PFMBENCH: PROTEIN FOUNDATION MODEL BENCH-MARK

Anonymous authors

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the current landscape and future directions of protein foundation model research. While recent advancements have transformed protein science and engineering, the field lacks a comprehensive benchmark for fair evaluation and in-depth understanding. Since ESM-1B, numerous protein foundation models have emerged, each with unique datasets and methodologies. However, evaluations often focus on limited tasks tailored to specific models, hindering insights into broader generalization and limitations. Specifically, researchers struggle to understand the relationships between tasks, assess how well current models perform across them, and determine the criteria in developing new foundation models. To fill this gap, we present PFMBench, a comprehensive benchmark evaluating protein foundation models across 38 tasks spanning 8 key areas of protein science. Through hundreds of experiments on 17 state-of-the-art models across 38 tasks, PFMBench reveals the inherent correlations between tasks, identifies top-performing models, and provides a streamlined evaluation protocol. Code will be released upon acceptance.

1 Introduction

Protein foundation models (PFMs) have garnered significant attention in recent years for their transformative potential in protein science and engineering. By training on large-scale protein datasets, these models capture intricate relationships between sequences, structures, and functions. Since the debut of ESM-1B Rives et al. (2021) in 2021, a diverse array of PFMs—spanning various architectures and training paradigms—has emerged Rives et al. (2021); Lin et al. (2023); Hayes et al. (2025); Elnaggar et al. (2021); Madani et al. (2023); Ferruz et al. (2022); Tan et al. (2025); Zhou et al. (2025); Elnaggar et al. (2023); Chen et al. (2024); Wang et al. (2024b); Su et al.; 2024); Xu et al. (2023); Bjerregaard et al. (2025); Guo et al. (2025); Li et al. (2024). Despite this rapid progress, prior models like ESM2 Lin et al. (2023) still dominate many bioengineering applications. This raises several pressing questions: Has the field reached a plateau and what is the next frontier for PFMs? Thus, a comprehensive and systematic benchmark is urgently needed.

Comparison of PFMBench with existing benchmarks. #PFM: number of PFMs (>500M), MM: multimodal PFMs, #Tasks: task count, Protocol: simplified evaluation protocol.

		#PFM	MM	#Tasks	Protocol
TAPE	NeurIPS 2019	0	Χ	4	X
PEER	NeurIPS 2022	1	X	14	X
CARE	NeurIPS 2024	0	X	2	X
Venus	Arxiv 2025	3	X	22	X
Our		14	✓	38	✓

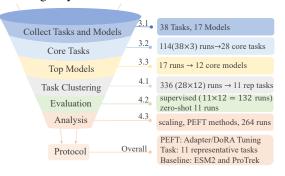


Figure 1: PFMBench: More tasks, multimodal PFMs, a simplified protocol, and hierarchical analysis. Previous benchmarking efforts for protein models have either covered a limited set of tasks or were not explicitly designed for evaluating foundation models, as shown in Fig. 1. In the context of protein foundation models (PFMs)—typically defined as models with at least 500 million parameters—most existing benchmarks fall short of providing comprehensive evaluation. For example, TAPE Rao et al. (2019) assessed architectures such as Transformers Vaswani et al. (2017), LSTMs Hochreiter & Schmidhuber (1997), and ResNets He et al. (2016) across four tasks, but did not include any large-scale PFMs. PEER Xu et al. (2022) evaluated models on 14 tasks but was limited to sequence-based

architectures, with only ESM-1B Rives et al. (2021) exceeding the 500-million-parameter threshold. CARE Yang et al. (2024) focused narrowly on two enzyme-related tasks: classification and retrieval. More recently, VenusFactory Tan et al. (2025) introduced a unified benchmark spanning 22 tasks across five functional categories. However, it reported results for only three large sequence-based models, such as ESM2 Lin et al. (2023), Ankh Elnaggar et al. (2023), and ProtT5 Elnaggar et al. (2021), limiting its ability to capture the full spectrum of modern PFMs.

Multimodal PFMs are understudied in existing benchmarks, despite the field's rapid shift toward models that integrate sequence, structure, and functional data. For example, ESM3 Hayes et al. (2025), GearNet Zhang et al. (b), and SaProt Su et al. have demonstrated strong performance on specialized tasks such as protein design and function prediction. However, their evaluations are often limited in scope, focusing on specific tasks or datasets, which impedes a systematic understanding of their limitations, generalizability, and cross-task performance. For instance, while ESM3 excels in protein design, its ability to generalize to other tasks remains largely unexplored. Similarly, GearNet and SaProt have shown promise in certain tasks, but their performance across broader protein function landscapes has yet to be thoroughly assessed. Consequently, it remains unclear under what conditions and how multimodal PFMs contribute to improved generalization capabilities.

A benchmark should not merely serve as a collection of tasks and models—it should also provide a streamlined protocol for model development. As both tasks and models become increasingly complex, exhaustively evaluating all models across all tasks becomes impractical and often fails to yield actionable insights. A more effective approach is to uncover the underlying relationships between tasks, identify a representative subset of tasks, and select a diverse yet informative set of models for focused evaluation. This strategy enables the benchmark to help researchers identify top-performing models for specific tasks and guide the development of new models—serving as a blueprint for future model evaluation, selection, and design.

To address this gap, we introduce PFMBench—a unified and comprehensive benchmark suite for protein foundation models. PFMBench spans 38 tasks across 8 categories, encompassing 19 sequence-based, sequence-structure, sequence-function, and multimodal PFMs. Both datasets and models are carefully curated to ensure robust, fair and meaningful comparisons. Through extensive evaluation, PFMBench offers detailed insights into the strengths and limitations of modern PFMs, and provide a simplified and useful protocol for future PFM development.

2 Related Work

Protein Foundation Models. Protein foundation models (PFMs) have witnessed exponential growth in recent years, revolutionizing computational biology through self-supervised learning on vast protein sequence datasets. ESM-1b Rives et al. (2021) pioneered large-scale protein modeling with a 650M parameter transformer trained on 65 million protein sequences via masked language modeling. This trajectory continued with ESM-2 and ESMC models Lin et al. (2023), which demonstrated enhanced representation learning for protein structure and function through refined architecture and expanded training data. The ESM family evolved further with ESM3 Hayes et al. (2025), scaling to 98B parameters and incorporating structure-aware training to achieve state-of-the-art performance on zero-shot fitness prediction and structure modeling. ProtT5 Elnaggar et al. (2021) adapted the T5 architecture to proteins, scaling to 3B and 11B parameters with span-masking objectives, establishing strong baselines for protein sequence-to-sequence tasks. The generative approach was pioneered by ProGen Madani et al. (2023), a 1.2B parameter conditional generation model, and ProtGPT2 Ferruz et al. (2022), a 738M parameter GPT-2-based model for de novo protein sequence generation. VenusPLM Tan et al. (2025) employed transformer-based architectures with modular finetuning capabilities for enzyme engineering and protein function prediction. Multimodal approaches emerged with ProtCLIP Zhou et al. (2025), aligning protein sequences with biological text through function-informed pre-training. ANKH Elnaggar et al. (2023) built upon ProtT5's architecture to optimize data efficiency through systematic ablation studies. xTrimoPGLM Chen et al. (2024) adpot GLM's training paradigm to protein sequences, expanding the model size to 100B. Other significant contributions include DPLM Wang et al. (2024b), leveraging deep learning for protein language modeling; SaProt Su et al., focusing on structure-aware protein representation learning; ProtRek Su et al. (2024), specialized in protein sequence retrieval and knowledge integration; and ProST Xu et al. (2023), which incorporates biomedical texts to guide protein function learning. Together, these

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diverse foundation models have transformed protein research by enabling unprecedented advances in structure prediction, functional annotation, and protein design through their ability to learn complex evolutionary and structural patterns from sequence data.

Protein Benchmarks. Protein foundation model benchmarks have evolved significantly, transitioning from early efforts like TAPE Rao et al. (2019), which evaluated small models on a limited set of tasks, to more comprehensive frameworks. PEER Xu et al. (2022) expanded the scope by introducing a multi-task benchmark encompassing diverse protein understanding tasks, including function prediction and protein-protein interactions. BeProf Wang et al. (2024a) further contributed by evaluating deep learning-based protein function prediction models in different application scenarios. Recent benchmarks like VenusFactory Tan et al. (2025) have integrated a broader range of pre-trained models and datasets, yet they often lack consideration for multimodal approaches. Beyond predictive benchmarks, initiatives like ProteinGym Notin et al. (2023), ProteinInvBench Gao et al. (2023) and ProteinBench Ye et al. (2024) have introduced frameworks for evaluating protein mutation effects, inverse folding and protein design, respectively. These benchmarks have progressively incorporated more diverse tasks, models—including large pre-trained language models and multimodal approaches—and sophisticated evaluation metrics, thereby playing a crucial role in tracking progress, identifying state-of-the-art methods, and guiding future research. However, current benchmarks do not foucus on protein foundation models, especially multimodal foundation models, also do not provide a streamlined evaluation protocol for these models.

Parameter-Efficient Fine-Tuning. Recent advances in parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) have enabled the adaptation of large pre-trained models by updating only a small subset of their parameters. Adapter-based methods insert trainable modules between frozen layers Houlsby et al. (2019); Pfeiffer et al. (2020), while Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA) approximates weight updates using low-rank matrices Hu et al. (2022a). Prompt-based techniques—such as prefix tuning Li & Liang (2021) and prompt tuning Lester et al. (2021)—optimize soft prompts within the input embeddings, avoiding changes to the model weights. Other approaches, including BitFit (which updates only bias terms) Zaken et al. (2022), IA3 (which scales intermediate activations) Liu et al. (2022), and QLoRA (which enables quantized fine-tuning) Dettmers et al. (2023), further improve efficiency. Hybrid strategies that combine multiple techniques have also emerged He et al.. Recent innovations include AdaLoRA, which dynamically adjusts rank allocation during training Zhang et al. (2023); MoeLoRA, which integrates mixture-of-experts into LoRA for enhanced scalability Wu et al. (2024); DoRA, which decomposes weights into magnitude and direction for targeted adaptation Mao et al. (2024); and LoCA, which introduces location-aware cosine adaptation for more precise updates Du et al. (2025). Collectively, these developments continue to improve the efficiency, flexibility, and effectiveness of PEFT for large language models. This research select Adapter, LoRA, AdaLoRA, DoRA and IA3 as the representative methods for performance comparison.

3 METHOD

3.1 PFMBENCH FRAMEWORK

Framework. As shown in Figure 2, PFMBench comprises three main components: (1) a user-friendly interface, (2) a suite of downstream tasks, and (3) a comprehensive collection of foundation models. Designed with modularity in mind, the framework allows users to swap components and customize the evaluation process with ease. We employ Hydra to parse configuration files and PyTorch Lightning to manage model fine-tuning. To our knowledge, PFMBench is the largest and most comprehensive benchmark for protein foundation models, covering 38 tasks across 17 models.

Data Contribution. For each dataset, we retrieve protein structures from the AF2DB Varadi et al. (2022) when available; otherwise, we use ESMFold Lin et al. (2023) to generate the rank-1 protein structure. To standardize evaluation, we enforce a 30% sequence similarity cutoff when splitting data, resulting in an 8:1:1 ratio for training, validation, and test sets. Mutation datasets are exempt from this splitting due to their high similarity to wild-type sequences; thus, we retain their original train/validation/test partitions.

Protocol Contribution. Evaluating all models and tasks is impractical, especially when aiming to provide guidance for developing new foundation models. We believe that simplifying the selection of tasks and models is equally important, as it highlights the key insights. Through hundreds of experiments, we provide a hierarchical analysis that results in a streamlined protocol: (1) Baseline: select either the sequence-only ESM2 or the multimodal ProTrek; (2) Task: filter 11 representative tasks from the original 38 tasks; (3) PEFT: adopt either the transformer-adapter or the DoRA tuning.

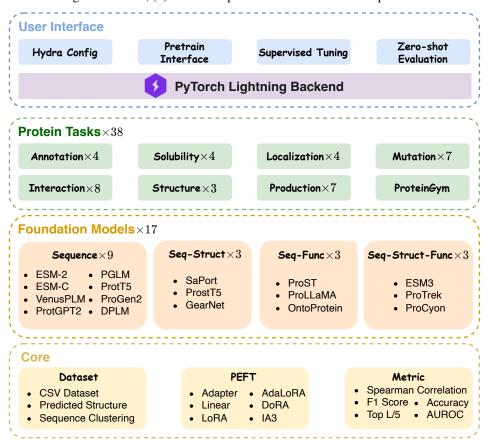


Figure 2: The Overall framework of PFMBench. The framework includes: (1) a user-friendly interface, (2) enumerious downstream tasks, and (3) a comprehensive set of foundation models. Diverse datasets, parameter-efficient tuning methods, and evaluation metrics are integrated. The modular design allows users to easily swap components, customize models, tasks and metrics.

3.2 SUPPORTED TASKS

Core Tasks. PFMBench includes 38 tasks spanning diverse domains, covering both supervised and zero-shot learning. Supervised tasks are grouped into seven categories: Annotation, Solubility, Localization, Mutation, Interaction, Structure, and Production. Definitions, metrics, and impacts for each category are detailed in Appendix A.1. Datasets are split into training, validation, and test sets using an 8:1:1 ratio with a 30% sequence similarity threshold, except for mutation datasets. We evaluate ESM2-Adapter on all tasks, averaging results over three runs, with bias calculated as the absolute difference between the best and worst runs divided by the average performance (see Table 1). To ensure unbiased evaluation, we designates 28 tasks with a bias below 5% as core tasks.

3.3 SUPPORTED MODELS

Core Models. PFMBench supports a broad spectrum of protein foundation models, as summarized in Table 2. To ensure a fair comparison, we select models with parameter counts close to 1B when multiple versions are available. Based on input data modalities, the models are categorized into four

Table 1: PFMBench Tasks span eight categories, detailing training, validation, and test sample counts per task with references. Symbols \triangle and \Leftrightarrow indicate datasets with sequence or sequence-structure pairs, as used in benchmarks like TAPE Rao et al. (2019), PEER Xu et al. (2022), Venus Tan et al. (2025), and our framework. ESM2-Adapter's mean and bias performance are shown, with core tasks having bias below 5%.

Task	Metric	Train	Val	Test	TAPE	Peer	Venus	Our	Mean	Bias(%)	Core
Annotation											
Cellular Component Ashburner et al. (2000)	F1 Score	11196	1398	1400			☆	*	0.6130	0.26%	\checkmark
Molecular Function Ashburner et al. (2000)	F1 Score	22291	2785	2787			☆	公	0.6488	0.38%	✓
Biological Process Ashburner et al. (2000)	F1 Score	21395	2662	2664			☆	*	0.5412	0.79%	\checkmark
Enzyme Commission Bairoch (2000)	F1 Score	13090	1465	1604			☆	☆	0.7379	0.09%	✓
Solubility											
DeepSol Khurana et al. (2018)	AUROC	55465	6932	6934		Δ	公	☆	0.8467	0.23%	\checkmark
DeepSoluE Wang & Zou (2023)	AUROC	11627	1452	1454			☆	公	0.7699	1.10%	✓
ProtSolM Tan et al. (2024b)	AUROC	57378	7171	7173			☆	☆	0.8572	0.93%	\checkmark
eSOL Chen et al. (2021)	Spearman	2481	309	311			☆	☆	0.2761	38.3%	
Localization											
DeepLoc Multi Almagro Armenteros et al. (2017)	Accuracy	6992	749	751		Δ	☆	*	0.7666	1.27%	✓
DeepLoc2 Multi Thumuluri et al. (2022)	F1 Score	21949	2743	2744		Δ	☆	*	0.7505	0.16%	✓
DeepLoc Binary Almagro Armenteros et al. (2017)	AUROC	6887	846	848				☆	0.9338	0.42%	✓
Sorting Signal Thumuluri et al. (2022)	F1 Score	1484	185	186			Δ	☆	0.8598	0.24%	\checkmark
Mutation											
PETA_CHS_Sol Tan et al. (2024a)	Spearman	3872	484	484			Δ	☆	0.2738	12.5%	
PETA_LGK_Sol Tan et al. (2024a)	Spearman	15308	1914	1914			Δ	☆	0.1558	21.7%	
PETA_TEM_Sol Tan et al. (2024a)	Spearman	6444	808	808			Δ	公	0.1433	27.0%	
FLIP_AAV Dallago et al.	Spearman	66066	16517	16517			Δ	☆	0.9412	0.13%	✓
FLIP_GB1 Dallago et al.	Spearman	6988	1745	1745			Δ	公	0.9517	0.13%	\checkmark
TAPE_Stability Rao et al. (2019)	Spearman	55182	6897	6898	Δ	Δ	Δ	☆	0.3211	4.01%	✓
TAPE_Fluorescence Rao et al. (2019)	Spearman	21446	5362	27217	Δ	Δ	Δ	公	0.6812	0.21%	✓
β -lactamase activity Gray et al. (2018)	Spearman	4158	520	520		\triangle		☆	0.5740	21.6%	
Interaction											
Human-PPI Pan et al. (2010)	AUROC	30133	270	195		Δ		☆	0.4828	0.00%	✓
Yeast-PPI Guo et al. (2008)	AUROC	4157	83	335		Δ		公	0.5343	12.8%	
PPI affinity Moal & Fernández-Recio (2012)	Spearman	2421	203	326		Δ		☆	-0.0047	114.3%	
PDBbind Liu et al. (2017)	Spearman	14687	1835	1836		Δ		公	0.1677	4.14%	✓
BindingDB Liu et al. (2007)	Spearman	9039	1115	1139		Δ		☆	0.1922	3.02%	✓
Metal ion Binding Hu et al. (2022b)	Accuracy	5740	717	718			☆	☆	0.7066	2.43%	✓
Pept.HLA/MHC Aff. Wu et al. (2023)	AUROC	57357	7008	8406				☆	0.9631	0.00%	✓
TCR PMHC Affinity Koyama et al. (2023)	AUROC	19264	2265	2482				☆	0.9312	0.00%	\checkmark
Structure											
Contact prediction Yang et al. (2020)	Top L/5	12005	1500	1501	Δ	Δ		☆	0.7199	0.40%	✓
Fold classification Lo Conte et al. (2000)	Accuracy	13034	1628	1630		Δ		公	0.7859	0.31%	✓
Secondary structure Klausen et al. (2019)	Accuracy	67007	8365	8262	\triangle	\triangle		☆	0.7601	0.00%	\checkmark
Production											
Optimal PH Gado et al. (2023)	Spearman	7669	958	959				☆	0.0564	17.6%	
DeepET_Topt Li et al. (2022b)	Spearman	1479	184	185			☆	☆	0.2628	7.00%	
Cloning CLF Wang et al. (2014)	AUROC	22223	2777	2778				☆	0.8160	0.51%	✓
Material Production Wang et al. (2014)	Accuracy	22196	2773	2775				☆	0.7982	0.00%	✓
Enzyme Eff. Li et al. (2022a)	Spearman	10363	1298	1290				☆	0.2173	58.2%	
Antib. Res. Hu et al. (2022b)	Accuracy	2703	336	339				☆	0.6185	2.23%	✓
Thermostability Jarzab et al. (2020)	AUROC	33474	4184	4184			☆	☆	0.9553	1.27%	✓
Zero-shot											
ProteinGym Notin et al. (2023)	Spearman						☆	☆	0.4390	0%	✓

groups: (1) sequence-only models, (2) sequence-structure models, (3) sequence-function models, and (4) sequence-structure-function models. To establish a consistent evaluation baseline, we assess all models on the enzyme commission (EC) classification task under the adapter tuning setting. Models that achieve at least 85% of ESM2's performance are selected as core models for further evaluation. For detailed reasons regarding the adoption of EC as a selective task, please refer to Appendix A.5.

3.4 SUPPORTED TUNING METHODS

PFMBench offers diverse parameter efficient fine-tuning (PEFT) methods: linear probing, adapter tuning, IA³, LoRA, AdaLoRA, and DoRA, with a unified interface for seamless switching.

Adapter Tuning & Linear Probing. We extract features using the pretrained model and employ a 6-layer transformer as a task-specific adapter with a hidden size of 480 and 20 attention heads. In Linear probing setting, we the transformer adapter is replaced with a linear layer. Without additional explanation, we report adapter tuning results in the main text.

Other Tuning Methods. LoRA decomposes attention and feedforward layer weight updates into the product of two low-rank matrices, which are the only trainable components during finetuning Hu et al. (2022a). IA³ introduces trainable multiplicative scalars into the attention and MLP sublayers, modulating the flow of information through each component Liu et al. (2022). AdaLoRA dynamically

Table 2: Models in PFMBench. The table lists the models, architecture types, number of parameters, publication states, code sources. We report the Enzyme Commission (EC) results.

Model	Core	Architecture	# Params	Publication	EC	Code
Sequence						
ESM-2 Lin et al. (2023)	✓	Encoder	650M	Science 23	0.7358	HF
VenusPLM Tan et al. (2025)	\checkmark	Encoder	300M	Arxiv 25	0.7519	HF
ESM-C	\checkmark	Encoder	600M	Blog 25	0.7169	HF
ProtGPT2 Ferruz et al. (2022)	\checkmark	Decoder	738M	Nat. Commun. 22	0.6969	HF
ProGen2 Nijkamp et al. (2023)		Decoder	764M	Cell Syst. 23	0.6198	GitHub
xTrimoPGLM Chen et al. (2024)	\checkmark	Encoder-Decoder	1B	Nat. Methods 25	0.7466	HF
ProtT5 Elnaggar et al. (2021)	\checkmark	Encoder-Decoder	3B	TPAMI 21	0.7620	HF
DPLM Wang et al. (2024b)	\checkmark	Encoder+Diffusion	650M	ICLM 24	0.7552	GitHub
Sequence-Structure						
SaPort Su et al.	✓	Encoder	650M	ICLR 24	0.7514	HF
ProstT5 Heinzinger et al. (2024)	✓	Encoder-Decoder	3B	NAR Gen. Bio. 24	0.7683	GitHub
GearNet Zhang et al. (b)		GNN	20M	ICLR 23	0.5860	GitHub
Sequence-Function						
ProtST Xu et al. (2023)	\checkmark	Encoder	750M	ICML 23	0.7176	GitHub
ProLLaMA Lv et al. (2025)		Decoder	6.7B	IEEE TAI 25	0.5475	GitHub
OntoProtein Zhang et al. (a)		Encoder	420M	ICLR 22	0.6287	GitHub
Sequence-Structure-Function						
ProCyon Queen et al. (2024)		Decoder	11B	Arxiv 24	0.1909	GitHub
ESM3 Hayes et al. (2025)	✓	Encoder	1.4B	Science 25	0.6483	GitHub
ProTrek Su et al. (2024)	\checkmark	Encoder	650M	Arxiv 24	0.7641	GitHub

adjusts rank allocation during training Mao et al. (2024). **DoRA** decomposes weights into magnitude and direction for targeted adaptation Zhang et al. (2023). We implement these methods using the PEFT library Mangrulkar et al. (2022).

Hyper-parameters. All models are trained for up to 50 epochs using AdamW with a batch size of 64 and early stopping after 5 patience epochs. Optimal learning rate is selected from {1e-5, 1e-4}.

4 EXPERIMENTS

We conduct systematic experiments to answer the following questions:

- Q1: Supervised Tuning. How are different supervised downstream tasks correlated, and can a minimal, representative subset of tasks be identified to efficiently benchmark pre-trained models?
- Q2: Zero-shot Evaluation. Can zero-shot protocols reliably evaluate protein foundation models?
- Q3: PEFT Strategies. Which PEFT methods are more effective for protein tasks?
- Q4: Scaling. How does model performance improve with increased model size?

4.1 SUPERVISED TUNNING (Q1)

Task Correlations. We evaluate the adapter tuning performance of 12 core models across 28 core tasks, with the complete results provided in the appendix (Table 7) due to space constraints. We analyze task relationships using Spearman correlation and visualize the results in Figure 3, where p-values greater than 0.05 are marked with χ . Finally, the 28 core tasks are grouped into 11 clusters based on their correlations, and the selected **representative tasks** (marked as \approx).

Core Model Performance on Representative Tasks. Table 3 summarizes the performance of 12 core models on 11 representative tasks. Poorly performing tasks are excluded due to the challenges adapter tuning faces in learning them. Upon analyzing the poorly performing datasets, we observe that the newly implemented 30% sequence identity split introduces significant challenges for model learning. While the stability performance under the original split aligns with SaProt Su et al., the new split proves to be more demanding. Interaction tasks, requiring paired sequence embeddings processed via transformer adapters, remain particularly challenging, underscoring the need for PLMs tailored for interaction prediction, as current models are trained solely on single sequences.

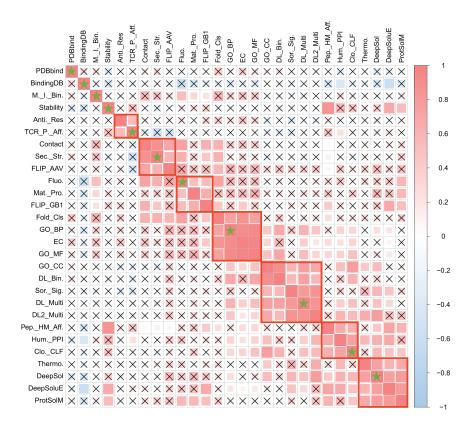


Figure 3: Task relations in supervised tuning.

Table 3: Core model results on representative tasks. Best and second-best ones are highlighted.

	DDDD:J	Diad DD	C4-1-1114	A 4: D	M-4 D	EC	M I Dia	C C+-	DIAM	Cl- CLE	DC-1	#117:
	PDBBind	Bind. DB	Stability	Anti.Res.	Mat.Pro.	EC	M. I. Bin.	Sec. Str.	DL2 M.	Clo. CLF	DeepSol	#Win
Sequence												
ESM-2 Lin et al. (2023)	0.14677	0.13692	0.32112	0.63422	0.81189	0.73578	0.71170	0.76375	0.76191	0.80586	0.84494	-
VenusPLM Tan et al. (2025)	0.16536	0.16834	0.33907	0.64602	0.82018	0.75194	0.70195	0.71637	0.73814	0.83172	0.82775	50%
ESM-C	0.14692	0.20716	0.29976	0.67257	0.81009	0.71694	0.70195	0.76777	0.75395	0.81033	0.84171	38%
ProtGPT2 Ferruz et al. (2022)	0.13503	0.17169	0.14803	0.68437	0.76757	0.69687	0.71170	0.49371	0.70341	0.77730	0.78883	13%
PGLM Chen et al. (2024)	0.16877	0.16884	0.33127	0.67257	0.79495	0.74659	0.74513	0.72842	0.74772	0.83638	0.82160	50%
ProtT5 Elnaggar et al. (2021)	0.20105	0.19730	0.18638	0.68732	0.80072	0.76201	0.72145	0.77978	0.72624	0.78485	0.78741	50%
DPLM Wang et al. (2024b)	0.13659	0.17408	0.29440	0.68732	0.80144	0.75521	0.70056	0.75695	0.75759	0.81247	0.82841	38%
Sequence-Structure												
SaProt Su et al.	0.15549	0.16557	0.24804	0.65782	0.81081	0.75144	0.71031	0.82389	0.74006	0.81206	0.84364	50%
ProstT5 Heinzinger et al. (2024)	0.18344	0.16642	0.13032	0.69027	0.81622	0.76829	0.72145	0.81397	0.73190	0.79853	0.81937	63%
Sequence-Function												
ProtST Xu et al. (2023)	0.19514	0.18886	0.06623	0.63422	0.69261	0.71761	0.51532	0.68468	0.74886	0.80714	0.81951	13%
Sequence-Structure-Function												
ESM3 Hayes et al. (2025)	0.15572	0.22519	0.15650	0.58407	0.77514	0.64830	0.70334	0.81264	0.65853	0.77391	0.78106	13%
ProTrek Su et al. (2024)	0.17322	0.19230	0.04924	0.59292	0.81477	0.76408	0.80362	0.77363	0.83944	0.82612	0.83427	75%

Do existing PLMs truly outperform ESM2? For the remaining 8 representative tasks, we compare each model against ESM2 and calculate the winning rate (#Win), which is defined as the proportion of tasks where a model outperforms ESM2. From the #Win metric, we observe that:

- Sequence-based PLMs. All sequence-based PLMs achieve no more than a 50% winning rate
 against ESM2, indicating that they could not outperform ESM2 on the representative tasks.
- **Decoder-only Model.** The decoder-only model ProtGPT2 performs the worst on these tasks, with a winning rate of only 13% on representative tasks. This suggests that the decoder-only architecture is currently unsuitable for protein understanding.
- Multimodal PLMs. Multimodal PLMs achieve the highest winning rates, with ProTrek attaining a 75% winning rate on representative tasks. This success is attributed to the effective semantic alignment of sequence and function information during the pre-training stage.
- Challenges with Function Data. ESM3 and ProtST show low winning rates (13%) due to noisy or insufficient function data, emphasizing the need for high-quality, large-scale datasets. For example, ProTrek excels when trained on such cleaned, large-scale annotations.

4.2 ZERO-SHOT EVALUATION (Q2)

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While ProteinGym has established itself as a valuable zero-shot benchmark for protein function prediction, recent studies (Tsishyn et al., 2025; Gurev et al.; Zhou et al., 2024) have revealed limitations in its sensitivity to model size and performance differentiation. We greatly appreciate ProteinGym's seminal role in standardizing zero-shot mutation evaluation and accelerating progress in protein ML. PFMBench complements ProteinGym by focusing on more supervised learning scenarios—including mutation tasks—that better align with real-world deployment needs, while introducing novel evaluation metrics (e.g., Mutual Information Difference) to assess functional sequence relationships. This complementary approach provides a more comprehensive evaluation framework for protein foundation models.

Complementary Evaluation Insights. Zero-shot mutation tests are a common practice, yet Table 4 shows that ProteinGym's zero-shot performance has limited correlation with supervised tuning results, indicating the mutation tasks and predictive tasks probe different facets of model capability. This underscores PFMBench's role as a complementary suite that include both mutation and predictive tasks, thereby providing signals that are orthogonal to mutation assessments. In addition, we introduce a new zero-shot evaluation metric (Mutual Information Difference) to better align the model's ability with sequence-level mutual information.

Table 4: Zero-shot proteingym performance of core models.

	# Params	Architecture	Input	Loss	ProteinGym	Rank
SaProt Su et al.	650M	Encoder	Seq-Struct	MLM	0.45094	1
VenusPLM Tan et al. (2025)	300M	Encoder	Seq	MLM	0.43952	2
ESM-2 Lin et al. (2023)	650M	Encoder	Seq	MLM	0.43904	3
ESM-C	600M	Encoder	Seq	MLM	0.43422	4
DPLM Wang et al. (2024b)	650M	Encoder	Seq	MLM	0.42922	5
ESM3 Hayes et al. (2025)	1.4B	Encoder	Seq	MLM	0.41401	6
PGLM Chen et al. (2024)	1B	Encoder-Decoder	Seq	MLM	0.39750	7
ProTrek Su et al. (2024)	650M	Encoder	Seq	MLM+ Contrast	0.35919	8
ProtGPT2 Ferruz et al. (2022)	738M	Decoder	Seq	NTP	0.18962	9

UMAP Visualization. Figure 4 shows UMAP embeddings of ESM2, ProstT5, and ProTrek on Deeploc2_Multi, colored by class labels. ESM2 and ProstT5 exhibit overlapping clusters, while ProTrek, leveraging contrastive alignment, shows distinct boundaries. This highlights the importance of semantic alignment in pretraining for capturing functional relationships.

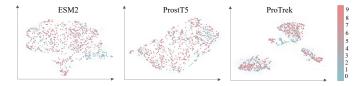


Figure 4: UMAP visualization of ESM2, ProstT5, and ProTrek on Deeploc2_Multi.

MSA Mutual Information. We compute the Mutual Information Difference (MID) for sequence-only models relative to ESM2-35M across 100 MSA clusters (see Appendix A.4 for MID definition). MSA centers are randomly sampled from UniRef30 Suzek et al. (2015), with mmseq2 Steinegger & Söding (2017) used for top-10 MSA searches. Figure 5 shows that ProTrek and larger ESM models achieve higher MID, consistent with their downstream performance, suggesting that PLMs effectively clustering local MSA.

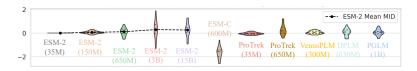


Figure 5: The MID distribution of sequence-only models relative to ESM2-35M.

4.3 OPTIMAL EFFICIENT FINE-TUNING AND SCALING (Q3 & Q4)

Table 5 presents the performance of the top-2 models alongside the ESM2 baseline on 11 representative tasks using various efficient fine-tuning methods, including Adapter, Linear Probing, LoRA, AdaLoRA, DoRA, and IA3. For each fine-tuning method, we calculate the winning rate (#WESM) against ESM2. Additionally, across different fine-tuning methods, we compute the winning rate (#WAdap) against the adapter tuning method for each model. We observe that:

- Adapter Tuning is Sufficiently Effective. The adapter tuning method consistently outperforms other fine-tuning methods across all models, except for DoRA.
- **ProTrek Consistently Outperforms ESM2.** ProTrek achieves the best performance across all fine-tuning methods, with a winning rate of 75% to 88% against ESM2.

Table 5: Results on 11 representative tasks using various efficient fine-tuning methods. PEFT methods that outperform the Adapter are marked in red; the others are marked in blue.

	PDBBind	BindingDB	Stability	Anti. Res.	Mat. Prod.	EC	M. I. Bin	Sec. Str.	DL2 Multi	Clo. CLF	DeepSol	#WESM	#WAdap
Adapter													
ESM-2	0.14677	0.13692	0.32112	0.63422	0.81189	0.73578	0.71170	0.76375	0.76191	0.80586	0.84494		-
ProstT5	0.18344	0.16642	0.13032	0.69027	0.81622	0.76829	0.72145	0.81397	0.73190	0.79853	0.81937	63%	-
ProTrek	0.17322	0.19230	0.04924	0.59292	0.81477	0.76408	0.80362	0.77363	0.83944	0.82612	0.83427	75%	-
Linear P													
ESM-2	0.21766	0.16427	0.04649	0.64307	0.81586	0.61163	0.71309	0.71846	0.74472	0.78807	0.79465	-	38%
ProstT5	0.24874	0.16144	0.05228	0.67552	0.80541	0.65167	0.66992	0.79928	0.70530	0.78722	0.77794	38%	0%
ProTrek	0.22595	0.25353	0.02332	0.63717	0.81766	0.64201	0.69777	0.73840	0.77847	0.80099	0.80312	75%	25%
LoRA													
ESM-2	0.18463	0.24559	0.32304	0.61652	0.80865	0.67146	0.69499	0.74305	0.76851	0.83616	0.86160	_	38%
ProstT5	0.19072	0.21411	0.28204	0.66077	0.81658	0.72779	0.64485	0.80878	0.77875	0.82997	0.84834	63%	0%
ProTrek	0.24707	0.19302	0.2776	0.67257	0.84324	0.71139	0.74373	0.76687	0.79566	0.83441	0.86326	88%	50%
AdaLoR	A												
ESM-2	0.20398	0.23794	0.26715	0.60767	0.80829	0.68715	0.71448	0.7436	0.77209	0.84171	0.85077	_	50%
ProstT5	0.21487	0.07897	0.17776	0.68142	0.82883	0.71974	0.66156	0.80755	0.75642	0.82935	0.85272	63%	50%
ProTrek	0.24625	0.22491	0.15328	0.64307	0.83640	0.7384	0.68524	0.76651	0.80497	0.83713	0.86152	75%	50%
DoRA													
ESM-2	0.18497	0.20087	0.33022	0.63717	0.82739	0.68786	0.72006	0.74357	0.77774	0.84471	0.86346	-	75%
ProstT5	0.23039	0.10505	0.26731	0.69912	0.80000	0.70583	0.66574	0.80813	0.77520	0.83052	0.85343	38%	50%
ProTrek	0.23648	0.07242	0.25293	0.60177	0.83387	0.71772	0.72006	0.76710	0.80063	0.83988	0.86625	63%	75%
IA3													
ESM-2	0.18948	0.19144	0.09641	0.60177	0.79928	0.68549	0.63231	0.74286	0.76447	0.82562	0.83062	-	25%
ProstT5	0.24188	0.12700	0.04821	0.66962	0.82342	0.71467	0.71309	0.81016	0.74326	0.78942	0.80635	63%	25%
ProTrek	0.23836	0.10734	0.06299	0.59292	0.79676	0.70588	0.71031	0.76366	0.78881	0.82911	0.83146	75%	25%

Are Scaling PLMs Truly Worth It? In Table 6, we further examine whether increasing model size improves performance on the 11 representative tasks, focusing on the ESM2 series models. We calculate the winning rate (W150M) of each model against ESM2-150M and conclude the following:

- Scaling Up Works but Comes at a Cost. The scaling law is effective only when models are scaled up to 15B parameters; otherwise, none of the models outperform ESM2-150M. However, this increase in model size incurs significant costs in both pretraining and inference. Considering the marginal performance gains, the cost of scaling up may not be justified.
- **Pretraining Strategies Matter More.** Instead of scaling up to 15B, a more effective and efficient approach is to optimize the pretraining strategy. For instance, ProTrek-650M outperforms ESM2-15B on 6 out of 8 tasks and achieves a winning rate of 75% against ESM2-150M.

Table 6: Performance of ESM2 under the scaling law. Gray tasks are excluded from the winning rate analysis. Models that outperform the ESM2-150M are marked in red; the others are marked in blue.

	PDBBind	Bind. DB	Stability	Anti.Res.	Mat.Pro.	EC	M. I. Bin.	Sec. Str.	DL2 M.	Clo. CLF	DeepSol	#W150M
ESM2-35M	0.09985	0.14232	0.32337	0.67552	0.78595	0.71675	0.71866	0.69609	0.73219	0.79441	0.82486	13%
ESM2-150M	0.09371	0.13142	0.33728	0.65192	0.81946	0.73192	0.76462	0.73430	0.74744	0.81531	0.82825	-
ESM2-650M	0.14677	0.13692	0.32112	0.63422	0.81189	0.73578	0.71170	0.76375	0.76191	0.80586	0.84494	50%
ESM2-3B	0.10479	0.12724	0.31647	0.64012	0.80036	0.73878	0.73955	0.77111	0.77328	0.81031	0.83007	50%
ESM2-15B	0.08427	0.12559	0.03018	0.68142	0.81045	0.73259	0.73259	0.77250	0.76714	0.80210	0.85155	63%
ProTrek-650M	0.17322	0.19230	0.04924	0.59292	0.81477	0.76408	0.80362	0.77363	0.83944	0.82612	0.83427	75%

5 Conclusion

This work presents a comprehensive benchmark for evaluating protein foundation models (PFMs) across a diverse range of tasks, accompanied by a streamlined evaluation protocol. Starting with 38 tasks and 17 models, we identify 12 core models and 11 representative tasks to enable efficient and meaningful evaluation. Through extensive experiments, we reveal that current PFM research exhibits a high degree of homogeneity and provide in-depth analysis to guide future research directions.

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