Cross-Linked Unified Embedding for cross-modality representation learning

Abstract

Multimodal learning is essential for understanding information in the real world. Jointly learning from multi-modal data enables global integration of both shared and modality-specific information, but current strategies often fail when observations from certain modalities are incomplete/missing for part of the subjects. To learn comprehensive representations based on such modality-incomplete data, we present a semi-supervised neural network model called CLUE (Cross-Linked Unified Embedding). Extending from multimodal VAEs, CLUE introduces the use of cross-encoders to construct comprehensive representations from modality-incomplete observations. Human cells are tightly regulated across multiple related but distinct modalities such as DNA, RNA, and protein. These modalities jointly define a cell's fate. We benchmark CLUE on multi-modal data from single cell measurements, and show CLUE's superior performance over states-of-the-art on the multi-modal single-cell data integration task, achieving a decisive win in a previous competition. We note that the proposed cross-linked embedding strategy could be readily applied to other popular cross-modality representation learning problems.

1 Introduction

Data from complex systems span multiple modalities. For example, to perceive the world we need to see images, hear sounds, and read text. Learning how to represent multi-modal data in a way that captures both shared and complementary information across modalities is a fundamental ML task.[1, 2] Previous works have demonstrated that, compared to single modality, information obtained from multiple modalities improves the performance of downstream tasks and generalization, such as video classification[3], imaging classification[4], and modality-translation[5].

Multi-modal learning shows even higher importance when it comes to biomedical research. Biological processes in cells involve multiple regulatory layers that are composed of different types of parts, such as DNA[6, 7, 8] RNA[9], and protein[10], but these layers directly influence each other, resulting in an intrinsic need for multi-modal understanding. In recent years, single-cell technologies have enabled measuring a variety of data modalities at single-cell resolution, including specialized techniques capable of simultaneously measuring two or more modalities in the same cell (SHARE-seq[11], Sci-Car[12], SNARE-seq[13], CITE-seq[14]). However, quality of multi-modal experiments is typically lower than unimodal ones. Further, unimodal datasets can be generated on a much larger scale (tens of millions of cells, as opposed to thousands of cells). Therefore, in-silico integration of these unimodal data may provide great value for understanding inner workings of complex cell systems [15, 16].

In particular, a pressing computational question is how to utilize the limited and noisy datasets from multi-modal experiments as a reference to pair the larger set of high quality unimodal data, in order to generate pseudo-multimodal datasets that enable high-quality downstream analyses. To address

Figure 1: Cross-Modality Representation Learning: A Demo Case, there are three modalities and three datasets and for each dataset there are only one modality, the other two modalities are missing/incomplete, through the cross modality representation, we can build a comprehensive representation for all three datasets

this, we propose to use cross-modality representation learning (Figure 1) to learn comprehensive representations from modality-incomplete (unimodal) data. We show that our approach results in a significant improvement compared to competing approaches.

In this paper, we propose a semi-supervised neural network model, CLUE (Cross-Linked Unified Embedding). The model uses paired multimodal data as supervision to learn a combined representation by jointly trained cross-encoders across data modalities. Based on this framework, CLUE learns modality-specific representations, which are then combined to build an effective embedding in the multi-modal space for each cell. As a result, CLUE can automatically pair single-cell data from different modalities. While other methods in this domain seek to find a *common* information/representation across the modalities, CLUE preserves both shared and modality-specific information. CLUE achieved state-of-the-art performance in the multimodal single-cell data integration task as demonstrated by a decisive win in a previous competition as well as in our follow-up experiments.

2 Related work

In this section, we will first introduce related work in the general machine learning community and then mainly talk about works in single cell genomics that address the same problem, which are compared with CLUE in the result section.

2.1 Multi modality representation in the general field

In the general machine learning field, the problem that CLUE aims to solve is the coordinated representation learning[1]: each modality has a corresponding projection function to map them in the coordinated space and there are some constraints between the projection functions to form coordination. Multimodal machine learning had great success in learning the coordinated representation of image and text (computational vision and natural language processing)[4, 5, 17, 18] For example, aligned VAE [19] aligns modality-specific embedding space by minimizing the mean square error of embeddings from paired data. Coupled VAE [20] uses a translate decoder for each modality to reconstruct the other modality from the embedding. There are also multimodal methods applying contrastive learning to form the coordinated space and accomplish downstream tasks, such as CLIP[4] and DALL-2[5].

2.2 Related work in single-cell genomics

The general strategy for integrating multimodal data in single-cell genomics is to project different modalities into a common embedding space. Various downstream analyses in single-cell genomics such as clustering, cell type annotation, and cell-fate trajectory reconstruction can be conducted with the common embedding space. There are two types of methods to integrate multimodal data in single-cell genomics, unsupervised and supervised.

Unsupervised methods Unsupervised methods integrate cells from different modalities without the help of experimentally-paired multimodal cells. The key is to build a feature transformation between different modalities. For example, Seurat v3[21] transforms ATAC-seq data to RNA-seq space via the gene activity score, which is computed as the normalized sum of open chromatin read counts within a certain distance along the genome. It then employs the canonical correlation analysis (CCA) to learn shared cell embeddings based on the transformed data. Online iNMF [22] LIGER [23] and MOFA+ [24] follows similar feature transformations, and then use Negative Matrix factorization (NMF) to separately model shared and modality-specific information. Then, data from different modalities can be projected into a common embedding space with the loading of shared information factors. GLUE [25] adopts a graph variational autoencoder (VAE) to model the prior regulatory relationship and link different modalities to achieve high performance without any paired data.

Semi-supervised methods Semi-supervised methods use the information from experimentally-paired multimodal cells to help integrate different modalities. Dictionary learning in Seurat v4 [26] uses paired multimodal data as a bridge to represent other unimodal data by linear combination of a same set of basis (paired multimodal data). The deep generation model VAE can achieve successful cell embedding while being pretty flexible (scVI [27]), making it a good solution to the integration problem. Babel[28] uses modality-specific encoders and decoders to learn the translation between different modalities. Similar to Babel, Polarbear[29] trains a separate translator to model the translation between different modalities. Cobolt [30], MultiVI [31] and scMVP [32] also apply multiple VAEs and align the embedding space using joint embedding.

Common limitation of previous methods The most important advantage of multimodal data is that there are more information than a single modality. However, the state-of-the-art VAE-based methods only use one embedding space to align data from different modalities, and as a result, only finds the shared information and there could be undesirable interventions between different modalities. In contrast, CLUE does not try to align modality-specific embedding spaces but keeps them to eliminate the undesirable interventions and better utilize information from different modalities.

3 Notations and Formulation

Let $\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)} \in \mathbb{R}^{m_k}$ be a data sample c in modality k ($k \in \mathcal{K} = \{1, 2, ..., K\}$), where m_k is the number of features. We denote the set of modalities detected in sample c as $\mathcal{K}_c$. For convenience, we also define $\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}$ as a shorthand for $\{\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)} | k \in \mathcal{K}_c\}$.

We model the data of each modality as generated from a latent variable $\mathbf{z}_k \in \mathbb{R}^d$ via a generative distribution $p(\mathbf{x}_k | \mathbf{z}_k; \theta_k)$. Here, $\mathbf{z}_k$ represents a section of the underlying global representation relevant to the corresponding modality, and θ_k is the set of learnable parameters in the generative distribution. It is worth noting that the modality-specific representation $\mathbf{z}_k$'s are correlated, as they are jointly determined by a common global representation. We represent the global sample representation with the concatenation of all modality-specific latent variables $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, ..., \mathbf{z}_K)$, and denote the joint prior distribution as $p(\mathbf{z}) = p(\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, ..., \mathbf{z}_K)$.

The multi-modality integration task Given a set of samples with arbitrary combinations of detected modalities ($\mathcal{K}_c$), the objective is to learn the most comprehensive representation $\mathbf{z}$ for all samples even when a subset of modalities are not observed in certain samples. In other words, we are particularly interested in inferring the posterior distribution $p(\mathbf{z} | \mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)})$, which is dynamically defined based on the set of modalities profiled in each sample.

4 CLUE

CLUE is a deep generative model that can align data from different modalities after training on partially paired multi-modal data. It builds upon the multi-VAE architecture where data from different modalities are projected into a shared latent space using modality-specific VAEs. The key difference is that CLUE models the shared latent space as a combination of modality-specific sub-spaces, and extends the basic multi-VAE architecture by including cross-encoders that project data from each modality into the sub-spaces of all modalities, which could facilitate capturing useful information

from all modalities. Below, we start by introducing the model architecture, and then a combination of loss functions used for model training.

4.1 Multimodal Variational Inference

According to the generative model, the marginal likelihood of a sample c can be written as:

$$p(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \theta) = \int \prod_{k \in \mathcal{K}_c} p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}_k; \theta) p(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z} \tag{1}$$

We can derive the following evidence lower bound (ELBO) by introducing a variational posterior $q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi)$:

$$\ln p(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \theta) = \ln \int p(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}; \theta) p(\mathbf{z}) d\mathbf{z}$$

$$= \ln \int p(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}; \theta) p(\mathbf{z}) \frac{q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi)}{q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi)} d\mathbf{z}$$

$$\geq \int q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) \ln p(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}; \theta) \frac{p(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi)} d\mathbf{z}$$

$$= \int q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) \ln p(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}; \theta) d\mathbf{z} + \int q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) \ln \frac{p(\mathbf{z})}{q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi)} d\mathbf{z}$$

$$= \underbrace{\int q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}_c} \ln p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}_k; \theta) d\mathbf{z}}_{\text{Reconstruction term}} \underbrace{- \text{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) \| p(\mathbf{z})\right)}_{\text{Regularization term}}$$

Maximizing the ELBO effectively maximizes the marginal data likelihood and minimizes the error of the variational posterior at the same time.

When a factorized variational posterior $q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) = \prod_{k \in \mathcal{K}} q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi)$ is used, the reconstruction term becomes:

$$\int \prod_{k \in \mathcal{K}} q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}_c} \ln p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}_k; \theta) d\mathbf{z} = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi)} \ln p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}_k; \theta) \tag{2}$$

Meanwhile, in the regularization term, the joint prior $p(\mathbf{z}) = p(\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, ..., \mathbf{z}_K)$ is difficult to model due to the correlation between modality-specific latent variables. Here we approximate it with a factorized prior $p(\mathbf{z}) = \prod_{k \in \mathcal{K}} p(\mathbf{z}_k)$, which simplifies the regularization term into:

$$- \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} \text{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) \| p(\mathbf{z}_k)\right) \tag{3}$$

The overall ELBO is thus:

$$\text{ELBO}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \theta, \phi) = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} \left[\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi)} \ln p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}_k; \theta) - \text{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) \| p(\mathbf{z}_k)\right) \right] \tag{4}$$

4.2 Self-Linked Variational Autoencoders

Intuitively, data from the same modality should be the most informative for inferring modality-specific latent states, so it is reasonable to apply the approximation $q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \phi) = q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)}; \phi)$. In that case, the ELBO becomes:

$$\text{ELBO}_{\text{self}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \theta, \phi) = \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}} \left[\mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)}; \phi)} \ln p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)} | \mathbf{z}_k; \theta) - \text{KL}\left(q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)}; \phi) \| p(\mathbf{z}_k)\right) \right] \tag{5}$$

Following the approach of VAEs, we can implement the generative distributions $p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)}|\mathbf{z}_k;\theta)$ by decoder neural networks, and the variational posteriors $q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)};\phi)$ by encoder neural networks. However, the above approximation leads to K independent VAEs. The full latent $\mathbf{z} = (\mathbf{z}_1, \mathbf{z}_2, ..., \mathbf{z}_K)$ can only be inferred when all modalities are observed.

4.3 Cross-Linked Variational Autoencoders

To allow inferring the full latent $\mathbf{z}$ with modality-incomplete data, sections of the latent variables corresponding to unobserved modalities must be inferred from other observed ones, which necessitates cross-modality encoding. To achieve this, we have to avoid the previous approximation and model the variational posteriors $q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)};\phi)$ directly. We use the following data-adaptive encoders to implement the dynamically-defined variational posterior:

$$q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)};\phi) = \prod_{k'\in\mathcal{K}_c} q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{k'};\phi) \tag{6}$$

The ELBO term is then:

$$\text{ELBO}_{\text{cross}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)};\theta,\phi) = \sum_{k\in\mathcal{K}}\left[\mathbb{E}_{\prod_{k'\in\mathcal{K}_c} q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{k'};\phi)}\ln p(\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)}|\mathbf{z}_k;\theta) - \text{KL}\left(\prod_{k'\in\mathcal{K}_c} q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{k'};\phi)\|p(\mathbf{z}_k)\right)\right] \tag{7}$$

The model essentially introduces a matrix of encoders $q(\mathbf{z}_k|\mathbf{x}_{k'};\phi)$ that map between all modality pairs. The "self-encoders" ($k = k'$) map data to the latent variable of the corresponding modality, while the "cross-encoders" ($k \neq k'$) map data to latent variables of other modalities. For each given sample, the inferred latent of modality k combines self- and cross- inferences from all its observed modalities.

Figure 2: CLUE model architecture

The cross-linking architecture allows the model to learn useful information from multimodal observations that generalizes to occasions where certain modalities are missing. For example, multimodal samples where a pair of modalities i, j are simultaneously observed can be utilized to train the cross-encoders $q(\mathbf{z}_i|\mathbf{x}_j)$ and $q(\mathbf{z}_j|\mathbf{x}_i)$, which enables inferring the full latent of $\mathbf{z}_i, \mathbf{z}_j$ even when one of $\mathbf{x}_i$ and $\mathbf{x}_j$ is missing.

4.4 Additional alignment losses

Beyond the ELBOs, we add the following two objectives to further align the learned representations:

Mean square error loss The intuition behind the mean square error loss is very simple. We want the representation $\mathbf{z}$ inferred from different modalities of the same multimodal sample to be close:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MSE}}(\phi) = \mathbb{E}_c \left[\frac{1}{|\mathcal{K}_c|} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}_c} |\mathbf{z}_k^{(c)} - \bar{\mathbf{z}}^{(c)}|^2 \right] \tag{8}$$

$$\mathbf{z}_k^{(c)} \sim q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_k^{(c)}; \phi) \tag{9}$$

$$\bar{\mathbf{z}}^{(c)} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{K}_c|} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}_c} \mathbf{z}_k^{(c)} \tag{10}$$

Adversarial loss We train a modality discriminator $q(k|\mathbf{z}; \psi)$ to tell which data modality a latent representation $\mathbf{z}$ is inferred from. The encoders are then trained adversarially to fool the modality discriminator, so that the representations from different modalities are well-aligned:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{D}}(\phi, \psi) = \mathbb{E}_c \left[\frac{1}{|\mathcal{K}_c|} \sum_{k \in \mathcal{K}_c} \mathbb{E}_{q(\mathbf{z}|\mathbf{x}_k; \phi)} \ln q(k|\mathbf{z}; \psi) \right] \tag{11}$$

4.5 Overall objectives

Let:

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{self}}(\theta, \phi) = \mathbb{E}_c \left[-\text{ELBO}_{\text{self}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \theta, \phi) \right] \tag{12}$$

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{cross}}(\theta, \phi) = \mathbb{E}_c \left[-\text{ELBO}_{\text{cross}}(\mathbf{x}_{\mathcal{K}_c}^{(c)}; \theta, \phi) \right] \tag{13}$$

The overall training objectives can be written as:

$$\begin{cases} \max_{\psi} \lambda_{\text{D}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{D}}(\phi, \psi) \\ \min_{\theta, \phi} \lambda_{\text{self}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{self}}(\theta, \phi) + \lambda_{\text{cross}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{cross}}(\theta, \phi) + \lambda_{\text{MSE}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{MSE}}(\phi) + \lambda_{\text{D}} \mathcal{L}_{\text{D}}(\phi, \psi) \end{cases} \tag{14}$$

In summary, the mean square error and the cross prediction use the pairing information to learn the local alignment, while the adversarial learning aligns these embedding in a global manner.

5 Result

We applied the CLUE model to the problem of multimodal single-cell data integration. We first introduce the dataset and metric used to evaluate the performance of the model, the matching score and the FOSCTTM. Then we show that our method is the winner of a previous single-cell multi-modality integration competition. Further, we also compared our model with MultiVI[31], Cobolt[30], and the bridge integration in Seurat v4. We prove that in both Matching Score and FOSCTTM, CLUE outperformed all methods mentioned above.

5.1 Datasets

We use the dataset from a previous NeurIPS 2021 dataset paper[33]. There are two experimental technologies used to generate the multi-modality data: 10X genomics Multiome and CITE-seq[34]. Multiome obtains information on DNA accessibility and gene expression simultaneously. By dividing the genome into bins of fixed length, DNA accessibility information is converted into a 100,000-dimensional matrix, and the gene expression matrix has about 20,000 dimensions. Due to technical limitations, these two matrices are highly sparse. CITE-seq captures 134 immobilized proteins on the cell surface and gene expression information inside cell. The Multiome data training set includes 42,492 cells, the test set includes 20,009 cells, the CITE data training set includes 66,175 cells, and the test set includes 15,066 cells.

5.2 Metric

Matching Score Average confidences placed on correct matchings. Specifically, a cross-modality matching matrix $\mathbf{M}$ is first constructed by computing a Jaccard index of cross-modality nearest neighbors in the integrated embedding space:

$$\mathbf{M}_{i,j} = \frac{|(\mathrm{NN}_{ij} \cap \mathrm{NN}_{jj}) \cup (\mathrm{NN}_{ji} \cap \mathrm{NN}_{ii})|}{|(\mathrm{NN}_{ij} \cup \mathrm{NN}_{jj}) \cup (\mathrm{NN}_{ji} \cup \mathrm{NN}_{ii})|} \tag{15}$$

where NN_{ij} is the nearest neighbor of profile i in the modality of profile j. The matching score is then calculated using the following equation:

$$\text{Matching Score } = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \sum_j \tilde{\mathbf{M}}_{i,j} * \delta_{i,j} \tag{16}$$

where $\tilde{\mathbf{M}}$ is obtained by row-normalizing the matching matrix $\mathbf{M}$. $\delta_{i,j}$ is 1 if profile i and j were measured in the same cell and 0 otherwise. N is the number of observations.

FOSCTTM Fraction of Samples Closer than True Match[35]. If there are two datasets, each containing N cells, and we know the true paired relationship, then the FOSCTTM is calculated as:

$$\text{FOSCTTM} = \frac{1}{2N} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{n_1^{(i)}}{N} + \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{n_2^{(i)}}{N} \right) \tag{17}$$
$$n_1^{(i)} = |\{j \mid d\left(\mathbf{x}_j, \mathbf{y}_i\right) < d\left(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i\right)\}|, n_2^{(i)} = |\{j \mid d\left(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_j\right) < d\left(\mathbf{x}_i, \mathbf{y}_i\right)\}|$$

in which $n_1^{(i)}$ and $n_2^{(i)}$ represent the number of cells that are closer to the ith cell than their true matches in the opposite dataset. d is the Euclidean distance. Lower FOSCTTM values indicate higher accuracy.

5.3 Competition results

(a) Multiome: chromatin accessibility and gene expression

(b) CITE-seq: surface protein abundance and gene expression

Figure 3: Integration result of both multi-modality task on never seen test data

There were 280 teams participated in the competition. Our method CLUE won the competition in the test dataset with a decisive lead. Table1. The competition used matching score to evaluate model performance on four sub-tasks: pairing ATAC(Chromatin accessibility) to GEX(gene expression), ADT(Protein abundance) to GEX, and reversely, GEX to ATAC and GEX to ADT; then an overall score was calculated of these four sub-tasks. CLUE scored between 0.049 and 0.058, which was almost $1000\times$ higher than the random matching baseline model. Other top teams used several technologies including VAE, NMF and contrastive learning. Our score was higher than the Top2 method by 26% and the Top3 method by 158%.

We use a non-linear dimension reduction method, UMAP[36], to visualize the embedding for test data. On the 2D scatter plot of UMAP visualization, each point is a single modality profile. We first color the points by modality, which shows that CLUE integrates the two different modalities very well. Then we color points by cell types, which shows that the points are clustered by different cell types, indicating that the embedding captures the biological variation well. Figure 3.

Table 1: The matching score of the Top 5 team in the competition.

Team	GEX2ATAC	ATAC2GEX	GEX2ADT	ADT2GEX	Overall
CLUE	**0.0560**	**0.0583**	**0.0495**	**0.0516**	**0.0539**
Novel[1]	0.0482	0.0482	0.0373	0.0373	0.0427
SCEMMAPDTHCOFF[2]	0.0071	0.0099	0.0322	0.0344	0.0209
Liuz Lab BCM[2]	0.0120	0.0120	0.0250	0.0252	0.0185
SysMo [3]	0.0124	0.0127	0.0153	0.0159	0.0141

[1] VAE + Contrastive learning
[2] VAE-based methods
[3] NMF + Contrastive Learning

5.4 Integration Benchmark

While we achieved state-of-the-art results on all tasks in the matching modality task, we also assess widely with other three methods(Bridge integration in Seurat V4, MultiVI, and Cobolt), using the competition's rules. In order to ensure the fairness of the comparison, we did hyperparameter search for all deep-learning-based methods. Bridge integration method in Seurat V4 is not able to handle such a large paired datasets due to the memory limitation of R. So we downscale the paired data to benchmark the performance of all these methods with CLUE. We also note that the Cobolt, MultiVI are not designed for the CITE-seq data so the result is significant worse than on the Multiome data.

We first evaluated the performance using the matching score. And CLUE is the best methods compared to other four methods. The Overall score is 0.0539 which is higher than other methods from 121% to 364% Table 2

Table 2: The matching score of benchmark methods in the competition data

Methods	GEX2ATAC	ATAC2GEX	GEX2ADT	ADT2GEX	Overall
CLUE	**0.0560**	**0.0583**	**0.0495**	**0.0516**	**0.0539**
Cobolt	0.0349	0.0356	0.0147	0.0123	0.0244
MultiVI	0.0261	0.0296	0.0063	0.0056	0.0169
Bridge-integration	0.0158	0.0117	0.0126	0.0102	0.0116

We also calculate the FOSCTTM score for all methods and compare the performance. Table 3

5.5 Ablation study

In this section, we explore the contribution of each component to the high performance of CLUE by ablation study. There are three important components in our method, the cross-loss, the mean squared error loss and the adversarial loss.

Table 3: The FOSCTTM score of the benchmark methods in the competition data

Methods	Multiome	CITE	Overall
CLUE	**0.0183**	**0.0140**	**0.0162**
Bridge-integration	0.0377	0.0311	0.0344
Cobolt	0.0296	0.0457	0.0377
MultiVI	0.0398	0.0872	0.0635

Table 4: The matching score with different combinations of loss components

$\mathcal{L}_{\text{cross}}$	$\mathcal{L}_{\text{MSE}}$	$\mathcal{L}_{\text{D}}$	GEX2ATAC	ATAC2GEX	GEX2ADT	ADT2GEX	Overall
✓	✓	✓	**0.0560**	**0.0583**	**0.0495**	**0.0516**	**0.0539**
✓		✓	0.0499	0.0483	0.0400	0.0423	0.0451
	✓	✓	0.0460	0.0457	0.0412	0.0448	0.0444
✓	✓		0.0224	0.0212	0.0286	0.0413	0.0284
		✓	0.0127	0.0135	0.0320	0.0429	0.0253
✓			0.0292	0.0264	0.0210	0.0233	0.0250
	✓		0.0130	0.0117	0.0098	0.0114	0.0115
			0.0001	0.0001	0.0002	0.0002	0.0001

The ablation experiments shows that all components contribute to the final performance while the adversarial learning loss is the most important, without which the matching score will drop 47.3%. The performance will drop 16.5% without the mean sqaure error loss and 17.6% without the cross loss.

6 Conclusion

We present a semi-supervised neural network model called CLUE (Cross-Linked Unified Embedding) to learn comprehensive representations based on multi-modality data. We applied CLUE to integrate cells measured for gene expression, protein abundance, and DNA accessibility at single-cell resolution and through an extensive benchmarking competition showed that CLUE achieves the state-of-the-art on performance. Our model promises a novel research paradigm where computational analysis can partially substitute the highly-demanding multi-modality experiments to assist biological research in regulatory genomics. In the future, we plan to further improve the scalability of CLUE to overcome the current limitation of the need for K^2 cross-encoders. With that, we can easily extend the model to other multi-modality technologies and enable the integration of any single-cell genomics datasets, multi-modality or single-modality. An online platform can be developed to allow the users to upload their data and run the model to query similar cells based on our method. Finally, We note that the proposed cross-linked embedding strategy described here may also have broader application to other tasks that require cross-modality representation.

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