

DEEP RESEARCH REPORT

AI-Driven Automated Wet-Lab Research: Current State of the Art

GENERATED	26 September 2026
REFERENCE	ac361344b531
PRODUCED BY	CIATA DeepResearch

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AI-Driven Automated Wet-Lab Research: Current State of the Art

RESEARCH QUESTION:

what is the state of the art in automatic AI-based research with wet labs in the loop?

Generated: 2026-09-26 20:55 UTC | Coverage: 1.00 | Iterations: 4 | Sources: 73 | Findings: 234 | Model: qwen3.8-27b

Executive Summary

The state of the art in AI-directed wet-lab research has moved decisively beyond the "AI suggests, human executes" model. Agentic systems now orchestrate the full design-build-test-analyze cycle—generating hypotheses, planning experiments, directing robotic hardware, and interpreting results—within a single closed loop, with the most advanced deployments operating at Level 3 on a five-level autonomy scale and Level 4 demonstrated for narrow chemistry tasks [5] [40]. The enabling stack spans three tightly coupled layers: domain-specific multimodal reasoning models (from Claude for Life Sciences to OpenAI's reported GPT-Rosalind), agentic orchestration platforms that translate scientific intent into sequenced laboratory actions, and a rapidly modularizing physical hardware ecosystem of cobots, liquid handlers, and cloud-lab facilities [37] [40]. Interoperability standards such as SiLA2, the Model Context Protocol, and Anthropic's Model Hardware Standard are beginning to stitch these layers into a coherent, vendor-agnostic architecture [40] [54].

Operationally, the most consequential results to date come from specialized systems that have produced validated biological outputs: a 26.8% hit rate in de novo protein binder design by Anthropic's Claude models [21], a KRAS G12V VHH binder confirmed by Cryo-EM at Nabla Bio [46], millions of standardized phenotypic experiments per week at Recursion Pharmaceuticals [22], and the first AI-invented small molecule to reach Phase II clinical trials (Insilico Medicine's ISM001-055) [24]. Multi-agent platforms such as BioMARS and the Shenzhen BisTrib lab are reported to run plan-execute-verify cycles without human intervention, a claim not yet backed by peer-reviewed results [19] [20]. Industry investment is accelerating: the automated cell culture market is estimated at roughly \$19.27 billion as of 2026, and a 2026 Nature feature highlighted a fleet of 50 autonomous robots operating across multiple institutions [5] [42].

The principal constraint is not any single technology but the convergence of the "Velocity Gap" between computational and physical timescales, fragmented and proprietary training data, biosecurity-driven human-oversight requirements, and a regulatory apparatus that still mandates human approval of AI outputs in GxP environments [3] [4] [36] [40]. The net effect is a corridor of partial autonomy in which AI compresses hypothesis generation and experimental planning from weeks to hours, while the physical, regulatory, and data-integrity boundaries of the wet lab remain the rate-limiting steps [36] [53].

From Co-pilot to Lab-pilot: The Emerging Paradigm of Agentic Self-Driving Laboratories

The field of AI-driven experimental science is undergoing a conceptual reframe: from AI as a supportive "co-pilot" that suggests next steps to a "lab-pilot" that orchestrates the full experimental cycle autonomously. Self-driving laboratories now combine AI reasoning with robotic hardware to execute the entire scientific method—hypothesis generation, experimental design, physical execution, and data interpretation—with minimal human intervention [5] [39]. The transition is not merely incremental; multimodal, agentic AI systems are moving beyond text-based reasoning to act directly upon physical environments, coordinating cloud software with liquid handlers, robotic arms, and sensor arrays in a single closed loop [10] [24]. In autonomous chemistry, for example, GPT-4-driven planners are already combined with robotic synthesis and analysis to design, execute, and interpret multi-step reactions within a closed computational loop [24]. The broader trajectory is a shift from simple prediction—such as protein folding—to closed-loop workflows in which an AI system reads biological signals, reasons through mechanisms, designs candidates, tests them in wet labs, and updates its models based on experimental results [46].

Despite this momentum, the autonomy achieved to date remains bounded. Most current Self-Driving Labs operate at Level 2 or 3 on a five-level autonomy scale, focusing on closed-loop optimization for narrow tasks rather than general-purpose autonomy; Level 4 (full robotic execution with routine analysis) has been demonstrated for simple chemistry tasks, while Level 5 (fully autonomous) does not yet exist [40]. Anthropic's recently revealed wet lab in the San Francisco Bay Area illustrates this intermediate stage: the current workflow is human-first, with AI identifying candidates for testing by human scientists, while the company's stated end-goal is an automated setup in which AI directs robotic units [11]. This progression mirrors a broader pattern in Anthropic's product line, where Claude's agentic abilities have expanded from internal R&D assistance, through desktop application operation in Claude Cowork and Claude Code, to physical lab automation [3]. Industry practice is shifting from scripted automation to "agentic workflows" that use reasoning and planning to execute steps autonomously, making real-time adjustments based on biological feedback—for instance, using integrated sensors to determine optimal intervention times for cell cultures [42]. Agentic

systems can now interpret high-level intent, query LIMS/ELN and instrument logs, and propose or trigger next steps such as reruns or reagent checks, though they typically operate within predefined safety and compliance guardrails and maintain a human-in-the-loop for final sign-off [37].

Industry momentum is accelerating on multiple fronts. A 2026 Nature feature highlighted a fleet of 50 autonomous robots being supervised across multiple labs and universities [5]. The global automated cell culture market is estimated at approximately \$19.27 billion as of 2026, reflecting a critical mass of adoption [42]. Major life sciences and technology companies—including Thermo Fisher Scientific, Google, Siemens, Danaher Corp, and Healthineers—are leading investors in AI-integrated laboratory solutions [39]. Startups such as K-Dense and Edison Scientific are building autonomous AI scientist platforms designed to plan, execute, and iterate on complex, long-horizon research workflows end-to-end [23]. The competitive stakes are explicit: autonomous labs are identified as a critical requirement for US biotech to compete with China, shifting the advantage from manual headcount to the quality of scientific ideas and making experimentation cheaper, more reproducible, and faster [52]. The integration of AI/ML-supported workflows with autonomous labs is proposed by biotech infrastructure companies as a cost-competitive and IP-respecting alternative to China-based CRO and CDMO infrastructure [52]. In China, extensive networks of biofoundries, automated wet labs, and industrial-scale screening facilities—often bankrolled by government programs—provide the physical substrate for embedding agentic AI systems [18]. AI-managed automation also converts fixed labor costs into elastic computational costs while reducing human variability in experimental processes [1].

The scientific context framing all subsequent findings rests on three interlocking principles: curating scalable multi-modal datasets, incorporating agentic AI frameworks across R&D workflows, and adopting lab automation to power rapid, closed experimental feedback loops [23]. The integration of AI and wet labs creates a feedback loop in which AI narrows the search space and generates testable hypotheses, while the wet lab provides empirical confirmation, refinement, or refutation [9]. Modern discovery workflows already deploy AI for de novo lead generation, hit screening, and lead optimization, complemented by in vitro validation to bridge digital predictions and experimental success [14]. The integration of Physical AI and Scientific AI is identified as the necessary bridge to connect in-silico experimentation with wet lab environments, addressing the current gap between AI's computational power and its impact on drug development [8]. Google DeepMind's AlphaEvolve represents the state of the art in agentic hypothesis generation beyond the life sciences [10], while Isomorphic Labs, leveraging AlphaFold heritage, pursues a partnership model with pharmaceutical companies rather than maintaining its own dedicated wet-lab infrastructure [3]. The agentic science loop—where an AI system reasons over scientific knowledge, uses specialized tools to design molecules, sends designs to an automated wet lab, and learns from the resulting data—remains the aspirational target; the Anthropic/Adaptyv study, for instance, was an open-loop experiment,

and the goal is to close the loop so the agent can iteratively refine designs based on experimental feedback [21]. Modern laboratory workstations are evolving into "thinking" systems that manage the entire environmental lifecycle of a sample, shifting the human researcher's role from clerical cross-checking to high-level strategic review [42].

Architectural Foundations: AI Models, Multimodal Agents, and Robotic Platforms

The technological stack enabling AI-directed wet-lab execution spans three interdependent layers: reasoning models that generate hypotheses and interpret data, agentic orchestration systems that translate those intentions into executable plans, and physical hardware—robotic arms, liquid handlers, cloud-lab facilities, and AR/XR interfaces—that carries out the work. No single component suffices; the state of the art emerges from their integration. On the model side, the field is shifting from generic large language models toward domain-specific, multimodal models trained on specialized lab data such as multi-omics, spectroscopy, chromatography, and instrument telemetry, which can tie subtle signal patterns to scientific outcomes or failure modes more effectively than general-purpose tools [37]. Anthropic's Claude, for instance, is being developed to control robots for scientific experiments to reduce manual labor, with human oversight retained for safety, and is integrated into life sciences via "Claude for Life Sciences," which connects to platforms such as Benchling, PubMed, BioRender, and 10x Genomics [12]. Through Agent Skills, Claude can follow lab protocols, process experimental data, and autonomously analyze genomic datasets, allowing the model to participate directly in scientific experimentation workflows [25]. OpenAI's biodefense model, reportedly called GPT-Rosalind, represents a parallel, domain-gated approach, designed for biodefense applications and provided through sponsored API access to vetted government agencies and research institutions [45].

Beyond foundation LLMs, the model layer includes generative and structural tools that produce concrete molecular or biological designs. Google DeepMind's AlphaFold-2 predicts protein folds across whole proteomes with near-experimental accuracy, allowing laboratories to bypass months of traditional crystallography to begin functional studies immediately [24]. Deep Generative Models, including Generative Adversarial Networks (GAN) and Diffusion Models, enable "inverse rational design" by generating de novo molecular structures with predicted ADMET properties, using Multi-Objective Optimization to rank candidates on binding affinity, solubility, and synthesizability [36]. Recursion's OpenPhenom-S/16, a public foundation model, computes image embeddings for the RxRx3-core dataset, extending the model layer into high-content imaging [22]. NVIDIA's BioNeMo Agent Toolkit provides AI agents with callable life-science tools—protein folding, molecular docking, genomics analysis—and implementing these specialized skills improved agent task-completion benchmarks from 57.1% to 100% on average [46]. Proto, a high-level programming language for generative biology, lets

researchers specify design goals through a structured search across multiple AI models using four primitives (sequences, generators, constraints, and optimizers) to compose campaigns across DNA, RNA, and proteins [46]. Anthropic's ToolUniverse extends Claude with access to a library of over 600 vetted scientific tools, enabling researchers to explore large hypothesis spaces and iterate through analysis cycles ranging from fast to slow [53]. Claude for Life Sciences further integrates with R&D, clinical, and regulatory data sources via Model Context Protocol (MCP) connectors and desktop extensions, allowing natural-language queries with source citations [53], and connects to specialized databases including ChEMBL for bioactive compounds, Open Targets for therapeutic target identification, and Owkin's Pathology Explorer for tissue-image analysis [54]. Through a connector, Claude integrates with the Benchling R&D platform, letting scientists query data and receive summaries linked to source experiments, notebooks, and structured records while maintaining existing access permissions [53], and desktop extensions transform single-cell and spatial analysis into conversational workflows for biologists and core labs [53]. Claude also integrates with established platforms including PubMed, Synapse.org, and Wiley Scholar Gateway to support preclinical research and development [54].

The agentic orchestration layer sits between models and hardware, converting scientific intent into sequenced, executable laboratory actions. Coscientist, an LLM-based agent system developed at Carnegie Mellon, interprets scientific problems, plans experiments via web searches, and interfaces directly with robotic hardware, representing a shift toward higher-level AI decision engines in laboratory settings [40]. It demonstrates semi-autonomous experimental design and execution, translating natural-language inputs into specific planned laboratory steps such as peptide synthesis or cell culture [32]. Medra is developing "Physical AI" for life sciences that combines the reasoning capabilities of large language models with the flexibility of general-purpose robots to automate laboratory experimentation, explicitly aiming to bridge the gap between frontier AI models and R&D [8]. LabOS takes a different architectural path: an AI operating system for physical laboratories that integrates AR/XR goggles, multi-modal AI, and collaborating robotics to guide protocols hands-free, catch errors early, and orchestrate collaboration between humans, AI agents, and robots [17]. SDLabs offers a code-free agentic platform for Self-Driving Labs that moves beyond traditional One-Factor-at-a-Time and Design of Experiments methods by using AI-driven, multi-parameter experiment design to find optimal conditions faster, and is designed for accessibility by scientists without coding or machine-learning expertise, maintaining SOC-2 compliance on AWS [15]. Paper2Agent converts computational biology research papers into reusable, AI-accessible workflows, allowing researchers to execute published methods using natural-language instructions and inspect resulting data [41]. Phylo provides an Integrated Biology Environment—a unified workspace allowing scientists to collaborate with AI agents across datasets and analytical pipelines to prevent fragmented research interfaces [23].

Agent / Platform	Core Function	Hardware Interface	Distinguishing Feature
Coscientist (Carnegie Mellon)	Interpret problems, plan experiments via web search	Direct robotic hardware	LLM-based, higher-level decision engine [40]
Medra "Physical AI"	Bridge frontier LLMs to R&D	General-purpose robots	Combines LLM reasoning with robot flexibility [8]
LabOS	Hands-free protocol guidance, error catching	AR/XR goggles, collaborating robotics	Human-AI-robot orchestration [17]
SDLabs	Multi-parameter experiment design	Code-free agentic platform	Beyond OFAT/DoE; no coding required [15]
Paper2Agent	Convert papers to executable workflows	n/a (computational)	Natural-language method execution [41]
Phylo	Unified workspace for AI-agent collaboration	Datasets, analytical pipelines	Prevents fragmented interfaces [23]

The physical execution layer is undergoing a structural shift from monolithic, single-vendor automation lines toward "Lego-style" modular ecosystems that use cobots, vision-enabled arms, and swappable modules so that hardware from multiple vendors can coexist, letting researchers automate specific parts of a workflow rather than committing to a full track-based system [37]. Modular automation systems represent a significant market segment, offering flexibility and scalability for dynamic research environments and allowing laboratories to upgrade incrementally to adapt to evolving AI-driven applications [39]. In high-throughput biological research, the LabCyte Echo automates processes in high-well-count plates, and companies such as Zymergen, Amyris, and Ginkgo have scaled these automation workflows to resemble model-train layouts, using discrete workcells to shuffle plates [44]. Continuous flow processing holds a 68.4% market share in lab automation as of 2025, enabling high-throughput analysis by maintaining steady sample movement, which reduces waiting times and improves consistency in large-scale sample testing [39]. The Chemspeed and SciY partnership provides a vendor-agnostic Self-Driving Labs platform that integrates Chemspeed's modular automation with Bruker's analytical instruments and SciY's FAIR data backbone, normalizing instrument data into AI-ready formats using semantic annotation [40]. Automata LINQ is a cloud-native orchestration layer designed to automate multi-step experimental processes across instruments from different vendors, and has received strategic investment from Danaher Ventures, enabling integration with Beckman Coulter Life Sciences

instruments [40]. The Gavi platform, a closed semi-automated vitrification system, achieved clinical and survival outcomes equivalent to manual Cryotop vitrification in a multicenter randomized controlled trial, offering substantial workflow gains without compromising survival [38]. The broader transformation is further driven by digital twins, 3D printing, and advanced robotics, which support the shift toward highly sophisticated, connected, and smart laboratory workflows [39].

Cloud-lab infrastructure provides the remote-access backbone that decouples experimental design from physical presence. Emerald Cloud Lab (ECL) operates a programmable research laboratory allowing scientists to conduct experiments remotely at any time, utilizing a single software interface to manage a continuous workflow spanning initial experiment design to execution and final analysis [31]. ECL utilizes a proprietary Symbolic Lab Language (SLL) to codify experiments into a standardized instruction set, functioning similarly to how software runs on a microprocessor and eliminating human interpretation as a source of error [30]. The platform provides push-button reproducibility by allowing any historically run protocol to be re-run identically with fresh samples on demand, automatically capturing primary data, ancillary data such as sample trace history, instrumentation calibrations, and metadata from embedded facility sensors [30]. ECL's Command Center offers over 4,500 functions for data visualization, analysis, and simulation, supporting export, sharing, and web-based publishing of experiments, data, results, and scientific figures [28], and users can interact via a point-and-click interface or by entering commands directly into a lab notebook, enabling repetition or scaling of analyses using single commands and automated report generation through higher-level scripting [28]. ECL employs a linked data network that integrates all aspects of an experiment and its analysis into a searchable rich knowledge graph, ensuring comprehensive experimental documentation and ontology and facilitating seamless collaboration between scientists across different institutions [30]. The platform is designed to automate and optimize routine and ongoing laboratory workflows, such as Chemistry, Manufacturing, and Controls (CMC), serving specialized domains including Drug Metabolism and Pharmacokinetics, translational medicine, and diagnostics research [29][31]. ECL operates facilities in Austin, Texas, and Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, improving efficiency by allowing researchers to design experiments remotely while utilizing on-site human operators for execution [32]. More broadly, cloud labs enable remote experiment execution where researchers program experiments via web interfaces, with hundreds of instruments running 24/7 largely unmanned, facilitating high-throughput experimentation from any location [5]. They function as a link between digital and physical domains, allowing users to design and manage experimental workflows without physical presence [32], and are suggested as a mechanism to ruthlessly lower the cost of unit operations in biotech, analogous to cost-reduction trends in computing and software [52]. ECL explicitly lists AI-driven laboratory research as one of its core example applications, indicating the platform's infrastructure is capable of supporting automated, AI-integrated research workflows [29]. The concept of Lab 4.0, or Digital Lab Transformation, formalizes this shift through the integration of the Internet of Things to connect instruments, the use of cloud data

platforms, and AI-driven experiment planning, moving laboratories toward a highly automated, data-centric environment [5]. Industry trends suggest that by 2025, 80% of labs will use cloud data platforms and nearly three-quarters will employ AI for experiment design or analysis [5].

Standards and interoperability protocols form the connective tissue that allows heterogeneous components to function as a coherent system. SiLA2, a gRPC/Protocol Buffers-based communication standard, provides structured instrument control in laboratory automation and is supported by vendors such as Tecan and Hamilton, with broad adoption expected to continue through 2027–2028 [40]. The Model Context Protocol (MCP) serves as a complementary standard to SiLA2 by providing a discovery and natural-language interface for AI agents to access laboratory instruments, allowing AI agents to interact with hardware while maintaining structured control through SiLA2 interfaces [40]. Anthropic has opened a research preview of the Model Hardware Standard (MHS), a shared specification designed to allow AI agents to safely operate physical devices, currently being tested by a select group of scientific research labs and advanced manufacturers [54]; the standard, released in August 2026, is utilized to assist AI systems in operating laboratory equipment [12]. On the data side, successful AI-enabled automation is predicated on a robust data foundation using FAIR (Findable, Accessible, Interoperable, Reusable) and ALCOA principles, involving a move toward centralized data lakes that integrate LIMS, ELN, and instrument telemetry to ensure all experimental data is structured, machine-readable, and ready for downstream AI orchestration [37]. Current trends favor the creation of a "digital thread"—a continuous data stream that unifies methods, instruments, and results into a single source of truth—replacing isolated instruments with modular, scalable systems that allow automation of specific bottlenecks without requiring a complete infrastructure overhaul [42]. The Citrine Platform is designed to ingest complex, unstructured materials and chemicals data, such as micrographs and lab equipment outputs, which traditional DOE packages often struggle to handle, allowing users to model a wide range of properties by integrating data from various sources into a unified modeling environment [51]. Machine Learning Operations (MLOps) practices—version control for code and data, continuous integration/continuous deployment, and automated model retraining when performance drops below a threshold—provide the operational discipline for maintaining these AI systems in production [34]. The integration of Design of Experiments and Machine Learning follows two main currents: using DOE to optimize hyperparameter selection for ML models, and applying ML methodologies to analyze datasets generated through DOE strategies, with combined approaches providing predictive models that outperform traditional Response Surface Methodology (RSM) in R&D environments [48]. There is also a growing potential for applying reinforcement learning techniques, similar to those used in coding, to biological sciences by converting messy scientific data into tasks that models can attempt and learn from, training AI to improve reasoning in areas ranging from sequence design to critical drug program decisions [26]. Modular workflows are employed to provide flexibility in supporting a diverse range of biologics, including peptides and antibodies, allowing integration of both AI insights and experimental validation across different molecular targets [14]. Dunia,

working in advanced materials, builds its competitive advantage on proprietary data infrastructure, domain-specific models, and deep digital-physical integration for end-to-end development and commercialization [47]. AI-driven lab automation as a whole integrates artificial intelligence—including machine learning, computer vision, and predictive analytics—with automated hardware like robotics and liquid handlers, optimizing tasks such as sample processing, assay execution, and decision-making while enabling real-time tracking of experimental conditions [39].

Closed-Loop Experimentation: Real-time Design-Build-Test-Analyze Cycles

The state of the art in closed-loop experimentation rests on a continuous cycle in which AI models generate hypotheses or design candidates, robotic or automated systems execute the corresponding physical experiments, and the resulting data immediately feeds back to refine the models. This architecture—often described as the Design-Synthesis-Test-Analysis (DMTA) cycle—transforms what was once a linear, batch-oriented workflow into a self-improving loop [36]. The conceptual lineage runs from the 2004 Robot Scientist "Adam," which hypothesized to explain observations, devised experiments, physically ran them via robotics, and interpreted results in a continuous cycle, to today's orchestrated workflows that integrate robots, instruments, and data handoffs across the entire research lifecycle [19] [37]. In biologics discovery specifically, the iterative feedback loop between AI predictions and wet-lab validation is now used to enhance the reliability and success rates of candidate molecules, overcoming the limitations of AI-only workflows [14]. The broader vision is embodied AI in biology: fusing intelligence with physical infrastructure so that biology becomes a scalable, data-driven engineering discipline rather than a manual, artisanal craft [18].

The algorithmic engine driving these loops is increasingly Machine Learning Driven Design of Experiments (ML-DOE), an adaptive evolution of classical Design of Experiments that replaces static grids with a self-improving cycle of running small experiment sets, training models, predicting performance, and selecting the next most informative experiment [49]. ML-DOE employs active learning and Bayesian optimization to identify promising regions or areas of high uncertainty in a design space, drastically reducing the total number of experiments required compared to traditional methods [49]. It is capable of modeling nonlinear behaviors and high-dimensional parameter spaces that classical DOE struggles to capture, and it can leverage historical data—archived process data or past pilot-scale runs—as an initial training set so the model starts with built-in knowledge rather than a blank slate [49]. The methodology can also be integrated with autonomous chemical synthesis systems and data-driven reaction optimization for real-time adaptive learning, while incorporating operational constraints such as cost, time, reagent use, and safety directly into its optimization frameworks [49]. In the antibody-design domain, this feedback loop transforms the task from a static prediction

problem into an active learning problem: AI predictions are tested in a wet lab, and the resulting experimental data is used to refine the AI's training, creating a more efficient optimization path [16].

Several commercial and open-source platforms now implement these closed-loop principles at varying scales. Terray Therapeutics' EMMI (Experimentation Meets Machine Intelligence) platform uses the TerraBind model and high-throughput experimentation to continuously update models based on real-time laboratory results, targeting lead optimization in chemistry [6]. SDLabs offers machine-learning algorithms that maximize information gain per experiment across high-dimensional parameter spaces, with integration capabilities for existing laboratory ecosystems including lab automation, Laboratory Information Management Systems (LIMS), and Electronic Lab Notebooks (ELNs) to enable centralized data consolidation and a closed-loop optimization process [15]. Benchling Experiment Optimization uses a "tournament" of machine learning models to find the best predictive function for a target variable, then applies Bayesian optimization to produce batched recommendations that balance exploration of new search spaces with exploitation of known high-performing areas [50]. The Citrine Platform's Sequential Learning methodology reduces the number of experiments required to reach target performance by 50% to 90%, because the number of required experiments scales linearly with the number of dimensions rather than exponentially as in traditional DOE; it also relies on uncertainty quantification to help researchers choose between high-reward/high-uncertainty experiments and safer, high-likelihood ones, and can incorporate domain knowledge or transfer learning from previous datasets [51]. Claude for Life Sciences enables automated experimental design and protocol optimization by synthesizing literature, existing successful protocols, and experimental best practices, supporting advanced data analysis and hypothesis generation to reduce discovery cycles from weeks to hours [53]. At the low-cost end, RoboChem-Flex is an open-source, modular self-driving lab platform that enables closed-loop optimization for chemistry at approximately \$5,000, utilizing Python, Bayesian optimization, and transfer learning, demonstrating that self-driving lab capabilities are no longer gated by high hardware costs [40].

Despite this progress, meaningful bottlenecks constrain how tightly the loop can close. Self-driving laboratories currently sit at a Technology Readiness Level (TRL) of 4–6, with most implementations remaining in the pilot or limited deployment stage [36]. In practical laboratory settings, AI capabilities are still primarily limited to performing analysis, even if with sufficient accuracy, and fully automated AI-driven wet labs that use robotics to conduct physical experiments remain emerging rather than established [2]. The integration of LLM agents with lab-on-a-chip technologies and Model Context Protocol (MCP) tooling is identified as the next architectural step needed to automate the minutiae of bench science and facilitate rigorous hypothesis testing through real-world experimental feedback, but this integration is still prospective [47]. Industry is also integrating AI and machine learning into the Design-Build-Test (DBT) pipeline through commercial molecular dynamics services and specialized analysis-as-

a-service providers, yet the physical execution leg of the loop—where latency, reagent availability, and instrument throughput impose hard time constraints—remains the principal bottleneck separating rapid AI iteration from the slower pace of wet-lab reality [44].

Benchmarking the AI-Wet-Lab Interface: Datasets, Protocol Benchmarks, and Performance Metrics

The evaluation of AI systems at the wet-lab interface is coalescing around two complementary axes: protocol-level reasoning benchmarks that test whether language models can troubleshoot and optimize experimental procedures, and large-scale multimodal imaging datasets that benchmark vision models on cellular screening data. On the protocol-reasoning side, BenchBench-Protocol is a benchmark built from thousands of real-world experiments designed to test whether Large Language Models can troubleshoot and optimize wet lab protocols by mimicking the reasoning of expert scientists, targeting the practical gap between digital scientific knowledge and physical laboratory execution [26]. In this benchmark, Claude (Opus 5) achieved the highest performance score of 59.2%, outperforming GPT 5.6 and the open-source model Kimi K3 in tasks related to protocol optimization and debugging [26].

On the experimental-outcome side, performance is increasingly measured through wet-lab validation of AI-generated designs. In a benchmarked study, Anthropic's Claude models (Mythos Preview and Opus 4.8) demonstrated expert-level skill in de novo protein binder design, achieving a 26.8% overall hit rate in binding targets and outperforming previous human-led protein design competitions in several metrics, including an 80% hit rate on the TREM2 target [21].

For multimodal vision benchmarking, Recursion Pharmaceuticals has released RxRx3, a dataset exceeding 100 Tb that covers more than 17,000 genes through CRISPR knockouts and includes 2.2 million HUVEC cell images, noted as one of the largest public collections of cellular screening data generated under a single experimental protocol [22]. A curated subset, RxRx3-core, is an 18 GB open-source dataset released on Hugging Face containing 222,601 images spanning 736 CRISPR knockouts and 1,674 compounds, with image embeddings computed by the OpenPhenom-S/16 foundation model [22]. RxRx3-core is specifically designed to enable research in representation learning for High-Content Screening data and to evaluate zero-shot drug-target interaction prediction directly from microscopy images [22].

Beyond these flagship benchmarks, the evaluation landscape includes several additional approaches. According to internal evaluations, the model reportedly outperforms earlier versions in relevant benchmarks, though no independent evaluation or Epoch AI review has been completed at the time of reporting [45]. Benchling Experiment Optimization incorporates cross-validation to tune hyperparameters and prevent overfitting, and provides diagnostic visualizations including 2D surface charts for parameter interactions, 1D slices for sensitivity

analysis, and parameter importance charts to explain which variables most influence outcomes [50]. SandboxAQ has been identified as a trailblazer in expanding training datasets through the use of quantum physics simulations to better reflect biological systems [4].

Showcase Applications: Autonomous Protein Design, Drug Discovery, and Synthetic Biology

The most instructive evidence of where AI-wet-lab loops have moved from concept to operational reality comes from a set of specialized systems that each close the design-build-test-analyze cycle in a distinct biological domain. In protein engineering, the SAMPLE system deploys four autonomous agents that search a fitness landscape in iterative cycles of design, testing, and refinement, completing a full protein-design-and-test cycle in approximately nine hours per data point [44]. Generate:Biomedicines takes a complementary approach, integrating large protein sequence and structure corpora with proprietary wet-lab data in a continuous loop that aims to ensure developability of de novo designed proteins [6]. On the infrastructure side, Adaptyv operates an automated, AI-native wet lab that converts digital protein sequences into physical DNA and produces proteins via cell-free synthesis on automated robots, accessible to users through a web platform and API for high-throughput experimental validation [21]. These systems build on the foundational capability demonstrated by AlphaFold, which predicts protein folds across entire proteomes with near-experimental accuracy and thereby allows researchers to bypass months of traditional crystallography and move directly to functional studies in enzyme engineering and disease research [10]. Modern workflows further integrate folding models such as Boltz with design models such as BindCraft to generate and score thousands of computational candidates, then route the top hits to cloud-lab APIs for rapid experimental testing—potentially compressing research timelines from years to weeks [21].

In antibody and binder design, the evidence points to systems that have already produced validated, functionally characterized molecules. Nabla Bio's JAM-2 designs drug-like VHH antibodies against difficult intracellular peptide-MHC targets; it demonstrated high precision by designing a KRAS G12V binder that killed mutant cells while sparing wild-type cells, a result validated through wet-lab assays and Cryo-EM structural analysis [46]. Absci's Origin-1 generative AI system focuses on full-length antibody design and emphasizes rapid design-build-test cycles, aiming to tighten the feedback loop between AI-generated hypotheses and wet-lab validation within weeks [6]. Medra's Physical AI platform is already deployed by large biotech and pharma partners for designing new antibodies, developing gene therapies, and running cell-based assays [8][19]. Ginkgo Bioworks operates a foundry-style model that integrates cell programming, automation, bioinformatics, and AI-guided design, providing automated workflows specifically for antibody developability, perturbation-response profiling, and screening [6]. To bridge the in silico-to-in vitro gap, Twist Bioscience offers Multiplex Gene

Fragments for scaled production of custom DNA up to 500 bp—enabling direct synthesis of entire antibody complementarity-determining regions with higher accuracy than traditional methods—and provides characterization assays for binding, affinity, immunogenicity, and developability for laboratories that lack their own wet-lab infrastructure ^[16].

High-throughput drug discovery and phenotypic screening represent the most industrialized application of the AI-wet-lab loop. Recursion Pharmaceuticals operates an end-to-end discovery platform called Recursion OS that combines automated high-throughput labs with multimodal data, using CRISPR-Cas9 editing and various compound treatments on HUVEC cells to generate millions of standardized experiments per week—data explicitly designed to be "fit-for-purpose" for training AI models ^{[3] [6] [22]}. Insilico Medicine advanced ISM001-055, a generatively designed anti-fibrotic small molecule, to Phase II clinical trials in 2024, marking the first AI-invented small molecule to reach that milestone and demonstrating the ability to compress pre-clinical timelines ^[24]. insitro employs a full-stack approach integrating large-scale human cell data generation with machine learning, validated through collaborations in which proprietary data generation led to the nomination of new ALS targets by Bristol Myers Squibb ^[23]. Anthropic's entry into this space is notable both for its scale and its hybrid model: the company has established a wet lab in the San Francisco Bay Area to test whether Claude's general-purpose reasoning can interpret sensor readings, sequence pipetting steps, and direct robotic equipment through multi-step biological experiments ^{[3] [7] [12]}. In that facility, Claude prompted to analyze DNA sequences linked to poorly understood proteins winnowed large datasets to identify candidate proteins for subsequent wet-lab validation, and a day-long search by 950 AI agents processing over 200,000 candidate reverse transcriptases yielded the discovery of a novel CRISPR-like system called array-associated RTs (ART) ^[11]. Anthropic's broader life-sciences initiative includes the acquisition of Coefficient Bio, partnerships with Genentech, Bristol Myers Squibb, and Novo Nordisk targeting undruggable targets and multispecific antibodies, and the release of Claude Science as a data-analysis and orchestration agent for computational biology and drug discovery ^{[12] [43] [47]}. The company has also released Claude for Life Sciences, which connects to Benchling, PubMed, ChEMBL, and ClinicalTrials.gov, and includes Agent Skills for converting instrument data to Allotrope, supporting bioinformatics via scVI-tools and Nextflow, and generating clinical-trial protocol drafts that account for FDA and NIH requirements ^{[23] [54]}. Despite this expansion, Anthropic has not yet conducted clinical trials and currently requires human involvement in the loop for safety ^{[3] [43]}.

Fully autonomous, multi-agent laboratory platforms push the boundary further by removing the human operator from the execution loop entirely. BioMARS, developed in China, integrates large language models, vision-language models, and robotics into a system capable of planning, executing, designing, and verifying biological experiments without human intervention; it coordinates specialized agent roles—a "biologist" for experiment design, a "technician" for robotic execution, and an "inspector" for quality control—and directly links

natural-language instructions to physical wet-lab protocols such as autonomous cell culture and passaging [18][19]. Ginkgo Bioworks' Cloud Lab provides a high-scale, web-accessible self-driving-lab infrastructure featuring over 70 instruments and Reconfigurable Automation Carts; a collaboration with OpenAI demonstrated an AI system capable of autonomous biological experiment design that reduced cell-free protein synthesis costs by 40% [40]. A separate AI lab in Shenzhen, China, operated by BisTrib, is designed to run entirely without human intervention, using robots to conduct physical experiments and even design new robotic systems [20].

System / Company	Domain	Autonomy Level	Key Metric or Outcome
SAMPLE	Protein design	Multi-agent, autonomous cycles	~9 h per design-test data point [44]
JAM-2 (Nabla Bio)	VHH antibody design	AI design + wet-lab validation	KRAS G12V binder, Cryo-EM validated [46]
Absci Origin-1	Full-length antibody design	Rapid design-build-test	Feedback loop within weeks [6]
Recursion OS	Phenotypic screening	Automated HTS + ML	Millions of experiments/week [22]
Insilico Medicine (ISM001-055)	Small-molecule drug discovery	AI design → clinical	Phase II (2024), first AI-invented molecule [24]
BioMARS	General biology	Fully autonomous multi-agent	No human intervention in plan-execute-verify [19]
Ginkgo Cloud Lab + OpenAI	Cell-free protein synthesis	Autonomous experiment design	40% cost reduction [40]
Anthropic / Claude (Bay Area lab)	Broad biology, drug discovery	AI-directed robotics, human in loop for safety	ART discovery from 200,000+ candidates [11]

Two cross-cutting observations sharpen the picture. First, the loop is not limited to a single modality of AI assistance: in a case study involving immunologist Derya Unutmaz, GPT-5 Pro acted as a collaborative reasoning partner, suggesting biological mechanisms and predicting experimental outcomes—specifically identifying how deoxyglucose might interfere with IL-2 protein construction and influence T-cell behavior—without directly controlling any hardware [46]. Second, the automation layer is increasingly framed as a solution to the reproducibility

crisis: removing human variability from sensitive biological steps produces high-fidelity data essential for standardizing complex 3D cell-culture models at industrial scale [42]. LabOS, an AI-powered smart-goggle system, enabled junior scientists to produce immune and stem-cell gene-editing results indistinguishable from those of experts within approximately one week of training, addressing the reported 70% replication failure rate among scientists [17]. A clinical-focused iteration, MedOS, was released in collaboration with the Stanford University School of Medicine [17].

⚠ A critical caveat applies to several of these showcases: the most celebrated results (e.g., Insilico's Phase II molecule, JAM-2's KRAS binder) still depend on human-designed experimental protocols and human interpretation of readouts. The systems that claim full autonomy—BioMARS, the Shenzhen BisTrib lab—have not yet produced peer-reviewed, independently replicated biological discoveries at the scale of the partially autonomous platforms. The gap between "AI proposes, robot disposes" and "AI proposes, robot disposes, AI verifies, and no human is in the loop" remains the defining frontier that the preceding architectural and closed-loop sections frame.

Challenges and Bottlenecks: Autonomy Limits, Safety, Regulation, and Data Constraints

The central constraint separating current AI-wet-lab systems from full laboratory autonomy is a structural mismatch between computational speed and physical throughput. The so-called "Velocity Gap" describes how AI-driven molecular and experimental design operates on timescales of minutes to hours, while the physical validation of those designs—synthesis, assay, imaging—requires days to weeks, producing a backlog of unvalidated candidates that exceeds the capacity of existing automation [36]. This latency is compounded by the fact that, unlike software where results are verifiable at runtime, scientific outcomes are not immediately confirmable in silico, making the integration of digital models with physical wet labs indispensable rather than optional [47]. Industry commentary converges on the same conclusion: AI is expected to augment, not replace, empirical validation through at least 2026, because the biological complexity underlying safety and efficacy cannot be resolved by computation alone [13]. In drug development specifically, AI has penetrated the discovery phase but has not yet significantly altered Phase 2 and Phase 3 clinical trials, where most candidates fail due to harm or ineffectiveness, underscoring that true end-to-end pipelines still require tight coupling between AI predictions and experimental observation [47]. Few Western players have yet achieved full robotic autonomy in their biological research loops, with companies such as Recursion (via its LabGenius platform) still attempting to enter the embodied AI space, and even in specialized domains such as IVF laboratory automation, system-level clinical benefit is bounded by the slower pace of clinician-side automation [18] [38].

At the model level, large language models exhibit specific and recurring failure modes when reasoning about wet-lab work: they fail to account for instrument calibration, ignore sample impurities, and overlook physical technique changes, gaps that arise because training corpora consist primarily of clean, published results rather than the messy, iterative outcomes of real experiments [26]. In antibody engineering, AI-designed libraries tend to over-index on single properties such as binding affinity because the underlying algorithms are trained on limited datasets focused on individual characteristics, rather than enabling the simultaneous multi-property optimization that the technology promises [16]. Graph Neural Networks applied to preclinical toxicity prediction face a "Translational Gap," failing to generalize to dynamic biological systems when overfitted on homogeneous datasets [36]. More broadly, current AI drug discovery platforms are fundamentally statistical, generative, and correlational, making them heavily reliant on large training datasets and distinct from deterministic physics-based or quantum-level simulation approaches [4]. Machine Learning algorithms applied to Design of Experiments data offer high predictive power but function as black boxes, necessitating additional strategies for causal investigation and uncertainty quantification to ensure robustness in R&D settings [48]. In those same R&D settings, where data is scarce and must be generated through experimentation, ML is viewed as a complement to rather than a complete replacement for classical DOE [48]. Even structural biology tools such as cryo-electron microscopy, while a significant advance over crystallography, leave a gap between captured static structures and biological action that often requires integration with predictive chemistry models [44].

Data scarcity and heterogeneity constitute a second, deeply entangled bottleneck. Public datasets are limited by noise, lack of standardization, and inconsistent labeling across laboratories, constraining the performance of open-source model architectures that depend on them [4]. In chemistry specifically, high-quality experimental results are often proprietary or require extremely expensive equipment to acquire, meaning the data is not readily available for large-scale download as it is in other scientific fields [44]. This scarcity has driven a strategic response: many biotech AI companies are building internal wet labs to generate proprietary training data, creating a compounding loop in which internal data fine-tunes models, which in turn produce more accurate predictions and smarter experiments, establishing a value moat that pure software companies cannot replicate [4]. Startups that merely sell agentic workflows without owning proprietary experimental data, validated domain workflows, and deep integration with physical laboratory hardware face commoditization risk from frontier models [47]. Federated learning, exemplified by the MELLODDY project, offers a partial remedy by enabling privacy-preserving model training across multiple institutions without moving raw molecular data, but it does not eliminate the underlying fragmentation [36]. At the tool level, platforms such as Benchling Experiment Optimization impose practical data-quality thresholds—requiring a "tall rectangle" structure where observations outnumber variables and a minimum predictive power ($R^2 \geq 0.10$) to avoid analysis failure—illustrating how insufficient signal in input data directly limits what AI-driven optimization can achieve [50]. The emergence

of unique AI-designed therapeutic molecules further complicates the data picture, as these novel entities require custom, fit-for-purpose assays that must scale from R&D through CDMO/CRO environments while maintaining consistency across all development stages [13].

Safety and biosecurity concerns add a layer of constraint that is both technical and geopolitical. The rise of AI-driven autonomous science in cloud labs lowers the technical barrier for bad actors to design experiments, and current gaps include a lack of standardized customer screening protocols and a lack of public documentation regarding the locations and capabilities of these labs [32]. In response, OpenAI has established a proprietary vetting framework to determine which institutional partners can access its biodefense AI capabilities, a framework that operates independently of federal regulatory oversight, which currently lacks specific laws governing access to dual-use biological reasoning AI [45]. Access to OpenAI's model is subject to wet-lab restrictions intended to limit the technology's use to defensive applications, with reported potential partners including Lawrence Livermore National Laboratory, Johns Hopkins Applied Physics Laboratory, and CEPI [45]. Anthropic maintains human oversight in its lab operations to mitigate biosecurity risks, consistent with prior safety efforts such as the Claude Fable 5.1 release that specifically targeted the reduction of biological-risk outputs [3]. A proposed Cloud Lab Security Consortium (CLSC) would establish community-driven standards including unified screening protocols and real-time AI monitoring of requests and experiments, with data-sharing mechanisms to identify users attempting to obfuscate activities by splitting orders across different providers [32]. The integration of electronic controls into high-containment biosafety (BSL-3/4) labs has introduced novel "cyberbiosecurity" risks, in which hackers could gain unauthorized access to critical biological data or physical laboratory controls [5]. Academic observers have also raised concerns that the cost of AI tools such as Claude Science may force researchers to divert funding away from human trainees, introducing a secondary equity and workforce risk [11].

The regulatory landscape governing AI in wet-lab and pharmaceutical settings is extensive but still maturing, and its fragmentation itself constitutes a bottleneck. The FDA's oversight is distributed across four centers (CDER, CBER, CDRH, and OCP) rather than a single authoritative body, with guidance evolving through a series of discussion papers and draft documents [27]. In January 2025, the FDA released draft guidance establishing a seven-step credibility assessment framework for AI supporting regulatory decision-making for drug and biological products, requiring sponsors to define the AI's context of use and assess model risk based on its influence on decisions [27] [33]. The FDA has reviewed over 500 drug and biologic applications containing AI components between 2016 and 2023, with submission trends accelerating sharply from approximately 29 applications in 2019 to over 100 in 2021 [27]. In January 2026, the FDA and EMA jointly issued Guiding Principles of Good AI Practice in Drug Development, establishing that AI outputs in regulated environments must be treated as recommendations requiring human approval, ensuring compliance with GxP standards, ALCOA+ data integrity, and 21 CFR Part 11 electronic record regulations [40]. The FDA has

transitioned from documentation-heavy computer system validation to a risk-based Computer Software Assurance (CSA) framework finalized in 2025, encouraging labs to scale validation efforts based on the specific risk and intended use of the software [33] [35]. Predetermined Change Control Plans (PCCPs) allow sponsors to pre-specify future AI model updates and validation methods to avoid new submissions for every modification; however, as of early 2025 this mechanism exists under CDRH for medical devices but has no formal equivalent pathway for drugs and biologics under CDER [27] [33]. On the European side, the European Commission is rewriting Annex 11 with a draft revision published in July 2025 that expands requirements for supplier management, audit trails, and cybersecurity, and a new Annex 22 specifically addressing artificial intelligence is entering consultation in 2025, expected to formalize compliance requirements for adaptive and generative AI systems [33] [35]. Within GxP environments, ALCOA+ principles require AI-generated records to be attributable, legible, contemporaneous, original, accurate, complete, consistent, enduring, and available, necessitating audit trails that capture model versions, input data provenance, and human review steps [33] [35]. The ISPE GAMP 5 Second Edition (2022), particularly its Appendix D11, recommends treating AI training datasets, inference outputs, and model updates as regulated records subject to standard change control [33] [35]. Validating AI models in these settings requires continuous training and testing procedures to account for new data, algorithm fine-tuning, or model retraining, along with procedures for transparency and explainability that include verifying AI-generated content against multiple trustworthy references [34]. Effective AI governance in GxP environments is expected to integrate with established standards such as ISO/IEC Standard 42001 and the ISPE GAMP 5 Guide [34]. The Good Machine Learning Practice (GMLP) principles, developed jointly by the FDA, Health Canada, and the UK's MHRA in October 2021, provide ten guiding principles including multidisciplinary expertise, representative data, and robust engineering, and while originally framed for medical devices, they serve as a foundation for later drug-specific AI work [27].

Taken together, these findings paint a picture in which the path from current practice to full AI-driven laboratory autonomy is obstructed not by a single failure but by a convergence of interlocking constraints. The velocity gap between computation and physical experimentation means that even a perfect AI model would be throttled by the throughput of the wet lab it directs [36] [47]. The models themselves carry systematic blind spots rooted in training on published rather than operational data [26], and the data they depend on is fragmented, proprietary, and non-standardized [4] [44]. Safety and biosecurity considerations impose human-oversight requirements and access restrictions that limit the degree of autonomy any system can be granted [3] [32]. And the regulatory apparatus, while evolving rapidly, still requires human approval of AI outputs, traceable documentation, and risk-proportionate validation that scales with the model's intended use [33] [40]. The net effect is that the systems described in the preceding sections—agentic lab pilots, closed-loop design-build-test-analyze cycles, and high-throughput autonomous screening—operate within a corridor of partial

autonomy, where AI accelerates hypothesis generation and experimental planning but the physical, regulatory, and data-integrity boundaries of the wet lab remain the rate-limiting steps.

Research Gaps

Several questions remain open because the evidence surveyed does not resolve them.

First, the long-term trajectory of the Velocity Gap is uncertain. The sections document that physical validation lags computational design by orders of magnitude [36], but whether this is a fundamental throughput constraint or one that can be closed by parallelizing wet-lab hardware, continuous-flow processing, or faster assay chemistries is not established by any single source. The 68.4% market share of continuous flow processing [39] and the modular "Lego-style" hardware shift [37] suggest hardware is scaling, yet no study quantifies the point at which wet-lab throughput matches AI iteration speed.

Second, the generalizability of headline results is untested. The 40% cost reduction in cell-free protein synthesis from the Ginkgo Cloud Lab–OpenAI collaboration [40], the 50–90% experiment reduction from Citrine's Sequential Learning [51], and the 26.8% protein-design hit rate [21] are each reported in a single context. No independent replication or cross-domain comparison has been published, leaving open whether these figures hold under different molecular targets, assay formats, or laboratory conditions.

Third, the regulatory pathway for iterative AI models in drug development is genuinely unsettled. The FDA's January 2026 joint Guiding Principles with the EMA require human approval of AI outputs [40], and the seven-step credibility assessment framework [33] is still in draft form. A Predetermined Change Control Plan exists for medical devices under CDRH but has no formal equivalent for drugs and biologics under CDER [27] [33], and the European Annex 22 on AI is still in consultation [33]. How these frameworks will be applied in practice to a self-driving lab that retrain its models weekly—rather than a static software system validated once—remains an open question with no published guidance.

Fourth, the biosecurity governance landscape is at a proposal stage. The Cloud Lab Security Consortium is described as a proposed body [32], OpenAI's vetting framework for access to its biodefense model operates outside federal regulatory oversight [45], and no standardized customer-screening protocol for cloud labs has been adopted. Whether these mechanisms will coalesce into enforceable standards, and whether the cyberbiosecurity risks introduced by electronic controls in BSL-3/4 facilities [5] will be addressed by existing or new regulation, is not resolved.

Fifth, the data-fragmentation problem lacks a demonstrated solution at scale. Federated learning via MELLODDY is identified as a partial remedy [36], and the FAIR/ALCOA data-foundation principle is widely endorsed [37], but no evidence in the surveyed sources shows a multi-institutional, cross-vendor data lake that has actually powered a production AI-wet-lab loop. The strategic response of building proprietary internal wet labs to generate training data [4] creates a compounding advantage for well-funded players, yet the long-term effect on open-science reproducibility and the accessibility of AI-driven discovery for smaller institutions is not quantified.

Finally, a tension persists between sources on the near-term role of AI in validation. Industry commentary asserts that AI will augment rather than replace empirical validation through at least 2026 [13], while simultaneously, systems like BioMARS and the Shenzhen lab are described as operating without human intervention [19] [20]. Whether these fully autonomous demonstrations represent a replicable operating model or isolated proof-of-concepts that will not scale beyond their current scope is not established by the available evidence.

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Methodology

This report was generated through 4 iteration(s) of autonomous deep research, using 73 source(s) and extracting 234 finding(s).

RESEARCH CONCLUSION

i Token budget exhausted — The research used the full token budget before reaching the coverage target. The topic may require deeper investigation — consider running a follow-up with a more focused question or different sub-topics.

ITERATION LOG

Iter	Coverage	Sources	Findings	IGR*	Duration
1	1.00	33	101	3.06	56.8s
2	1.00	3	6	0.21	37.5s
3	1.00	29	96	2.53	58.7s
4	1.00	8	31	0.78	47.0s

*IGR (Information Gain Rate) = new findings per search result examined. Values near 0 indicate diminishing returns.

SOURCE DIVERSITY

- **Unique domains:** 41
- **Domain entropy:** 0.93 (0=mono-source, 1=perfectly diverse)
- **Dominant domain:** linkedin.com (16% of sources)

Data Processing Summary

AI Model: gemma4-chat-26b, gpt-oss-120b,
qwen3.6-chat-35b, qwen3.8-27b · AKI.io,
Frankfurt, Germany

Search: Staan / SearXNG (EU)

Storage: Hetzner, Germany

Training: Your data is not used for model training

All data processed within the EU · GDPR-compliant · Deletable on request — privacy@ciata.io