNAd, shaded by gRNAd's perplexity for each sample. gRNAd's perplexity is correlated with native sequence recovery for designed sequences. Full results are available in Appendix Table 2.

213 also directly add very large RNAs (> 1000 nts) to the training set, as it is unlikely that we want to
 214 design very large RNAs. We exclude very short RNA strands (< 10 nts).

215 **Evaluation metrics.** For a given data split, we evaluate models on the held-out test set by designing
 216 16 sequences (sampled at temperature 0.1) for each test data point and computing averages for each of
 217 the metrics described in Section 2.4: native sequence recovery, structural self-consistency scores and
 218 perplexity. We employ early stopping by reporting test set performance for the model checkpoint for
 219 the epoch with the best validation set recovery. Standard deviations are reported across 3 consistent
 220 random seeds for all models.

221 **Hyperparameters.** All models use 4 encoder and 4 decoder GVP-GNN layers, with 128 scalar/16
 222 vector node features, 64 scalar/4 vector edge features, and drop out probability 0.5, resulting in
 223 2,147,944 trainable parameters. All models are trained for a maximum of 50 epochs using the Adam
 224 optimiser with an initial learning rate of 0.0001, which is reduced by a factor 0.9 when validation
 225 performance plateaus with patience of 5 epochs. Ablation studies of key modelling decisions are
 226 available in Appendix Table 1.

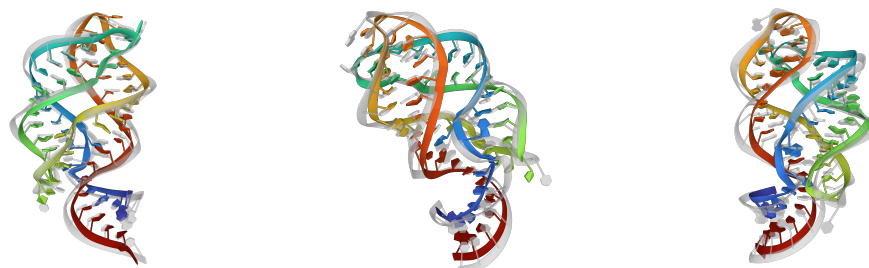
227 4 Results

228 4.1 Single-state RNA design benchmark

229 We set out to compare gRNAd to Rosetta, a state-of-the-art physically based toolkit for biomolecular
 230 modelling and design [Leman et al., 2020]. We reproduced the benchmark setup from Das et al.
 231 [2010] for Rosetta's fixed backbone RNA sequence design workflow on 14 RNA structures of
 232 interest from the PDB, which mainly includes riboswitches, aptamers, and ribozymes (full listing in
 233 Table 2). We trained gRNAd on the single-state split detailed in Section 3, explicitly excluding the
 234 14 RNAs as well as any structurally similar RNAs in order to ensure that we fairly evaluate gRNAd's
 235 generalization abilities vs. Rosetta.

236 **gRNAd improves sequence recovery over Rosetta.** In Figure 2, we compare gRNAd's native
 237 sequence recovery for single-state design with numbers taken from Das et al. [2010] for Rosetta,
 238 FARNa (a predecessor of Rosetta), and ViennaRNA (the most popular 2D inverse folding method).
 239 gRNAd has higher recovery of 56% on average compared to 45% for Rosetta, 32% for FARNa, and
 240 27% for ViennaRNA. See Appendix Table 2 for per-RNA results.

241 **gRNAd is significantly faster than Rosetta.** In addition to superior sequence recovery, gRNAd
 242 is significantly faster than Rosetta for high-throughput design pipelines. Training gRNAd from
 243 scratch takes roughly 2–6 hours on a single A100 GPU, depending on the exact hyperparameters.
 244 Once trained, gRNAd can design hundreds of sequences for backbones with hundreds of nucleotides



Design 1:	Design 2:	Design 3:
perplexity: 1.310	perplexity: 1.382	perplexity: 1.425
recovery: 0.591 (27 edits)	recovery: 0.409 (37 edits)	recovery: 0.515 (30 edits)
sc2D = 0.923, scRMSD = 1.384	sc2D = 0.922, scRMSD = 2.125	sc2D = 0.923, scRMSD = 3.213
scTM = 0.831, scGDT = 0.830	scTM = 0.687, scGDT = 0.678	scTM = 0.512, scGDT = 0.526

Figure 3: **Cherry-picked designs for Guanine riboswitch aptamer** (PDB: 4FE5). We show the RhoFold-predicted 3D structure in colour overlaid on the groundtruth structure in grey. Designs recover the base pairing patterns and tertiary structure of the RNA, as measured by high self-consistency score. gRNAde’s perplexity is correlated well with 3D self-consistency scores and can be useful for ranking designs. More design visualisations are available in [Appendix C](#).

245 in ~ 1 second with GPU acceleration. On the other hand, Rosetta takes order of hours to produce
 246 a single design due to performing expensive Monte Carlo optimisations². Deep learning methods
 247 like gRNAde are arguably easier to use since no expert customization is required and setup is easier
 248 compared to Rosetta [Dauparas et al., 2022], potentially making RNA design more broadly accessible.

249 **gRNAde’s perplexity correlates with sequence and structural recovery.** In [Figure 2b](#), we plot
 250 native sequence recovery per sample for Rosetta vs. gRNAde, shaded by gRNAde’s average perplexity
 251 for each sample. Perplexity is an indicator of the model’s confidence in its own prediction (lower
 252 perplexity implies higher confidence) and appears to be correlated with native sequence recovery.
 253 Additionally, visualisations of gRNAde’s designs for a riboswitch in [Figure 3](#) show that perplexity
 254 is also correlated with structural self-consistency scores. In the subsequent [Section 4.3](#), we further
 255 demonstrate the utility of gRNAde’s perplexity for zero-shot ranking of RNA fitness landscapes.

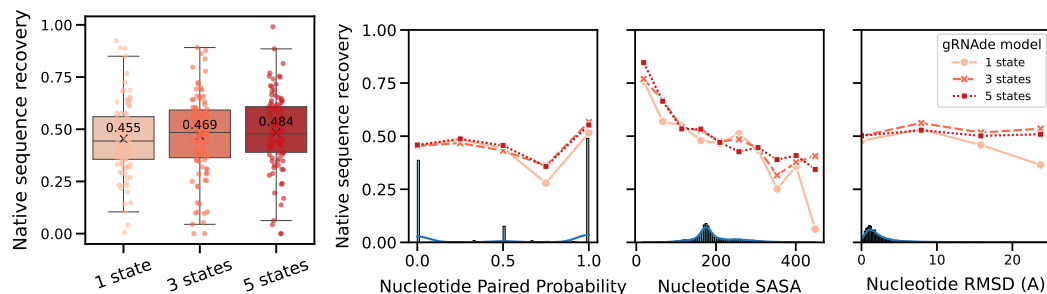
256 4.2 Multi-state RNA design benchmark

257 Structured RNAs often adopt multiple distinct conformational states to perform biological functions
 258 [Ken et al., 2023]. For instance, riboswitches adopt at least two distinct functional conformations: a
 259 ligand bound (holo) and unbound (apo) state, which helps them regulate and control gene expression
 260 [Stagno et al., 2017]. If we were to attempt single-state inverse design for such RNAs, each backbone
 261 structure may lead to a different set of sampled sequences. It is not obvious how to select the
 262 input backbone as well as designed sequence when using single-state models for multi-state design.
 263 gRNAde’s multi-state GNN, described in [Section 2.3](#), directly ‘bakes in’ the multi-state nature of
 264 RNA into the architecture and designs sequences explicitly conditioned on multiple states.

265 In order to evaluate gRNAde’s multi-state design capabilities, we trained equivalent single-state and
 266 multi-state gRNAde models on the multi-state split detailed in [Section 3](#), where the validation and
 267 test sets contain progressively more structurally flexible RNAs as measured by median RMSD among
 268 multiple available states for an RNA.

269 **Multi-state gRNAde boosts sequence recovery.** In [Figure 4a](#), we compared a single-state variant
 270 of gRNAde with otherwise equivalent multi-state models (with up to 3 and 5 states, respectively) in
 271 terms of native sequence recovery. Multi-state variants show marginal improvements, overall. As a
 272 caveat, it is worth noting that multi-state models consume more GPU memory than an equivalent
 273 single-state model during mini-batch training (approximate peak GPU usage for max. number of
 274 states = 1: 12GB, 3: 28GB, 5: 50GB on a single A100 with at most 3000 total nodes in a mini-batch).

²While we have not run Rosetta ourselves, we note that [its documentation](#) states that “runs on RNA backbones longer than \sim ten nucleotides take many minutes or hours”.



(a) Per-sample sequence recovery

(b) Per-nucleotide recovery vs. structural flexibility measures

Figure 4: Multi-state design benchmark. (a) Multi-state gRNAdE show marginal improvement over an equivalent single-state model in terms of average per-sample sequence recovery over all test RNAs. (b) When plotting sequence recovery per-nucleotide, multi-state gRNAdE improves over a single-state model for structurally flexible regions of RNAs, as characterised by nucleotides that tend to undergo changes in base pairing (left), nucleotides with greater average solvent accessible surface area (centre), and nucleotides with higher average RMSD between 3D coordinates across multiple states. Marginal histograms in blue show the distribution of values. We plot performance for one consistent random seed across all models; collated results and ablations are available in Appendix Table 1.

275 **Improved recovery in structurally flexible regions.** In Figure 4b, we evaluated gRNAdE’s
 276 multi-state sequence recovery at a fine-grained, per-nucleotide level. Multi-state GNNs improve
 277 sequence recovery over the single-state variant on structurally flexible nucleotides, as characterised
 278 by undergoing changes in base pairing/secondary structure, higher average RMSD between 3D
 279 coordinates across states, and larger solvent accessible surface area.

280 4.3 Zero-shot ranking of RNA fitness landscape

281 Lastly, we explored the use of gRNAdE as a zero-shot ranker of mutants in RNA engineering
 282 campaigns. Given the backbone structure of a wild type RNA of interest as well as a candidate set of
 283 mutant sequences, we can compute gRNAdE’s perplexity of whether a given sequence folds into the
 284 backbone structure. Perplexity is inversely related to the likelihood of a sequence conditioned on a
 285 structure, as described in Section 2.4. We can then rank sequences based on how ‘compatible’ they
 286 are with the backbone structure in order to select a subset to be experimentally validated in wet labs.

287 **Retrospective analysis on ribozyme fitness landscape.** A recent study by McRae et al. [2024]
 288 determined a cryo-EM structure of a dimeric RNA polymerase ribozyme at 5Å resolution³, along
 289 with fitness landscapes of ~75K mutants for the catalytic subunit 5TU and ~48K mutants for the
 290 scaffolding subunit t1. We design a retrospective study using this data of (sequence, fitness value)
 291 pairs where we simulate an RNA engineering campaign with the aim of improving catalytic subunit
 292 fitness over the wild type 5TU sequence.

293 We consider various design budgets ranging from hundreds to thousands of sequences selected for
 294 experimental validation, and compare 4 unsupervised approaches for ranking/selecting variants: (1)
 295 random choice from all ~75,000 sequences; (2) random choice from all 449 single mutant sequences;
 296 (3) random choice from all single and double mutant sequences (as sequences with higher mutation
 297 order tend to be less fit); and (4) negative gRNAdE perplexity (lower perplexity is better). For each
 298 design budget and ranking approach, we compute the expected maximum change in fitness over the
 299 wild type that could be achieved by screening as many variants as allowed in the given design budget.
 300 We run 10,000 simulations to compute confidence intervals for the 3 random baselines.

301 **gRNAdE outperforms random baselines in low design budget scenarios.** Figure 5 illustrates the
 302 results of our retrospective study. At low design budgets of up to hundreds of sequences, which are
 303 relevant in the case of a low throughput fitness screening assay, gRNAdE outperforms all random
 304 baselines in terms of the maximum change in fitness over the wild type. The top 10 mutants as ranked
 305 by gRNAdE contain a sequence with 4-fold improved fitness, while the top 200 leads to a 5-fold
 306 improvement. Note that gRNAdE is used zero-shot here, i.e. it was not fine-tuned on any assay data.

³This RNA was not present in gRNAdE’s training data, which contains structures at $\leq 4.0\text{\AA}$ resolution.

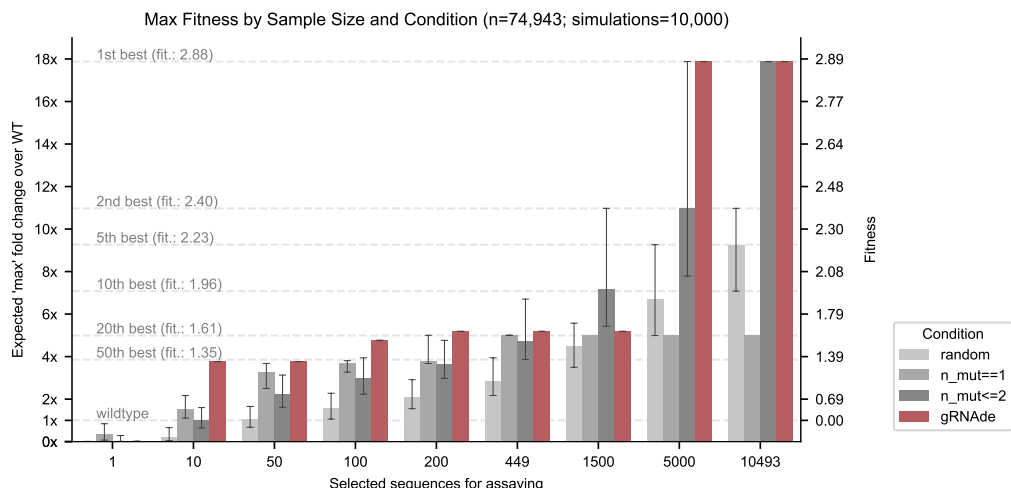


Figure 5: **Retrospective study of gRNAde for ranking ribozyme mutant fitness.** Using the backbone structure and mutational fitness landscape data from an RNA polymerase ribozyme [McRae et al., 2024], we retrospectively analyse how well we can rank variants at multiple design budgets using random selection vs. gRNAde’s perplexity for mutant sequences conditioned on the backbone structure (catalytic subunit 5TU). Note that gRNAde is used zero-shot here, i.e. it was not fine-tuned on any assay data. For stochastic strategies, bars indicate median values, and error bars indicate the interquartile range estimated from 10,000 simulations per strategy and design budget. At low throughput design budgets of up to ~ 500 sequences, selecting mutants using gRNAde outperforms random baselines in terms of the expected maximum improvement in fitness over the wild type. In particular, gRNAde performs better than single site saturation mutagenesis, even when all single mutants are explored (total of 449 single mutants, 10,493 double mutants for the catalytic subunit 5TU in McRae et al. [2024]). See Appendix Figure 10 for results on scaffolding subunit t1.

307 **Perspective.** Overall, it is promising that gRNAde’s perplexity correlates with experimental
 308 fitness measurements out-of-the-box (zero-shot) and can be a useful ranker of mutant fitness in
 309 our retrospective study. In realistic design scenarios, improvements could likely be obtained by
 310 fine-tuning gRNAde on a low amount of experimental fitness data. For example, latent features from
 311 gRNAde may be finetuned or used as input to a prediction head with supervised learning on fitness
 312 landscape data. This study acts as a sanity check before committing to wet lab validation of gRNAde
 313 designs. We see random mutagenesis and directed evolution-based approaches as complementary to
 314 de-novo design and inverse folding approaches like gRNAde. Random mutagenesis can be thought
 315 of as local exploration around a wild type sequence, optimising fitness within an ‘island’ of activity.
 316 Structure-based design approaches are akin to global jumps in sequence space, with the potential to
 317 find new islands further away from the wild type [Huang et al., 2016].

318 5 Conclusion

319 We introduce gRNAde, a geometric deep learning pipeline for RNA sequence design conditioned
 320 on one or more 3D backbone structures. gRNAde is superior to the physically based Rosetta for 3D
 321 RNA inverse folding in terms of performance, inference speed, and ease of use. Further, gRNAde
 322 enables explicit multi-state design for structurally flexible RNAs which was previously not possible
 323 with Rosetta. gRNAde’s perplexity correlates with native sequence and structural recovery, and
 324 can be used for zero-shot ranking of mutants in RNA engineering campaigns. To the best of our
 325 knowledge, gRNAde is also the first geometric deep learning architecture for multi-state biomolecule
 326 representation learning; the model is generic and can be repurposed for other learning tasks on
 327 conformational ensembles, including multi-state protein design.

328 **Limitations.** Key avenues for future development of gRNAde include supporting multiple interacting
 329 chains, accounting for partner molecules with RNAs, and supporting negative design against undesired
 330 conformations. We discuss practical tradeoffs to using gRNAde in real-world RNA design scenarios
 331 in Appendix B, including limitations due to the current state of 3D RNA structure prediction tools.

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469 A Related Work

470 We attempt to briefly summarise recent developments in RNA structure modelling and design, with
471 an emphasis on deep learning-based approaches.

472 **RNA inverse folding.** Most tools for RNA inverse folding focus on secondary structure without
473 considering 3D geometry [Churkin et al., 2018, Runge et al., 2019] and approach the problem from
474 the lens of energy optimisation [Ward et al., 2023]. Rosetta fixed backbone re-design [Das et al.,
475 2010] is the only energy optimisation-based approach that accounts for 3D structure. Deep neural
476 networks such as gRNAd can incorporate 3D structural constraints and are orders of magnitude
477 faster than optimisation-based approaches; this is particularly attractive for high-throughput design
478 pipelines as solving the inverse folding optimisation problem is NP hard [Bonnet et al., 2020].

479 **RNA structure design.** Inverse folding models for protein design have often been coupled with
480 backbone generation models which design structural backbones conditioned on various design
481 constraints [Watson et al., 2023, Ingraham et al., 2023, Didi et al., 2023]. Current approaches for
482 RNA backbone design use classical (non-learned) algorithms for aligning 3D RNA motifs [Han et al.,
483 2017, Yesselman et al., 2019], which are small modular pieces of RNA that are believed to fold
484 independently. Such algorithms may be restricted by the use of hand-crafted heuristics and we plan
485 to explore data-driven generative models for RNA backbone design in future work.

486 **RNA structure prediction.** There have been several recent efforts to adapt protein folding
487 architectures such as AlphaFold2 [Jumper et al., 2021] and RosettaFold [Baek et al., 2021] for RNA
488 structure prediction [Li et al., 2023b, Wang et al., 2023, Baek et al., 2024]. A previous generation of
489 models used GNNs as ranking functions together with Rosetta energy optimisation [Watkins et al.,
490 2020, Townshend et al., 2021]. None of these architectures aim at capturing conformational flexibility
491 of RNAs, unlike gRNAd which represents RNAs as multi-state conformational ensembles. Neither
492 can structure prediction tools be used for RNA design tasks as they are not generative models.

493 **RNA language models.** Self-supervised language models have been developed for predictive and
494 generative tasks on RNA sequences, including general-purpose models such as RNA FM [Chen
495 et al., 2022] and RiNaLMo [Penic et al., 2024] as well as mRNA-specific CodonBERT [Li et al.,
496 2023a]. RNA sequence data repositories are orders of magnitude larger than those for RNA structure
497 (eg. RiNaLMo is trained on 36 million sequences). However, standard language models can only
498 implicitly capture RNA structure and dynamics through sequence co-occurrence statistics, which
499 can pose a challenge for designing structured RNAs such as riboswitches, aptamers, and ribozymes.
500 RibonanzaNet [He et al., 2024] represents a recent effort in developing structure-informed RNA
501 language models by supervised training on experimental readouts from chemical mapping, although
502 RibonanzaNet cannot be used for RNA design. Inverse folding methods like gRNAd are language
503 models conditioned on 3D structure, making them a natural choice for structure-based design.

504 **Comparison to contemporaneous work.** Concurrently, Tan et al. [2023] also developed a deep
505 learning-based 3D RNA inverse folding model. We want to emphasize that this is independent work,
506 but for completeness we include a discussion on key differences to gRNAd:

507 • Methodology:

508 – *New capabilities:* gRNAd enables explicit multi-state design to generate sequences
509 conditioned on multiple backbone structures, which is not possible with Rosetta nor Tan
510 et al. [2023]’s approach. We have also demonstrated the utility of gRNAd’s perplexity for
511 zero-shot ranking of mutants in RNA engineering campaigns.

512 – *Decoding:* gRNAd uses an autoregressive decoder with rotation-equivariant GNN layers,
513 while Tan et al. [2023] use a non-autoregressive (one-shot) decoder with rotation-invariant
514 layers. In our ablation study (Appendix D), we found autoregressive decoding to show
515 significantly higher 2D and 3D self-consistency scores than non-autoregressive decoding,
516 even though non-autoregressive decoding lead to higher sequence recovery. Autoregressive
517 decoding is more expressive and can condition predictions at each decoding step on past
518 predictions, while one-shot decoders sample from independent probability distributions for
519 each nucleotide. We find autoregressive decoding to be a better inductive bias for predicting
520 base pairing and base stacking interactions that are drivers of RNA structure [Vicens and
521 Kieft, 2022]. For instance, G-C and A-U pairs can often be swapped for one another, but
522 non-autoregressive decoding does not capture such paired constraints.

- 523 • Evaluation:
 - 524 – *Evaluation metrics*: [Tan et al. \[2023\]](#) focus on measuring native sequence recovery, only.
525 We have additionally introduced structural self-consistency metrics at the 2D and 3D level,
526 which have been shown to better correlate with experimental success in protein design.
 - 527 – *Perplexity*: We found gRNAd’s perplexity to be correlated with sequence and structural
528 recovery, as well as demonstrated its utility for zero-shot ranking of mutants in RNA
529 engineering. On the other hand, [Tan et al. \[2023\]](#) do not report perplexity and claim that
530 perplexity is an unsuitable metric for RNA design.
 - 531 – *Data splitting*: While both studies use structural clustering to evaluate generalisation to
532 structurally dissimilar RNAs, [Tan et al. \[2023\]](#)’s test splits are determined randomly. Our
533 experiments use curated test splits from [Das et al. \[2010\]](#) to fairly compare gRNAd
534 to physically based Rosetta, as well as split based on structural flexibility to benchmark
535 multi-state design.
- 536 • Usage and reproducibility: We release open source training and inference code as well as model
537 checkpoints to enable complete reproducibility. We also release Colab notebooks and detailed
538 tutorials to make gRNAd broadly applicable and useful in real-world RNA design campaigns.
539 At present, it is not possible to reproduce the results in [Tan et al. \[2023\]](#) or compare to gRNAd
540 directly as no training code is available.

541 B FAQs on using gRNAd

542 **How to chose the number of states to provide as input to gRNAd?** In general, this would depend
543 on the design objective. For instance, designing riboswitches may necessitate multi-state design,
544 while a single-state pipeline may be more sensible for locking an aptamer into its bound conformation
545 [[Yesselman et al., 2019](#)]. Note that it may be possible to benefit from multi-state gRNAd models
546 even when performing single-state design by using slightly noised variations of the same backbone
547 structure as an input conformational ensemble.

548 **How to prioritise or chose amongst designed sequences?** We have currently provided 3 types
549 of evaluation metrics: native sequence recovery, structural self-consistency scores and perplexity,
550 towards this end. We suspect that recovery may not be the ideal choice, except for design scenarios
551 where we require certain regions of the RNA sequence to be conserved or native-like. Self-consistency
552 scores may provide an overall more holistic evaluation metric as they accounts for alternative base
553 pairings which still lead to similar structures as well as better capture the recovery of structural motifs
554 responsible for functionality. However, structural self-consistency scores inherit the limitations of
555 the structure prediction methods used as part of their computation. For instance, computing the self-
556 consistency score between an RNA backbone and its own native sequence provides an upper bounds
557 on the maximum score that designs can obtain under a given structure prediction method. Lastly,
558 gRNAd’s perplexity estimates the likelihood of a sequence given a backbone and can be useful for
559 ranking designs and mutants in RNA engineering campaigns (especially for design scenarios where
560 structure prediction tools are not performant).

561 In real-world design scenarios, we can pair gRNAd with another machine learning model (an
562 ‘oracle’) for ranking or predicting the suitability of designed sequences for the objective (for instance,
563 binding affinity or some other notion of fitness). We hope to conduct further experimental validation
564 of gRNAd designs in the wet lab in order to better understand these tradeoffs.

565 **Why not average single-state logits over multiple states for multi-state design?** ProteinMPNN
566 [[Dauparas et al., 2022](#)] proposes to average logits from multiple backbones for multi-state protein
567 design. Here is a simple example to highlight issues with such an approach: Consider two states A
568 and B, and choice of labels X, Y, and Z. For state A: X, Y, Z are assigned probabilities 75%, 20%,
569 5%. For state B: X, Y, Z are assigned probabilities 5%, 20%, 75%. Logically, label Y is the only one
570 that is compatible with both states. However, averaging the probabilities would lead to label X or Z
571 being more likely to be sampled in designs. As an alternative, gRNAd is based on multi-state GNNs
572 which can take as input one or more backbone structures and generate sequences conditioned on the
573 conformational ensemble directly.

574 **C 3D Visualisation of gRNAde Designs**

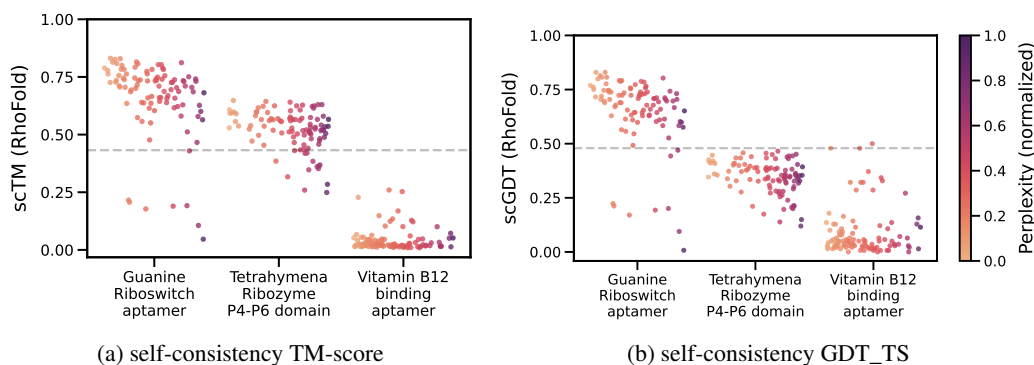
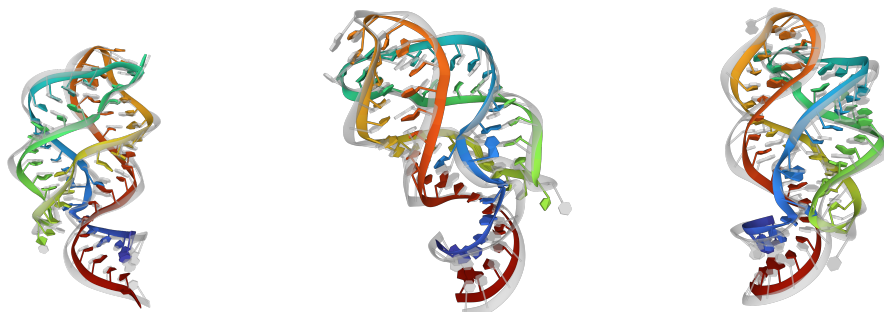


Figure 6: **3D self-consistency scores for 3 representative RNAs from Das et al. [2010]**. We use RhoFold to ‘forward fold’ 100 designs sampled at temperature = 0.5 and plot self-consistency TM-score and GDT_TS. Each dot corresponds to one designed sequence and is coloured by gRNAde’s perplexity (normalised per RNA). Designs with lower relative perplexity generally have higher 3D self-consistency and can be considered more ‘designable’. Dotted lines represent TM-score and GDT_TS thresholds of 0.45 and 0.50, respectively. Pairs of structures scoring higher than the threshold correspond to roughly the same fold.



Design 1:
GGCAAGUAAUCCCUACGCUAUG
GGUAGGGAGUCUCAGCAGUGAC
CCGUAAAGUUACUACCUUGCCC

perplexity: 1.3097
recovery: 0.5909 (27 edits)
sc2D = 0.9227
scRMSD = 1.3839
scTM = 0.8309
scGDT = 0.8295

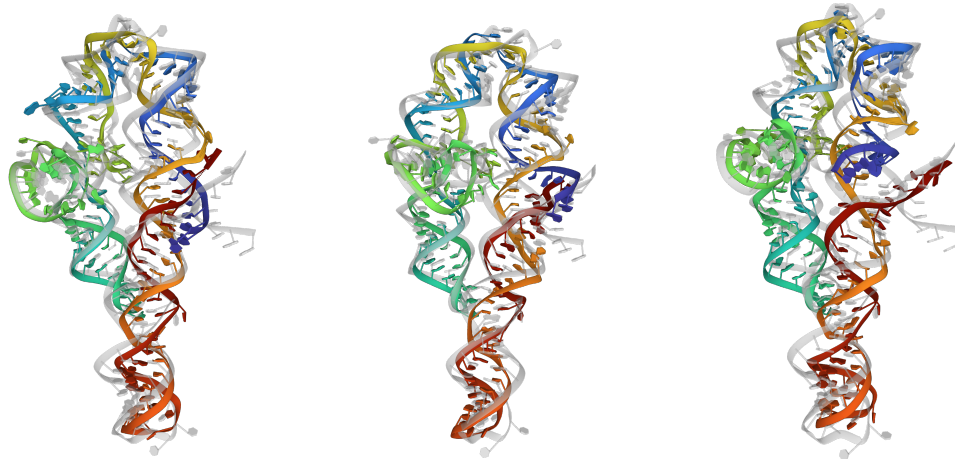
Design 2:
CGGUGGUAAGCCCAACGCUAGG
GGUUGGCGUCUCAGCACAGUC
CCGUAAAGAUUGUACCCACCGG

perplexity: 1.3815
recovery: 0.4091 (37 edits)
sc2D = 0.9227
scRMSD = 2.1249
scTM = 0.6874
scGDT = 0.6780

Design 3:
AGCAAGUAAUGCCAUCGCUAUG
GGAUGGUAGUGUCAGCACUGAC
CCUAAAGUUAGUACCUUGCUU

perplexity: 1.4247
recovery: 0.5152 (30 edits)
sc2D = 0.9227
scRMSD = 3.2131
scTM = 0.5118
scGDT = 0.5265

Figure 7: **Cherry-picked designs for Guanine riboswitch aptamer (PDB: 4FE5, sequence: GGACAUUAAUCCGUGGAUAUGGCACGCAAGUUUCUACCGGGCACCGUAAAUGUCCGACUAUGUCC).**



Design 1:
 GGGGCUCCGGCGACGCAGUCGAAAG
 CCCAGCAGUACCAAGCCUCAGGGGA
 AACUUUGAGGUGGCCUAAACAAAGGA
 UACGGUAAUAAGCUGCGGAAAGG
 UUGUAAAGCCGAGCGAAGACCUAAG
 GCACCGCUUUUGGCGGUCUAUGGU
 UGAAGUUA

perplexity: 1.2462
 recovery: 0.7170 (44 edits)
 sc2D = 0.8301
 scRMSD = 5.4562
 scTM = 0.6481
 scGDT = 0.4465

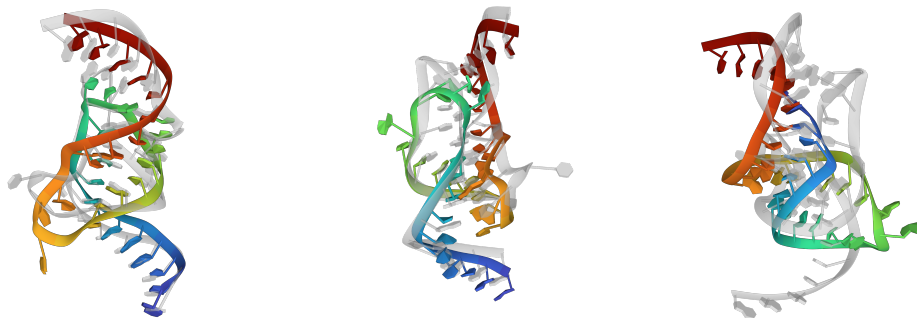
Design 2:
 GGGUACCGGGCGACGCAGUCGAAUG
 CCCUGUGGUACCAAGCCCCGGGGGA
 AACUUCGGGUGGCCUUAACAAGGA
 CACGGUAAUAAGCCACGGGAAUGG
 UUGUAAAGCCGUCGAAAGCCUAAG
 GCCGCGCUUUUGGCGCGGCUAUGGG
 UGAAGGCAA

perplexity: 1.3273
 recovery: 0.6226 (58 edits)
 sc2D = 0.6896
 scRMSD = 6.7239
 scTM = 0.6300
 scGDT = 0.4513

Design 3:
 GAGGCCACGGCAACGCAGUCUAACG
 CCCUGUGGUACCAAGUCUUAGGAGA
 AAUUUUAAGAUGGCCUAAUAAAGGA
 UAUGGUAAUAAGCCACGGGAAAGG
 UUGUAAAGACGUGACGAAGUCCUAAG
 GCCACAGUUUUGCUGUGGCUAUGGA
 UGGAGUACA

perplexity: 1.3204
 recovery: 0.7044 (45 edits)
 sc2D = 0.7922
 scRMSD = 8.8211
 scTM = 0.4582
 scGDT = 0.2909

Figure 8: **Cherry-picked designs for Tetrahymena Ribozyme P4-P6 domain** (PDB: 2R8S, sequence: GGAAUUGCGGGAAAGGGUCAACAGCCGUUCAGUACCAAGUCUCAGGGGAAACUUUGAGAUGGCCUUGCAAAGGGU AUGGUAAUAAGCUGACGGACAUGGUCCUAAACACGCAGCCAAGUCCUAAAGUCAACAGAUUCUUGAUUGGAUGCAGUUA).



Design 1:
 GUCAAAACGCAGCCGAAA
 GCGCGAUAGUCCAGGAA

perplexity = 1.6237
 recovery = 0.4571 (16 edits)
 sc2D = -0.0074
 scRMSD = 3.9505
 scTM = 0.2597
 scGDT = 0.4786

Design 2:
 GGCAAACGCGCCGAAA
 GCGCGUGAGUCCCGGAC

perplexity = 1.6630
 recovery = 0.4857 (16 edits)
 sc2D = -0.0099
 scRMSD = 3.3549
 scTM = 0.2526
 scGDT = 0.5000

Design 3:
 CGUAGUCGGAGCCGAAG
 GGCCGUUAGUCCAGGAG

perplexity = 1.7020
 recovery = 0.4000 (17 edits)
 sc2D = 0.4035
 scRMSD = 16.4102
 scTM = 0.0319
 scGDT = 0.0571

Figure 9: **Cherry-picked designs for Vitamin B12 binding aptamer** (PDB: 1ET4, sequence: GGAAACCGUGCGCAUAACCACCUCAGUGCGAGCAA).

Table 1: Ablation study and aggregated benchmark results for gRNAd. We report metrics averaged over 100 test sets samples and standard deviations across 3 consistent random seeds. The percentages reported in brackets for the 3D self-consistency scores are the percentage of designed samples within the ‘designability’ threshold values ($\text{scRMSD} \leq 2\text{\AA}$, $\text{scTM} \geq 0.45$, $\text{scGDT} \geq 0.5$).

Split	Max. #states	Model	GNN	Max. train length	Perplexity (\downarrow)	Native seq. recovery (\uparrow)	Self-consistency metrics				
							2D – EternaFold scMCC (\uparrow)	scRMSD (\downarrow)	3D – RhoFold scTM-score (\uparrow)	scGDT_TS (\uparrow)	
Single-state split	1	AR	Equiv	500	1.77±0.07	0.438±0.01	0.624±0.07	13.01±1.18 (0.5%)	0.21±0.0 (14.3%)	0.22±0.0 (12.7%)	
	1	AR	Equiv	1000	1.73±0.08	0.453±0.01	0.648±0.01	13.10±0.58 (1.0%)	0.20±0.0 (10.8%)	0.21±0.0 (10.6%)	
	1	AR	Equiv	2500	1.41±0.01	0.493±0.01	0.633±0.03	11.76±0.91 (1.4%)	0.27±0.0 (28.8%)	0.27±0.0 (28.0%)	
	1	AR	Equiv	5000	1.29±0.02	0.530±0.01	0.585±0.03	11.70±0.56 (1.3%)	0.26±0.0 (24.8%)	0.25±0.0 (20.1%)	
	1	AR	Inv	5000	1.32±0.04	0.549±0.00	0.612±0.02	11.50±0.64 (1.9%)	0.28±0.0 (32.1%)	0.28±0.0 (26.2%)	
	1	NAR	Inv	5000	1.54±0.04	0.571±0.00	0.430±0.02	14.26±0.51 (1.3%)	0.19±0.0 (15.9%)	0.18±0.0 (12.7%)	
	1	NAR	Equiv	5000	1.46±0.06	0.584±0.00	0.473±0.02	13.04±0.88 (1.3%)	0.23±0.0 (24.0%)	0.22±0.0 (17.9%)	
	3	AR	Equiv	5000	1.23±0.05	0.539±0.01	0.620±0.01	11.47±1.05 (2.5%)	0.28±0.0 (31.4%)	0.28±0.0 (27.2%)	
	5	AR	Equiv	5000	1.25±0.01	0.539±0.02	0.596±0.03	11.90±1.00 (2.9%)	0.27±0.0 (31.6%)	0.26±0.0 (26.4%)	
	Groundtruth sequence prediction baseline:					-	1.000±0.00	0.686±0.00	5.23±0.07 (27.9%)	0.56±0.0 (68.7%)	0.55±0.0 (68.7%)
	Random sequence prediction baseline:					-	0.251±0.00	0.012±0.00	24.40±0.34 (0.0%)	0.04±0.0 (0.0%)	0.02±0.0 (0.0%)
	ViennaRNA 2D-only baseline:					-	0.259±0.00	0.611±0.00	20.34±0.10 (0.0%)	0.07±0.0 (0.6%)	0.07±0.0 (1.1%)
Multi-state split	1	AR	Equiv	500	1.87±0.06	0.445±0.01	0.603±0.03	13.08±0.20 (3.5%)	0.10±0.0 (1.2%)	0.25±0.0 (20.7%)	
	1	AR	Equiv	1000	1.84±0.01	0.447±0.01	0.580±0.01	13.02±0.56 (2.3%)	0.09±0.0 (0.9%)	0.25±0.0 (20.4%)	
	1	AR	Equiv	2500	1.73±0.04	0.480±0.02	0.567±0.01	12.83±0.05 (3.4%)	0.10±0.0 (1.9%)	0.26±0.0 (21.2%)	
	1	AR	Equiv	5000	1.68±0.03	0.455±0.01	0.569±0.02	12.88±0.20 (4.1%)	0.11±0.0 (1.6%)	0.26±0.0 (22.6%)	
	1	AR	Inv	5000	1.72±0.01	0.463±0.01	0.559±0.03	13.09±0.27 (4.1%)	0.10±0.0 (2.2%)	0.27±0.0 (23.0%)	
	1	NAR	Inv	5000	2.01±0.04	0.457±0.01	0.461±0.01	14.06±0.23 (3.2%)	0.08±0.0 (1.7%)	0.23±0.0 (16.5%)	
	1	NAR	Equiv	5000	1.89±0.06	0.432±0.01	0.423±0.01	13.63±0.27 (3.6%)	0.09±0.0 (1.2%)	0.24±0.0 (18.3%)	
	3	AR	Equiv	5000	1.60±0.03	0.467±0.03	0.561±0.03	13.31±0.38 (3.4%)	0.10±0.0 (2.6%)	0.24±0.0 (19.0%)	
	5	AR	Equiv	5000	1.55±0.04	0.473±0.01	0.549±0.03	13.48±0.79 (3.3%)	0.10±0.0 (3.0%)	0.24±0.0 (20.2%)	
	Groundtruth sequence prediction baseline:					-	1.000±0.00	0.570±0.01	9.78±0.13 (10.3%)	0.16±0.0 (11.7%)	0.36±0.0 (36.7%)
	Random sequence prediction baseline:					-	0.249±0.00	0.128±0.00	21.15±0.21 (0.9%)	0.02±0.0 (0.0%)	0.09±0.0 (3.3%)
	ViennaRNA 2D-only baseline:					-	0.258±0.00	0.601±0.00	15.47±0.20 (2.4%)	0.05±0.0 (0.2%)	0.19±0.0 (15.2%)
All data	1	AR	Equiv	5000	1.23±0.01	0.733±0.00	0.627±0.02	8.10±0.28 (20.7%)	0.42±0.0 (46.1%)	0.41±0.0 (43.0%)	
	2	AR	Equiv	5000	1.21±0.01	0.783±0.01	0.629±0.03	8.40±0.09 (19.1%)	0.42±0.0 (47.8%)	0.41±0.0 (41.7%)	
	3	AR	Equiv	5000	1.19±0.01	0.787±0.01	0.606±0.02	7.88±0.68 (20.5%)	0.43±0.0 (47.4%)	0.42±0.0 (44.0%)	
	5	AR	Equiv	5000	1.15±0.01	0.811±0.01	0.617±0.02	7.51±0.30 (20.7%)	0.45±0.0 (50.2%)	0.44±0.0 (46.7%)	

575 D Ablation Study

576 **Table 1** presents an ablation study as well as aggregated benchmark for various configurations of
577 gRNAd. Key takeaways are highlighted below. Note that all results in the main paper are reported
578 for models trained on the maximum length of 5000 nucleotides using autoregressive decoding and
579 rotation-equivariant GNN layers, as this lead to the lowest perplexity values.

580 **Max. train RNA length** Limiting the maximum length of RNAs used for training can be seen
581 as ablating the use of ribosomal RNA families (which are thousands of nucleotides long and form
582 complexes with specialised ribosomal proteins). We find that training on only short RNAs fewer than
583 1000s of nucleotides leads to worse sequence recovery and 3D self-consistency scores, even though it
584 improves 2D self-consistency across both evaluation splits. This suggests that tertiary interactions
585 learnt from ribosomal RNAs can generalise to other RNA families to some extent (large ribosomal
586 RNAs were excluded from test sets).

587 **GNN** We ablated whether the internal representations of the GVP-GNN are rotation invariant or
588 equivariant. Equivariant GNNs are theoretically more expressive [Joshi et al., 2023] and we do find
589 them more capable at fitting the training distribution (as shown by lower perplexity). However, we do
590 not find significant differences in terms of other performance metrics across different GNN layers.

591 **Model** ‘AR’ implies autoregressive decoding (described in Section 2.3, uses 4 encoder and 4
592 decoder layers), while ‘NAR’ implies non-autoregressive, one-shot decoding using an MLP (uses 8
593 encoder layers). Across both evaluation splits, AR models show significantly higher self-consistency
594 scores than NAR, even though NAR lead to higher sequence recovery. AR is more expressive and
595 can condition predictions at each decoding step on past predictions, while one-shot NAR samples
596 from independent probability distributions for each nucleotide. Thus, AR is a better inductive bias
597 for predicting base pairing and base stacking interactions that are drivers of RNA structure [Vicens
598 and Kieft, 2022]. For instance, G-C and A-U pairs can often be swapped for one another, but
599 non-autoregressive decoding does not capture such paired constraints.

600 **Max. #states** We evaluate the impact of increasing the maximum number of states as input to
601 gRNAd. Multi-state models marginally improve native sequence recovery as well as structural
602 self-consistency scores over an equivalent single state variant, even for the single-state benchmark
603 where the multi-state model is being used with only one state as input. This suggests that seeing
604 multiple states during training can be useful for gRNAd’s performance even for single-state design
605 tasks.

606 **Non-learnt baselines.** We report the performance of two non-learnt baselines to contextualise
607 gRNAd’s performance: for each test sample, simply predicting the groundtruth sequence back
608 and predicting a random sequence. Structural self-consistency scores for the Groundtruth baseline
609 provides a rough upper bounds on the maximum score that any gRNAd designs can theoretically
610 obtain given the current state of 2D/3D structure predictors being used. gRNAd always performs
611 better than the random baseline and often reaches 2D self-consistency scores close to the upper bound.
612 Both 2D and 3D self-consistency scores are inherently limited by the performance of the structure
613 prediction methods used.

614 **2D inverse folding baseline.** We additionally report results for ViennaRNA’s 2D-only inverse
615 folding method to further demonstrate the utility of 3D inverse folding. ViennaRNA has improved
616 2D self-consistency scores over gRNAd but fails to capture tertiary interactions in its designs, as
617 evident by poor recovery and 3D self-consistency scores similar to the random baseline.

618 **Split.** Single- and multi-state splits are described in [Section 3](#); the multi-state split is relatively harder
619 than the single-state split based on overall reduced performance for all baselines and models. Models
620 trained on ‘All data’ use all RNASolo samples for training, solely for the purpose of releasing the best
621 possible gRNAd checkpoints for real-world usage. Evaluation metrics for ‘All data’ are reported on
622 the single-state test set.

623 **E Additional Results**

Table 2: Full results for Figure 2 comparing gRNAd to Rosetta, FARNa and ViennaRNA for single-state design on 14 RNA structures of interest identified by Das et al. [2010]. Rosetta and FARNa recovery values are taken from Das et al. [2010], Supplementary Table 2.

PDB ID	Description	ViennaRNA	FARNa	Rosetta	gRNAd (single-state)		
		Recovery	Recovery	Recovery	Recovery	Perplexity	2D self-cons.
1CSL	RRE high affinity site	0.25	0.20	0.44	0.5719	1.2812	0.8644
1ET4	Vitamin B12 binding RNA aptamer	0.25	0.34	0.44	0.6250	1.3457	-0.0135
1F27	Biotin-binding RNA pseudoknot	0.30	0.36	0.37	0.3437	1.6203	0.4523
1L2X	Viral RNA pseudoknot	0.24	0.45	0.48	0.4721	1.3181	0.5692
1LNT	RNA internal loop of SRP	0.33	0.27	0.53	0.5843	1.4337	0.1379
1Q9A	Sarcin/ricin domain from E.coli 23S rRNA	0.27	0.40	0.41	0.5044	1.3411	0.0597
4FE5	Guanine riboswitch aptamer	0.29	0.28	0.36	0.5300	1.3824	0.9116
1X9C	All-RNA hairpin ribozyme	0.26	0.31	0.50	0.5000	1.3905	0.6630
1XPE	HIV-1 B RNA dimerization initiation site	0.27	0.24	0.40	0.7037	1.2177	0.7768
2GCS	Pre-cleavage state of glmS ribozyme	0.25	0.26	0.44	0.5078	1.3053	0.4062
2GDI	Thiamine pyrophosphate-specific riboswitch	0.25	0.38	0.48	0.6500	1.2363	-0.0251
2QEU	Junctionless hairpin ribozyme	0.23	0.30	0.37	0.9519	1.0913	0.7768
2R8S	Tetrahymena ribozyme P4-P6 domain	0.27	0.36	0.53	0.5689	1.1881	0.7281
354D	Loop E from E. coli 5S rRNA	0.28	0.35	0.55	0.4410	1.4938	0.0430
Overall recovery:		0.27	0.32	0.45	0.5682		

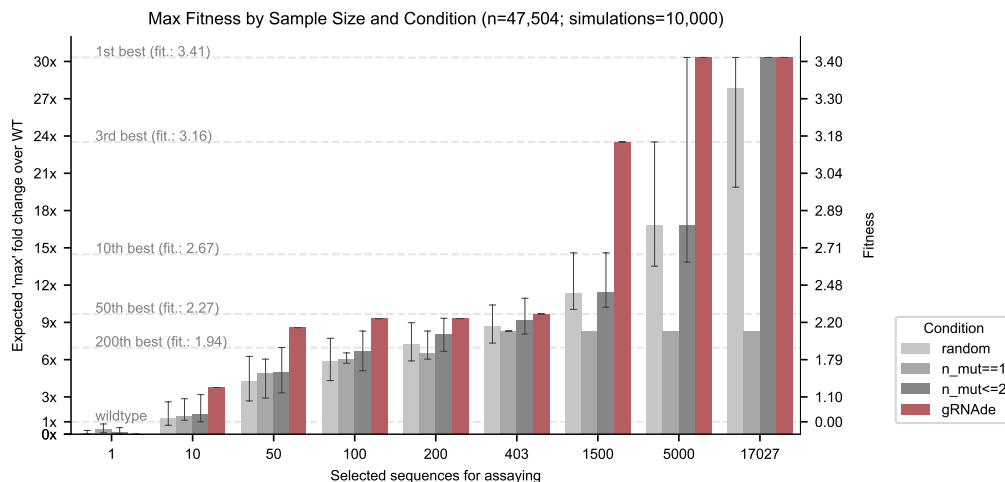


Figure 10: **Retrospective study of gRNAd for ranking ribozyme mutant fitness (t1 subunit).** Using the backbone structure and mutational fitness landscape data from an RNA polymerase ribozyme [McRae et al., 2024], we retrospectively analyse how well we can rank variants at multiple design budgets using random selection vs. gRNAd’s perplexity for mutant sequences conditioned on the backbone structure (scaffolding subunit t1). gRNAd performs better than single site saturation mutagenesis, even when all single mutants are explored (total of 403 single mutants, 17,027 double mutants for the scaffolding subunit t1 in McRae et al. [2024]). See Section 4.3 for results on catalytic subunit 5TU and further discussions.

624 **F Additional Figures**

625 [Figure 11](#): RNA backbone featurization.

626 [Figure 12](#): gRNAde model architecture.

627 [Figure 13](#): In-silico evaluation metrics for gRNAde.

628 [Figure 14](#): Multi-graph tensor representation of RNA conformational ensembles.

629 Listing 1: Pseudocode for multi-state GNN encoder layer.

630 [Figure 15](#): RNASolo data statistics.

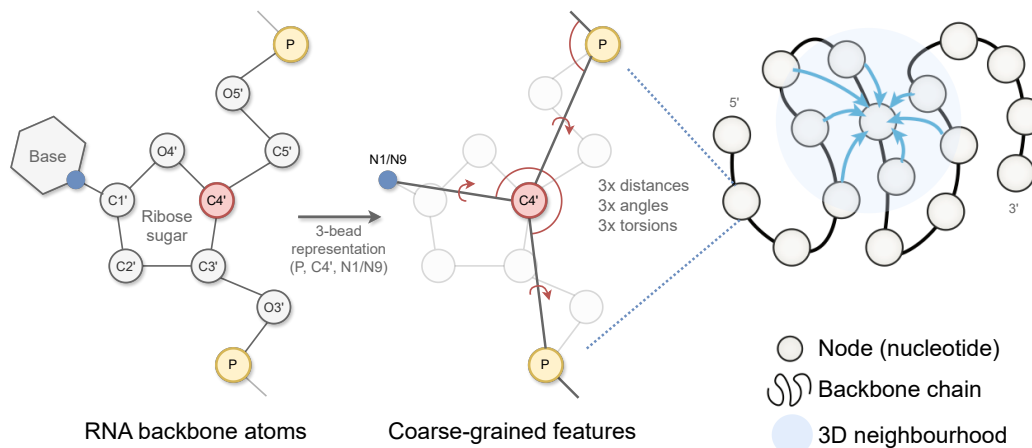


Figure 11: **gRNAde featurizes RNA backbone structures as 3D geometric graphs.** Each RNA nucleotide is a node in the graph, consisting of 3 coarse-grained beads for the coordinates for P, C4', N1 (pyrimidines) or N9 (purines) which are used to compute initial geometric features and edges to nearest neighbours in 3D space. Backbone chain figure adapted from [Ingraham et al. \[2019\]](#).

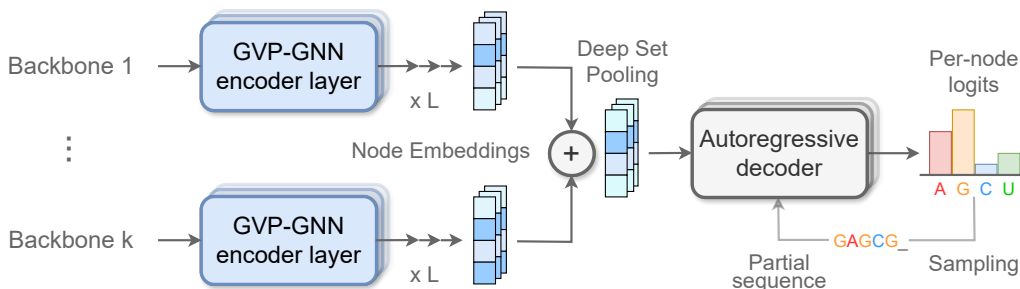


Figure 12: **gRNAde model architecture.** One or more RNA backbone geometric graphs are encoded via a series of SE(3)-equivariant Graph Neural Network layers [[Jing et al., 2020](#)] to build latent representations of the local 3D geometric neighbourhood of each nucleotide within each state. Representations from multiple states for each nucleotide are then pooled together via permutation invariant Deep Sets [[Zaheer et al., 2017](#)], and fed to an autoregressive decoder to predict a probabilities over the four possible bases (A, G, C, U). The probability distribution can be sampled to design a set of candidate sequences. During training, the model is trained end-to-end by minimising a cross-entropy loss between the predicted probability distribution and the true sequence identity.

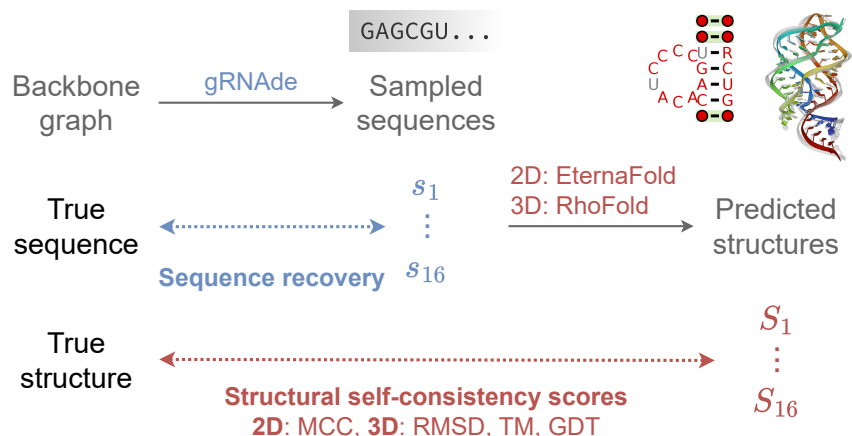


Figure 13: **In-silico evaluation metrics for gRNAde designed sequences.** We consider (1) *sequence recovery*, the percentage of native nucleotides recovered in designed samples, (2) *self-consistency scores*, which are measured by ‘forward folding’ designed sequences using a structure predictor and measuring how well 2D and 3D structure are recovered (we use EternaFold and RhoFold for 2D/3D structure prediction, respectively). We also report (3) *perplexity*, the model’s estimate of the likelihood of a sequence given a backbone.

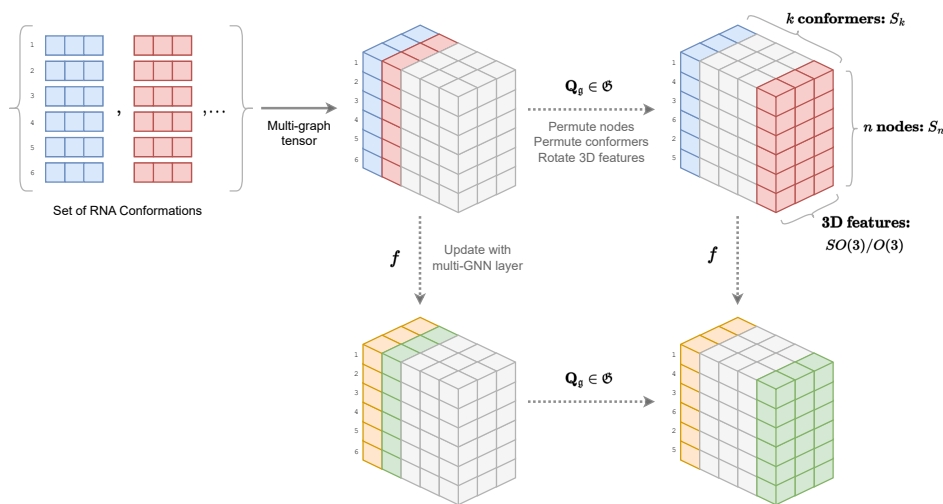


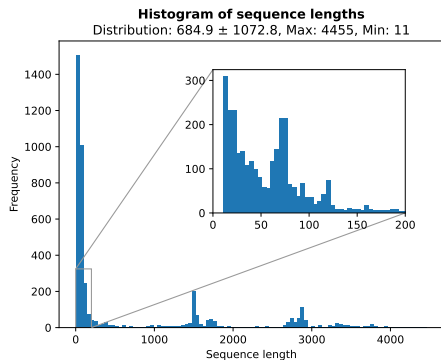
Figure 14: **Multi-graph tensor representation of RNA conformational ensembles**, and the associated symmetry groups acting on each axis. We process a set of k RNA backbone conformations with n nodes each into a tensor representation. Each multi-state GNN layer updates the tensor while being equivariant to the underlying symmetries; pseudocode is available in Listing 1. Here, we show a tensor of 3D vector-type features with shape $n \times k \times 3$. As depicted in the equivariance diagram, the updated tensor must be equivariant to permutation S_n of n nodes for axis 1, permutation S_k of k conformers for axis 2, and rotation $SO(3)/O(3)$ of the 3D features for axis 3.

```

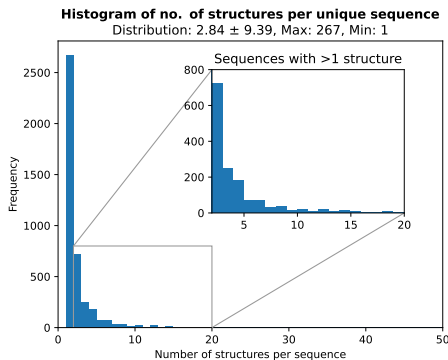
1 class MultiGVPConv(MessagePassing):
2     '''GVPConv for handling multiple conformations'''
3
4     def __init__(self, ...):
5         ...
6
7     def forward(self, x_s, x_v, edge_index, edge_attr):
8
9         # stack scalar feats along axis 1:
10        # [n_nodes, n_conf, d_s] -> [n_nodes, n_conf * d_s]
11        x_s = x_s.view(x_s.shape[0], x_s.shape[1] * x_s.shape[2])
12
13        # stack vector feat along axis 1:
14        # [n_nodes, n_conf, d_v, 3] -> [n_nodes, n_conf * d_v*3]
15        x_v = x_v.view(x_v.shape[0], x_v.shape[1] * x_v.shape[2]*3)
16
17        # message passing and aggregation
18        message = self.propagate(
19            edge_index, s=x_s, v=x_v, edge_attr=edge_attr)
20
21        # split scalar and vector channels
22        return _split_multi(message, d_s, d_v, n_conf)
23
24    def message(self, s_i, v_i, s_j, v_j, edge_attr):
25
26        # unstack scalar feats:
27        # [n_nodes, n_conf * d] -> [n_nodes, n_conf, d_s]
28        s_i = s_i.view(s_i.shape[0], s_i.shape[1]//d_s, d_s)
29        s_j = s_j.view(s_j.shape[0], s_j.shape[1]//d_s, d_s)
30
31        # unstack vector feats:
32        # [n_nodes, n_conf * d_v*3] -> [n_nodes, n_conf, d_v, 3]
33        v_i = v_i.view(v_i.shape[0], v_i.shape[1]//(d_v*3), d_v, 3)
34        v_j = v_j.view(v_j.shape[0], v_j.shape[1]//(d_v*3), d_v, 3)
35
36        # message function for edge j-i
37        message = tuple_cat((s_j, v_j), edge_attr, (s_i, v_i))
38        message = self.message_func(message) # GVP
39
40        # merge scalar and vector channels along axis 1
41        return _merge_multi(*message)
42
43    def _split_multi(x, d_s, d_v, n_conf):
44        '''
45        Splits a merged representation of (s, v) back into a tuple.
46        '''
47        s = x[..., :-3 * d_v * n_conf].view(x.shape[0], n_conf, d_s)
48        v = x[..., -3 * d_v * n_conf:].view(x.shape[0], n_conf, d_v, 3)
49        return s, v
50
51    def _merge_multi(s, v):
52        '''
53        Merges a tuple (s, v) into a single 'torch.Tensor',
54        where the vector channels are flattened and
55        appended to the scalar channels.
56        '''
57        # s: [n_nodes, n_conf, d] -> [n_nodes, n_conf * d_s]
58        s = s.view(s.shape[0], s.shape[1] * s.shape[2])
59        # v: [n_nodes, n_conf, d, 3] -> [n_nodes, n_conf * d_v*3]
60        v = v.view(v.shape[0], v.shape[1] * v.shape[2]*3)
61        return torch.cat([s, v], -1)

```

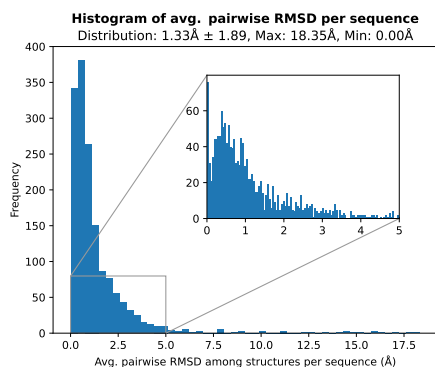
Listing 1: **PyG-style pseudocode for a multi-state GVP-GNN layer.** We update node features for each conformer independently while maintaining permutation equivariance of the updated feature tensors along both the first (no. of nodes) and second (no. of conformations) axes.



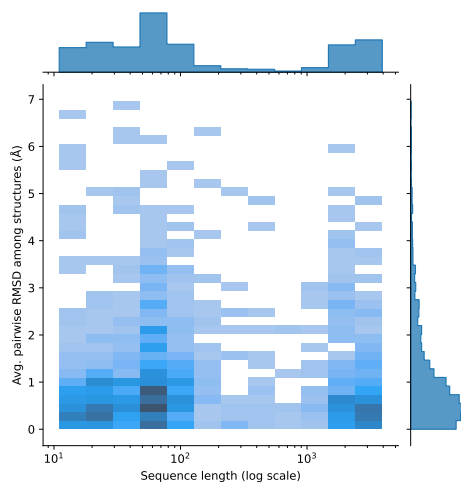
(a) **Sequence length.** The dataset is long-tailed in terms of RNA sequence length, with many short sequences including aptamers, riboswitches, ribozymes, and tRNAs (fewer than 200 nucleotides). The dataset also includes several longer ribosomal RNAs (thousands of nucleotides).



(b) **Number of structures per sequence.** The dataset covers a wide range of RNA conformation ensembles, with on average 3 structures per sequence. There are multiple structures available for 1,547 sequences. The remaining 2,676 sequences have one corresponding structure.



(c) **Average pairwise RMSD per sequence.** For 1,547 sequences with multiple structures, there is significant structural diversity among conformations. On average, the pairwise C4' RMSD among the set of structures for a sequence is greater than 1Å.



(d) **Bivariate distribution for sequence length vs. avg. RMSD.** The joint plot illustrates how structural diversity (measured by avg. pairwise RMSD) varies across sequence lengths. We notice similar structural variations regardless of sequence length.

Figure 15: **RNA Solo data statistics.** We plot histograms to visualise the diversity of RNAs available in terms of (a) sequence length, (b) number of structures available per sequence, as well as (c) structural variation among conformations for those RNA that have multiple structures. The bivariate distribution plot (d) for sequence length vs. average pairwise RMSD illustrates structural diversity regardless of sequence lengths.

631 **NeurIPS Paper Checklist**

632 **1. Claims**

633 Question: Do the main claims made in the abstract and introduction accurately reflect the paper’s
634 contributions and scope?

635 Answer: [Yes]

636 Justification: Yes, the main claims made in the abstract are that the proposed 3D RNA design
637 method, gRNAd, improves sequence recovery over Rosetta, is capable of multi-state design,
638 and can be useful for zero-shot ranking of RNA fitness landscapes. All the claims are supported
639 by empirical results and expanded upon in detail in the rest of the paper.

640 **2. Limitations**

641 Question: Does the paper discuss the limitations of the work performed by the authors?

642 Answer: [Yes]

643 Justification: Yes, we have discussed limitations at several places, including the conclusion
644 section, an FAQ section, as well as a detailed ablation study in the appendix.

645 **3. Theory Assumptions and Proofs**

646 Question: For each theoretical result, does the paper provide the full set of assumptions and a
647 complete (and correct) proof?

648 Answer: [NA]

649 Justification: The paper does not include theoretical results.

650 **4. Experimental Result Reproducibility**

651 Question: Does the paper fully disclose all the information needed to reproduce the main
652 experimental results of the paper to the extent that it affects the main claims and/or conclusions
653 of the paper (regardless of whether the code and data are provided or not)?

654 Answer: [Yes]

655 Justification: All code, data, and pretrained models are publicly available, along with detailed
656 instructions on installation, reproducing results, and real-world usage.

657 **5. Open access to data and code**

658 Question: Does the paper provide open access to the data and code, with sufficient instructions
659 to faithfully reproduce the main experimental results, as described in supplemental material?

660 Answer: [Yes]

661 Justification: All data and code is publicly available, including the exact commands and environ-
662 ments needed to access the raw data, process the data, and reproduce the results.

663 **6. Experimental Setting/Details**

664 Question: Does the paper specify all the training and test details (e.g., data splits, hyperparame-
665 ters, how they were chosen, type of optimizer, etc.) necessary to understand the results?

666 Answer: [Yes]

667 Justification: The experimental setup is presented in detail as a dedicated section in the main
668 text, as well as extensively documented in the code.

669 **7. Experiment Statistical Significance**

670 Question: Does the paper report error bars suitably and correctly defined or other appropriate
671 information about the statistical significance of the experiments?

672 Answer: [Yes]

673 Justification: All results are accompanied by error bars and confidence intervals, along with the
674 factors of variability that the error bars capture.

675 **8. Experiments Compute Resources**

676 Question: For each experiment, does the paper provide sufficient information on the computer
677 resources (type of compute workers, memory, time of execution) needed to reproduce the
678 experiments?

679 Answer: [Yes]
680 Justification: Yes, the paper and code provide information on the computer resources used for
681 this work. However, we currently do not have estimates on the total compute used.

682 **9. Code Of Ethics**

683 Question: Does the research conducted in the paper conform, in every respect, with the NeurIPS
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688 Question: Does the paper discuss both potential positive societal impacts and negative societal
689 impacts of the work performed?

690 Answer: [Yes]
691 Justification: We hope that our tools contribute to the development of RNA-based therapeutics
692 towards improving health outcomes. We have attempted to make gRNAd as convenient to use
693 as possible towards this end. We do not foresee any immediate negative societal impact of our
694 work.

695 **11. Safeguards**

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697 of data or models that have a high risk for misuse (e.g., pretrained language models, image
698 generators, or scraped datasets)?

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706 Justification: Original owners of any assets used as part of our study are appropriately credited.

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708 Question: Are new assets introduced in the paper well documented and is the documentation
709 provided alongside the assets?

710 Answer: [Yes]
711 Justification: Our datasets, code, and model checkpoints are publicly available under the
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725 Answer: [NA]
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