GENEBENCH: SYSTEMATIC EVALUATION OF GE-NOMIC FOUNDATION MODELS AND BEYOND

Anonymous authors

Paper under double-blind review

ABSTRACT

The Genomic Foundation Model (GFM) paradigm is expected to facilitate the extraction of generalizable representations from massive genomic data, thereby enabling their application across a spectrum of downstream applications. Despite advancements, a lack of evaluation framework makes it difficult to ensure equitable assessment due to experimental settings, model intricacy, benchmark datasets, and reproducibility challenges. In the absence of standardization, comparative analyses risk becoming biased and unreliable. To surmount this impasse, we introduce GeneBench, a comprehensive benchmarking suite specifically tailored for evaluating the efficacy of Genomic Foundation Models. GeneBench offers a modular and expandable framework that encapsulates a variety of state-of-the-art methodologies. Through systematic evaluations of datasets spanning diverse biological domains with a particular emphasis on both short-range and long-range genomic tasks, firstly including the three most important DNA tasks covering Coding Region, Non-Coding Region, Genome Structure, etc. Our results on GeneBench have led to an interesting discovery: regardless of the number of parameters, the noticeable variation in preference between attention-based and convolution-based models for short—and long-range tasks could offer valuable insights for the future development of GFM. As a result, we propose a straightforward modified model called Genhybrid, which is an effective and efficient SSM-attention hybrid model suitable for all tasks we covered.

029 030 031

032

004

010 011

012

013

014

015

016

017

018

019

021

024

025

026

027

028

1 INTRODUCTION

Recently, significant advancements have been made in genomic research by utilizing foundation models (FMs) to analyze unstructured whole genome data. These genomic foundation models play a crucial role in various tasks such as predicting gene locations and functions, identifying regulatory elements, and studying species evolution (Ji et al., 2021; Fishman et al., 2023; Zvyagin et al., 2023).

Despite the importance of modeling Genomics foundations and the advancement of different training methods, there is still a noticeable absence of a thorough benchmark in this area that encompasses a range of practical application scenarios and different foundational model structures. The current 040 benchmark either restricts its scope to short distances or oversimplifies the challenge by focusing 041 solely on the classification task (Ji et al., 2021; Marin et al., 2023; Fishman et al., 2023). Moreover, 042 with the influx of long sequence models called state space models (SSMs) (Gu & Dao, 2023; Liu 043 et al., 2024b; Nguyen et al., 2024; Schiff et al., 2024), a systematic approach to evaluating up-to-044 date GFMs and inspiring subsequent development is also sorely lacking. Based on the current state of research, we thus summarise the three key problems in current GFMs: (1) Incomplete evaluation: Long sequence processing is crucial for modeling genetic data. Current tests of these models 046 for long-sequence gene tasks are incomplete. (2) Chaotic training strategies: The variety of tok-047 enizations and pre-training methods lack a fair platform to compare and select the most appropriate 048 training method for DNA data. (3) Snowy model design: Do the various attention-based and recent state-space/convolution models have unique strengths in analyzing DNA? We need an inspiring experience that will influence future designs. 051

To address these issues, we propose GeneBench, a comprehensive benchmarking suite covering the three main genomic directions from short to long, as shown in Figure 1: the coding regions, the noncoding regions, and the genome architecture. GeneBench aims to establish a standardized platform



070 Figure 1: The illustration of the GeneBench covers the most representative tasks in eukarvotic ge-071 nomic DNA, highlighting three critical components from short-range to long-range dependencies: the Coding Region, the Non-coding Region, and Genome Architecture. Notably, long-range inter-072 actions in DNA are very important in life processes. 073

075 for assessing the capability of Genomic Foundation Models (GFMs) to represent complex genome 076 data accurately and to promote the development of this emerging field. Specifically, GeneBench includes ten widely-used GFMs and conducts comprehensive experiments using forty-four real-world datasets counted in Appendix D. Furthermore, with the guidance of our experimental findings, we propose a simple yet efficient hybrid model design that enjoys the two characteristics of performance in quadratic attention and efficiency in linear variants. Our contribution is summarized as follows:

- Comprehensive Forty-five datasets: We first integrate short- and long-range tasks covering three main aspects of genomics: non-coding region, coding region, and genome architecture.
- Experiments covering various types of GFMs: Investigate the impact of employing attention and SSM/convolution models in genomic modeling on different scales.
- A modular and expandable code framework: Provide a unified experimental environment to achieve fair comparisons and facilitate subsequent development of new methods.
- Experimental results and new model: Independent of the number of parameters, GFMs based on SSM/convolution and attention structures have their strengths in downstream tasks with different features. Therefore, we propose a simple yet efficient hybrid model that enjoys two worlds.

BACKGROUND AND RELATED WORK 2

2.1 PROBLEM DEFINITION

097 **Pre-training** We present the formal definition of the genomic modeling problem as outlined be-098 low. During the pretraining phase, the input $\mathcal{X}^{l,L} = \left\{ \boldsymbol{x}^i \right\}_{l-L+1}^l \in \{A, G, C, T, N\}$ up to position l099 covers the past L frames of base pairs, comprising Adenine (A), thymine (T), cytosine (C), guanine 100 (G), or not known (N) nuclotides. At this stage, specific portions of nucleotides are masked for pre-101 diction purposes, either predicting the masked nucleotides or the subsequent nucleotide $\{x^i\}_{l'=L'+1}^{l}$ 102 from position l', formulated as Eq. 1. The DNA sequence is initially encoded by a tokenizer into tokenization tensors $\mathcal{Z}^{l,L,D} \in \mathbb{Z}^{L \times D}$ with a hidden dimension of D. 103 104

105

074

077

079

081

082

083

084

085

087

089

090

091 092 093

094

096

107

$$\mathcal{L}_{\text{pretrain}} = -\sum_{j=l'-L'+1}^{l'} \log P(\boldsymbol{x}^j \mid \mathcal{X}^{l,L})$$
(1)

Table 1: Classification of the supported Genomic foundation models in GeneBench. The use of
BERT in training strategy refers to training the model to predict the masked token in a sequence,
while employing GPT in training strategy involves utilizing the next token prediction. Additionally,
we have included expert models for particular downstream tasks that utilize One-hot encoding and
training from the beginning for comparison.

Category	Model	Conference/Journal	Tokenizer	Training strategy
	DNABERT	Bioinformatics 2021	K-mer	BERT
Attention-based	Nucleotide Transformer	BioRxiv 2023	K-mer	BERT
Attention-based	DNABERT2	ICLR 2024	BPE	BERT
	GENA-LM	BioRxiv 2023	BPE	BERT
	Hyena-DNA	NeurIPS 2024	Char	GPT
	Caduceus	ICML 2024	Char	BERT
SSM/Convolution-based	CNN	BMC Genomic Data 2023	One-hot	Scratch
SSIM/Convolution-based	SpliceAI	Cell 2019	One-hot	Scratch
	DeepSTARR	Nature genetics 2022	One-hot	Scratch
	Ôrca	Nature genetics 2022	One-hot	Scratch
Hybrid	GenHybrid	Ours	K-mer	BERT

Fine-tuning The model with learnable parameters Θ establishes a mapping $\mathcal{F}_{\Theta} : \mathcal{Z}^{l,L,D} \mapsto \mathcal{Y}$ by ultilizing nucleotide dependencies. In this context, \mathcal{F}_{Θ} represents a neural network trained to minimize the difference between the predicted target and the pretrained model. The optimal parameters Θ^* in one specific downstream task are determined as:

$$\Theta^* = \arg\min_{\Theta} \mathcal{L}\left(\mathcal{F}_{\Theta}\left(\mathcal{Z}^{l,L,D}\right), \mathcal{Y}\right),\tag{2}$$

where \mathcal{L} is a loss function that measures this disparity. In this research, we classify prevalent downstream tasks into two categories: classification and regression. For the classification task, the target prediction is the discrete representation of the input genomic sequence $\mathcal{Y} \in \{0,1\}^C$, where C represents the number of classes. In regression tasks, target prediction is the numerical tensor $\mathcal{Y} \in \mathbb{R}$.

134 135 2.2 GENOMIC FOUNDATION MODELS

136 Attention-based Foundation models in deep learning are trained on extensive data sets using self-137 supervised learning. The importance of these models has grown due to their capacity to leverage 138 large amounts of unlabeled data. For instance, DNABERT by Ji et al. (2021) was developed based 139 on the BERT model (Devlin et al., 2018) with a k-mer genomic tokenizer. Additionally, Benegas et al. (2023) introduced the Genomic Pre-trained Network (GPN) for predicting non-coding variant 140 effects, surpassing supervised learning methods. Researchers have explored different approaches 141 to enhance performance. For example, Dalla-Torre et al. (2023) introduced NT (Nucleotide Trans-142 former), a genomic model with billions of parameters. On the other hand, researchers focus on 143 optimizing model components and efficiency. DNABERT-2 (Zhou et al., 2023) replaces k-mer tok-144 enization with Byte Pair Encoding (BPE) (Sennrich et al., 2015). 145

SSM/Convolution-based Despite the computational cost associated with scaling up in sequence length due to the quadratic complexity of attention mechanisms, there is room for more efficient alternatives. HyenaDNA (Nguyen et al., 2024) and Caduceus utilize the hyena operator (Poli et al., 2023) and state space model (Gu & Dao, 2023; Liu et al., 2024a) with a complexity of $\mathcal{O}(L \log_2 L)$ and $\mathcal{O}(L)$, significantly lower than the $\mathcal{O}(L^2)$ of attention-based models. The mathematical form of the above basic modules is listed in Appendix B.2.

152 153

154 155

156

124

125

126

127

128

129

130

131

132

133

3 BENCHMARKS AND METHOD

3.1 OVERVIEW

GeneBench has benchmarked eleven key genomic foundational models within a cohesive framework, comprising four attention-based models, six convolution-based models, and one hybrid model
we designed. These models are outlined in Table 1, which details the associated conference/journal,
the tokenizer types used, and their respective training strategies. The initial attention-based model
employs a k-mer tokenizer, whereas the more recent attention-based model utilizes Byte Pair Encoding (BPE). HyenaDNA and Caduceus adopt a Char tokenizer due to their subquadratic space com-

162 Table 2: The dataset statistics for the tasks facilitated by GeneBench are meticulously detailed, 163 delineating the various types of analyses supported. Within the typological column, the term "Se-164 quence Binary Classification" refers to the assignment of an entire input sequence to one of two exclusive categories, thereby yielding a dichotomous classification outcome. In contrast, "Sequence 165 Multi-class Classification" encompasses a more expansive classification, where an input sequence is 166 allocated to one among a plurality of classes, surpassing the binary distinction. Furthermore, "Token 167 Multi-class Classification" signifies a classification that operates at the token level, providing a nu-168 anced categorization with multiple potential outcomes for individual elements within the sequence. Lastly, "Regression" denotes predicting a continuous range of values, as opposed to classes. 170

Benchmark	Tasks	Туре	Training size	Testing size	Length
	Mouse Enhancers	Binary classification	968	242	500
	Coding vs Intergenomic	Binary classification	75K	25K	500
	Human vs Worm	Binary classification	75K	25K	500
	Human Enhancers Cohn	Binary classification	20K	7K	500
	Human Enhancers Ensembl	Binary classification	123K	3K	500
	Human Ensembl Regulatory	Multi-class classification	231K	57K	500
	Human Nontata promoters	Binary classification	27K	9K	500
	Human OCR Ensembl	Binary classification	14K	35K	500
Short Range	Drosophila Enhancers Prediction	Regression	402K	41K	128
	Human Core Promoter Detection	Binary classification	95K	12K	70
	Human Transcription Factor Prediction	Binary classification	128K	5K	30
	Human Promoter Detection	Binary classification	95K	12K	70
	Human Splice Site Detection	Multi-class classification	36K	5K	80
	Mouse Transcription Factor Prediction	Binary classification	80K	10K	30
	Yeast Epigenetic Marks Prediction	Binary classification	230K	29K	128
	Virus Covid Variant Classification	Multi-class classification	73K	9K	256
	Central Dogma	Binary classification	16K	4K	400
	Mutation on Coding DNA	Regression	-	10K	1500
	Splice Site Prediction	Multi-class classification	146K	16K	15K
Long Range	Species Classification	Multi-class classification	1K	500	80M
Long Range	Promoters Prediction	Binary classification	41K	12K	8K
	Genomic Structure Prediction	Regression	21	3	256M
	Bulk RNA Prediction	Regression	23K	990	196K

plexity and linear space complexity. Besides, we have included expert models for particular down-stream tasks for comparison, named SpliceAI (Jaganathan et al., 2019), DeepSTARR (de Almeida et al., 2022), CNN (Grešová et al., 2023), and Orca (Zhou, 2022).

194 This design closely resembles the conventional deep-learning-based language models Devlin et al. 195 (2018); Brown et al. (2020), but with modifications to the tokenizers tailored for genomic sequences, 196 taking into account the simpler structure of genomes compared to human language. In general, 197 the tokenizer converts a sequence of nucleotides into tokens. Each token is then converted into a 198 numerical vector and represented as a matrix M through embedding. Depending on the method 199 used to segment the nucleotide sequences, tokenizers can be divided into k-mer tokenizers and 200 BPE tokenizers. A newer approach has also emerged, where each individual nucleotide is directly 201 mapped, known as the 'char tokenizer.'

- 202 203 204
- 3.2 SUPPORT TASKS

GeneBench covers local-to-global genomic tasks comprehensively. For simplicity, we have seg mented the GeneBench into short and long-range tasks based on a criterion of 1k length, consid ering that the sequence length significantly affects performance and complexity. The GeneBench
 benchmark encompasses diverse genomic targets, such as enhancers, promoters, and splice sites, at
 different scales. The tasks involve binary sequence classification, multi-class sequence classifica tion, multi-class token classification, regression tasks, and mutation prediction on Coding DNA. A
 summary is shown in Table 2.

Short-Range Tasks. Short-range tasks are characterized by input lengths of less than one thousand.
Our analysis covers thirty-eight datasets related to short-range tasks, which include various types
of tasks like sequence classification, variant classification, Epigenetic mark prediction, promoter
detection, enhancer prediction, transcription factor detection, and splice site prediction (Nguyen et al., 2024; Zhou et al., 2023; de Almeida et al., 2022; Ji et al., 2021).



Figure 2: Impact of sequence length and models on accuracy. Left: Accuracy variation across different lengths in species. Right: Accuracy variation across different lengths in promoter prediction.

Long-Range Tasks. Long-range tasks are tasks with input lengths longer than 10K. Achieving stateof-the-art performance on benchmarks involving long sequences, such as the Long Range Arena (LRA) (Tay et al., 2020), is feasible. However, longer context lengths also introduce higher cost. For instance, attention-based models exhibit quadratic complexity concerning input length (Vaswani et al., 2017). In long-range tasks, we include site annotation (Jaganathan et al., 2019), species classification (Nguyen et al., 2024), promoter prediction (Fishman et al., 2023), chromatin profiling (Zhou & Troyanskaya, 2015), and genomic structure prediction (Schwessinger et al., 2020).

238 239 240

241

216 217

218

222

224

225

230

231 232

233

234

235

236

237

3.3 GENHYBRID MODEL

Empirical Findings As shown in Figure 2, through comprehensive benchmarking of current ge-242 netic foundation models, two key observations emerge that critically inform model design choices. 243 First, models leveraging attention mechanisms, such as NT, DNABERT-2, and GENA-LM, con-244 sistently demonstrate superior performance on short-range sequence modeling tasks, particularly 245 when input lengths are within the range of 500 to 3,000 tokens. This is evident across both species 246 classification and promoter prediction tasks, where attention-based architectures excel at capturing 247 intricate local dependencies. However, as sequence lengths increase beyond this range, the computa-248 tional complexity of these models becomes a bottleneck, limiting their scalability. Second, models 249 with linear time complexity, such as HyenaDNA and Caduceus, although initially underperform-250 ing in short-range tasks, exhibit robust accuracy when handling long sequences, with HyenaDNA 251 achieving notable performance at lengths up to 30,000 tokens. Furthermore, attention-based models 252 struggle to converge, while long-sequence models perform much superior in macro-level tasks, such 253 as genome structure prediction. These findings underscore the trade-offs between modeling shortrange versus long-range dependencies and reveal a need for hybrid architectures that can harness the 254 strengths of both attention-based and SSMs. The detailed analysis refers to Sec. A.2. 255

256

Mixing SSMs and Attentions Mechanisms 257 To address the identified trade-offs between 258 short-range and long-range sequence modeling, 259 we propose a simple yet effective hybrid archi-260 tecture named Genhybrid that strategically in-261 corporates two attention layers within an SSM-262 based model. Empirically, we find that re-263 placing just two attention layers at the second 264 layer and mid-level in the Caduceus leads to 265 significant performance improvements, named 266 GenHybrid-2. In addition, further introduc-267 tion of full attention (GenHybrid-4) to long sequences instead causes negative effects (yellow 268 line vs. gray line), as shown in Figure 3. It is 269 worth noticing that the Transformer will OOM





270 at 30K sequence length. GenHybrid balanced approach allows the model to capture short-range de-271 pendencies efficiently at a critical stage without overwhelming the model's linear complexity bene-272 fits. As sequences grow longer, the remaining SSM-based layers ensure scalable and efficient pro-273 cessing. By introducing attention selectively, the hybrid model optimizes both computational effi-274 ciency and accuracy, excelling in a wide range of tasks, from short-range classification to long-range sequence prediction, and the detailed results are shown in Sec 4. This design offers a simple solution 275 to the challenge of long sequence modeling, leveraging the best attention and SSM-based approaches 276 with minimal overhead. The detailed description of GenHybrid is shown in Appendix B.2. 277

278 279

280 281

283

284

285

286 287

288 289

290

291

292

3.4 EVALUATION METRICS

We thoroughly assess the performance of the models supported for the tasks mentioned above by 282 employing a range of metrics. These metrics are tailored to the specific characteristics of each task.

- Error metrics: We use cross-entropy to assess the variance between the anticipated outcomes and the actual targets in both binary and multi-class classification scenarios. On the other hand, Mean Squared Error (MSE) is applied in regression tasks.
- Accuracy metrics: We use top-1 accuracy for classification tasks and combine the evaluation metrics of computing the Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve (AUC-ROC).
- Correlation metrics: Spearman correlation coefficient (Spearman) (Sedgwick, 2014) and the Pearson correlation coefficient (Pearson) (Kowalski, 1972) for regression tasks.
- Computational metrics: We utilize the number of parameters and the number of floating-point operations (FLOPs) to evaluate the computational complexity of the models.
- 293 294 295

296 297

298

299

300

301

302 303

305

320

3.5 CODEBASE STRUCTURE

Current open-source genomic foundation model codebases are typically constrained by a limited number of datasets and models. In contrast, GeneBench offers a versatile and expandable framework that follows the design principles outlined in HyenaDNA (Nguyen et al., 2024). We extend GeneBench to have a user-friendly interface, well-organized structure, and comprehensive content, thereby surpassing the usability of other open-source genomic foundational model codebases. For details, please refer to the Appendix A.

Table 3: Short-range tasks Top-1 accuracy (%) for pre-trained HyenaDNA, DNABERT, 304 DNABERT2, GENA-LM, Nucleotide Transformer, Caduceus, and GenHybrid.

Dataset	HyenaDNA(↑)	DNABERT(↑)	DNABERT2(↑)	GENA-LM(↑)	$NT(\uparrow)$	Caduceus(↑)	GenHybrid(↑)	Initio Model
Mouse Enhancers	0.7934	0.8099	0.8182	0.8297	0.8512	0.8163	0.8558	0.7008
Coding vs Intergenomic	0.9097	0.9364	0.9358	0.9324	0.9576	0.9372	0.9434	0.8844
Human vs Worm	0.9624	0.9584	0.9739	0.9698	0.9751	0.9557	0.9771	0.9408
Human Enhancers Cohn	0.7296	0.7023	0.7587	0.7563	0.7612	0.7376	0.7668	0.7080
Human Enhancers Ensembl	0.9033	0.8919	0.9075	0.9107	0.9244	0.8448	0.9281	0.7637
Human Ensembl Regulatory	0.8462	0.9380	0.8832	0.8810	0.9403	0.7367	0.9501	0.8616
Human Nontata Promoters	0.9445	0.8713	0.9524	0.9660	0.9295	0.8885	0.9567	0.8564
Human OCR Ensembl	0.7914	0.7496	0.7582	0.7898	0.8042	0.8176	0.8294	0.6947
Human Core Promoter Detection	0.8440	0.8491	0.8257	0.8140	0.8541	0.8505	0.8568	0.8003
Human Transcription Factor Prediction	0.6976	0.7840	0.8218	0.8240	0.8262	0.6928	0.8297	0.6672
Human Promoter Detection	0.7295	0.8393	0.8993	0.9001	0.9390	0.7322	0.9055	0.6875
Human Splice Site Detection	0.5660	0.8721	0.8813	0.9178	0.9481	0.5674	0.9272	0.5666
Mouse Transcription Factor Prediction	0.6535	0.7393	0.8269	0.8265	0.8502	0.6519	0.8513	0.6081
Yeast Epigenetic Marks Prediction	0.6301	0.7203	0.8022	0.7829	0.7845	0.6378	0.7998	0.6071
Virus Covid Variant Classification	0.3770	0.5990	0.7195	0.7033	0.6939	0.3794	0.5981	0.1974
Central Dogma	0.6720	0.6675	0.6834	0.6643	0.6803	0.6667	0.6880	0.6548

317 Table 4: Top-1 Pearson score for pre-trained HyenaDNA, DNABERT2, GENA-LM, Nucleotide 318 Transformer, Caduceus, and GenHybrid and non-pre-trained model of deepstar in short task of 319 drosophila enhancers prediction regarding the developmental (dev) and housekeeping activity (hk).

321	Dataset	HyenaDNA(↑)	DNABERT2(†)	GENA-LM(†)	NT(†)	Caduceus(↑)	DeepSTARR(↑)	GenHybrid(↑)
322	dev	0.470	0.617	0.624	0.612	0.443	0.424	0.618
	hk	0.552	0.734	0.740	0.736	0.530	0.513	0.742
323	Mean	0.511	0.678	0.682	0.674	0.486	0.468	0.688

Impact of the Nucleotide Transformer Parameter Size on Accuracy of Short Range Tasks

Figure 4: Evaluation of NT accuracy on short-range tasks with parameter sizes of 50M, 100M, and 500M. Task abbreviations: ME-Mouse Enhancers, HW-Human vs Worm, CI-Coding vs Intergenomic, HEC-Human Enhancers Cohn, HEE-Human Enhancers Ensembl, HR-Human Regulatory, HNP-Human Nontata Promoters, and HOE-Human OCR Ensembl.

4 EXPERIMENT AND ANALYSIS

We performed thorough experiments on the mentioned tasks to evaluate the effectiveness of the supported methods in GeneBench. The **bold** value indicates the best performance, and the <u>underline</u> value indicates the second-best performance. The Nucleotide Transformer is sometimes written NT. A detailed analysis of the results is provided to understand the genome foundation model better. For implementation specifics, please refer to the Appendix B.

4.1 SHORT RANGE TASKS

324

325 326

327 328

334

335

336

337

338

339 340

341 342

343

344

345

346

347 348

349

An experimental study was carried out to evaluate how different GFMs perform in handling shortrange tasks. We draw several conclusions from the results. The details in Table 3 and Table 4.

352 Except for the GenHybrid, pure convolution-based models consistently show lower perfor-353 mance compared to attention-based models, particularly on challenging tasks. In binary clas-354 sification scenarios, models like HyenaDNA show a notable decrease in accuracy, with reductions 355 of approximately 0.053 compared to attention-based counterparts. This discrepancy becomes even 356 more pronounced in multi-class classification tasks, where the accuracy gap widens to around 0.239. 357 Similarly, Caduceus demonstrates a comparable pattern, with an accuracy gap of about 0.053 in bi-358 nary classification tasks and a significantly larger margin of 0.274 in multi-class classification assignments. When comparing these models to pre-trained models, the discrepancy becomes even more 359 striking. The CNN model, our initio model without any pretraining, in particular, achieves substan-360 tially lower accuracy. For the tasks of drosophila enhancers prediction, HyenaDNA achieves a Pear-361 son score of 0.470, notably lower than attention-based models like GENA-LM and DNABERT2, 362 which score 0.624 and 0.617, respectively. Caduceus records an even lower score of 0.443 in this 363 category. In the housekeeping activity dataset, HyenaDNA and Caduceus obtain scores of 0.552 364 and 0.530, while attention-based models like GENA-LM and DNABERT2 achieve higher scores of 0.740 and 0.734. On average, GenHybrid outperforms all models with a mean Pearson score 366 of 0.688, surpassing even the top-performing attention-based models. The non-pre-trained model 367 DeepSTARR records the lowest mean score of 0.468. Most interestingly, this class of mutation pre-368 diction is not done well for current GFMs, and this is really a direction to focus on in the future. The 369 detailed results are shown in the Appendix C.

370 The size of parameters plays a crucial role in determining performance. Similar to NLP, the 371 scaling law works in short-range tasks in Figure 4. Among the models analyzed, the Nucleotide 372 Transformer, which boasts the largest parameter size, outperformed others on 11 out of 15 datasets. 373 Subsequently, GENA-LM and DNABERT2, having similar parameter sizes, excelled on the 2 and 1 374 datasets, respectively. Noteworthy is the performance disparity exhibited by DNABERT compared 375 to other attention-based models, with variances ranging from 0.0050 to 0.1401, despite sharing a similar architecture with the Nucleotide Transformer, albeit possessing the smallest parameter size. 376 To delve deeper into the impact of parameter size, we examined the performance of Nucleotide 377 Transformers with parameter sizes of 50, 100, and 500 million.

378 4.2 LONG RANGE TASKS379

380 Pure Attentions collapse on Genome Structure Prediction. The results of long-range tasks are 381 detailed in Table 5, 6, 7, and 8 and Appendix C shows the corresponding visualizations. In a nutshell, the simple GenHybrid still shows its superiority. In Genomic Structure prediction, surprisingly, 382 attention-based models fail to converge in this "longest task" and utilizing a pre-trained model as 383 a backbone does not show significant benefits, as Orca achieved the second-best Pearson and MSE 384 in H1-ESC and the best Pearson and MSE in HFF, respectively. We can find a greater resemblance 385 to image data when nucleotide sequences become longer: short vocabulary (4 bases ATCG and 256 386 RGB values) and fixed data rules (chromosome and image content). 387

As the sequence grows, the SSM/convolution-based models become more efficient. In other 388 long-range tasks, the difference between attention-based and convolution-based models has been 389 significantly reduced. For Species Classification and Promoters Prediction, DNABERT2, GENA-390 LM, and Nucleotide Transformer exhibit comparable performance, while HyenaDNA performs no-391 tably worse than the rest. However, in the task of splice site annotation, Caduceus achieves the 392 second highest performance, with no significant performance gap between them. The computa-393 tional overhead of the convolutional model is much smaller than that of the attention-based model 394 for the same sequence length, as shown in Figure 6. Extra vertical model comparison on different scales is shown in Appendix C. We can observe that when the model size is smaller, and the model 396 entirely on Attention is worse than the same configuration on 32k sequence length. 397

4.3 GENE CLUSTERING

398

399 400

401

402

403

410

In this section, we examine the fine-tuned embedding models HyenaDNA, DNABERT2, GENA-LM, Caduceus, Nucleotide Transformer, and GenHybrid. These models are utilized to encode gene

Table 5: Top-1 Pearson and MSE for pre-trained Orca, HyenaDNA, DNABERT2, Caduceus, Nucleotide Transformer, and GenHybrid in the long-range task of Genomic Structure Prediction.

Dataset	Orc	a	Hyenal	DNA	Caduc	eus	DNABI	ERT2	NT		GenHy	ybrid
	Pearson(↑)	$MSE(\downarrow)$	Pearson(↑)	$MSE(\downarrow)$	Pearson(↑)	$MSE(\downarrow)$	Pearson(↑)	$MSE(\downarrow)$	Pearson(↑)	$MSE(\downarrow)$	Pearson([†])	$MSE(\downarrow)$
H1-ESC	0.4543	0.0175	0.4357	0.0184	0.5024	0.0168	-	-	-	-	0.5189	0.0158
HFF	<u>0.4350</u>	<u>0.0911</u>	0.3103	0.1013	0.3536	0.1047	-	-	-	-	0.4531	0.0897

Table 6: Top-1 Spearman and MSE for pre-trained HyenaDNA, DNABERT2, Caduceus, and Gen-Hybrid in long-range task of Bulk RNA Expression.

Dataset	HyenaD	NA	Caduce	us	DNABE	RT2	NT		GenHyt	orid
	Spearman(↑)	$MSE(\downarrow)$								
Bulk	0.737	0.517	0.738	0.512	0.748	0.483	0.755	<u>0.463</u>	0.768	0.452





432 Table 7: Top-1 AUC-ROC Score for pre-trained HyenaDNA, DNABERT2, GENA-LM, Nucleotide 433 Transformer, Caduceus, and GenHybrid in the long-range task of splice site prediction.

35	Dataset	HyenaDNA(↑)	DNABERT2(↑)	$\text{GENA-LM}(\uparrow)$	$NT(\uparrow)$	Caduceus([†])	SpliceAI(↑)	GenHybrid(↑)	
36	Splice donar	0.574	0.635	0.629	0.557	0.642	0.574	0.653	
	Splice acceptor	0.723	0.707	0.730	0.722	0.740	0.691	0.752	
7	Mean	0.648	0.671	0.679	0.639	0.691	0.632	0.700	

Table 8: Top-1 accuracy for pre-trained HyenaDNA, DNABERT2, GENA-LM, NT, Caduceus, and GenHybrid in long-range tasks of Species Classification and Promoters Prediction.

Dataset	HyenaDNA(↑)	DNABERT2([†])	$\text{GENA-LM}(\uparrow)$	$NT(\uparrow)$	Caduceus(↑)	GenHybrid(↑)
Species Classification	0.6550	0.7420	0.7430	0.7610	0.7030	0.7720
Promoters Prediction	0.8875	0.9758	0.9795	0.9890	0.9302	0.9890

sequences from various species. To visualize the embeddings, we extract the representations from 447 the final hidden layer of each model and apply t-distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding (t-SNE) 448 propose in Van der Maaten & Hinton (2008). The visualization, presented in Figure 5, reveals clear 449 clusters that offer both visual and quantitative insights. For instance, the propose GenHybrid, which 450 demonstrates the highest accuracy among the models, shows well-separated embeddings for distinct 451 species, indicating effective differentiation. In contrast, HyenaDNA, which has the lowest accuracy, 452 displays less differentiation among the embeddings of different species, suggesting that its repre-453 sentations are less distinct. This visualization underscores the varying capabilities of distinguishing between gene sequences from different species, with NT and GenHybrid excelling in accuracy and 454 455 clarity of separation, while HyenaDNA struggles in comparison. From the results, it is clear that the k-mer based approaches have a more significant advantage. 456

457 458

459

470 471

472 473

434 435

437 438 439

440

4.4 COMPUTATIONAL COST

Being able to handle long sequences is a critical step in 460 GFM. Therefore, we compared the floating-point opera-461 tions per second (FLOPS) as a metric to evaluate the com-462 putational efficiency of each model relative to the various 463 input lengths, as shown in Figure 6. Typically, attention-464 based models demonstrate significantly higher compu-465 tational capabilities, followed by attention-free founda-466 tional models. Simple CNN models, on the other hand, 467 exhibit the lowest computational cost. Regarding compu-468 tational efficiency, GenHybrid demonstrates its outstand-469 ing efficiency among these models.



Figure 6: Flops versus input length

5 CONCLUSION AND DICUSSION

This paper presents GeneBench, a comprehensive benchmark for GFMs featuring ten representa-474 tive models covering a broad spectrum of challenging tasks from local to global view of genomics. 475 GeneBench classifies existing approaches into attention-based and convolution-based GFMs. Ex-476 tensive experiments are carried out to systematically assess the performance of the models sup-477 ported across various tasks. In short-range tasks, attention-based models excel at capturing intrin-478 sic information, while attention-free models achieve comparable yet less efficient performance. In 479 long-range tasks, the performance difference between attention-based and convolution-based mod-480 els becomes narrower. Furthermore, increasing input length can significantly enhance performance 481 on conv/SSM models. Based on our experimental results, we, therefore, propose GenHybrid, a sim-482 ple yet efficient model co-designed by SSM and attention to performing better on all genetic tasks 483 we covered. Limitations. Despite the multifaceted comparisons of GFMs, GeneBench is basically stuck on downstream task prediction, and comparisons on pre-training are lacking. For example, the 484 impact of pre-training data under different model structures, etc. In addition, we have not verified the 485 performance of GFM on the whole chromosome due to the limitation of computational resources.

486 REFERENCES

516

Gonzalo Benegas, Sanjit Singh Batra, and Yun S Song. Dna language models are powerful predictors
 of genome-wide variant effects. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 120(44):
 e2311219120, 2023.

Tom B. Brown, Benjamin Mann, Nick Ryder, Melanie Subbiah, Jared Kaplan, Prafulla Dhariwal, Arvind Neelakantan, Pranav Shyam, Girish Sastry, Amanda Askell, Sandhini Agarwal,
Ariel Herbert-Voss, Gretchen Krueger, Tom Henighan, Rewon Child, Aditya Ramesh, Daniel M.
Ziegler, Jeffrey Wu, Clemens Winter, Christopher Hesse, Mark Chen, Eric Sigler, Mateusz Litwin,
Scott Gray, Benjamin Chess, Jack Clark, Christopher Berner, Sam McCandlish, Alec Radford,
Ilya Sutskever, and Dario Amodei. Language models are few-shot learners, 2020.

Hugo Dalla-Torre, Liam Gonzalez, Javier Mendoza-Revilla, Nicolas Lopez Carranza, Adam Henryk
Grzywaczewski, Francesco Oteri, Christian Dallago, Evan Trop, Bernardo P de Almeida, Hassan
Sirelkhatim, et al. The nucleotide transformer: Building and evaluating robust foundation models
for human genomics. *bioRxiv*, pp. 2023–01, 2023.

- Tri Dao, Dan Fu, Stefano Ermon, Atri Rudra, and Christopher Ré. Flashattention: Fast and memory efficient exact attention with io-awareness. *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*,
 35:16344–16359, 2022.
- Bernardo P de Almeida, Franziska Reiter, Michaela Pagani, and Alexander Stark. Deepstarr predicts enhancer activity from dna sequence and enables the de novo design of synthetic enhancers. *Nature genetics*, 54(5):613–624, 2022.
- Jacob Devlin, Ming-Wei Chang, Kenton Lee, and Kristina Toutanova. Bert: Pre-training of deep
 bidirectional transformers for language understanding. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1810.04805*, 2018.
- 511 512 Douglas Farenick. The operator system of toeplitz matrices, 2021.
- Veniamin Fishman, Yuri Kuratov, Maxim Petrov, Aleksei Shmelev, Denis Shepelin, Nikolay
 Chekanov, Olga Kardymon, and Mikhail Burtsev. Gena-lm: A family of open-source foundational dna language models for long sequences. *bioRxiv*, pp. 2023–06, 2023.
- Katarína Grešová, Vlastimil Martinek, David Čechák, Petr Šimeček, and Panagiotis Alexiou. Genomic benchmarks: a collection of datasets for genomic sequence classification. *BMC Genomic Data*, 24(1):25, 2023.
- Albert Gu and Tri Dao. Mamba: Linear-time sequence modeling with selective state spaces, 2023.
- Kevin L Howe, Premanand Achuthan, James Allen, Jamie Allen, Jorge Alvarez-Jarreta, M Ridwan
 Amode, Irina M Armean, Andrey G Azov, Ruth Bennett, Jyothish Bhai, et al. Ensembl 2021.
 Nucleic acids research, 49(D1):D884–D891, 2021.
- Kishore Jaganathan, Sofia Kyriazopoulou Panagiotopoulou, Jeremy F McRae, Siavash Fazel Darbandi, David Knowles, Yang I Li, Jack A Kosmicki, Juan Arbelaez, Wenwu Cui, Grace B Schwartz, et al. Predicting splicing from primary sequence with deep learning. *Cell*, 176(3): 535–548, 2019.
- Yanrong Ji, Zhihan Zhou, Han Liu, and Ramana V Davuluri. Dnabert: pre-trained bidirectional
 encoder representations from transformers model for dna-language in genome. *Bioinformatics*, 37(15):2112–2120, 2021.
- Chia Hsiang Kao, Evan Trop, McKinley Polen, Yair Schiff, Bernardo P de Almeida, Aaron Gokaslan, Thomas PIERROT, and Volodymyr Kuleshov. Advancing dna language models: The genomics long-range benchmark. In *ICLR 2024 Workshop on Machine Learning for Genomics Explorations*, 2024.
- Charles J Kowalski. On the effects of non-normality on the distribution of the sample product moment correlation coefficient. *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society: Series C (Applied Statistics)*, 21(1):1–12, 1972.

540 Zicheng Liu, Siyuan Li, Li Wang, Zedong Wang, Yunfan Liu, and Stan Z. Li. Short-long con-541 volutions help hardware-efficient linear attention to focus on long sequences, 2024a. URL 542 https://arxiv.org/abs/2406.08128. 543 Zicheng Liu, Li Wang, Siyuan Li, Zedong Wang, Haitao Lin, and Stan Z. Li. Longvq: Long 544 sequence modeling with vector quantization on structured memory, 2024b. 545 Benjamin J Livesey and Joseph A Marsh. Updated benchmarking of variant effect predictors using 546 deep mutational scanning. *Molecular systems biology*, 19(8):e11474, 2023. 547 548 Frederikke Isa Marin, Felix Teufel, Marc Horlacher, Dennis Madsen, Dennis Pultz, Ole Winther, 549 and Wouter Boomsma. Bend: Benchmarking dna language models on biologically meaningful 550 tasks. In The Twelfth International Conference on Learning Representations, 2023. 551 Eric Nguyen, Michael Poli, Marjan Faizi, Armin Thomas, Michael Wornow, Callum Birch-Sykes, 552 Stefano Massaroli, Aman Patel, Clayton Rabideau, Yoshua Bengio, et al. Hyenadna: Long-range 553 genomic sequence modeling at single nucleotide resolution. Advances in neural information 554 processing systems, 36, 2024. 555 Michael Poli, Stefano Massaroli, Eric Nguyen, Daniel Y. Fu, Tri Dao, Stephen Baccus, Yoshua 556 Bengio, Stefano Ermon, and Christopher Ré. Hyena hierarchy: Towards larger convolutional language models, 2023. 558 559 Ofir Press, Noah A Smith, and Mike Lewis. Train short, test long: Attention with linear biases enables input length extrapolation. arXiv preprint arXiv:2108.12409, 2021. 561 Alec Radford, Karthik Narasimhan, Tim Salimans, Ilya Sutskever, et al. Improving language under-562 standing by generative pre-training. 2018. 563 Yair Schiff, Chia-Hsiang Kao, Aaron Gokaslan, Tri Dao, Albert Gu, and Volodymyr Kuleshov. 564 Caduceus: Bi-directional equivariant long-range dna sequence modeling. arXiv preprint 565 arXiv:2403.03234, 2024. 566 567 Ron Schwessinger, Matthew Gosden, Damien Downes, Richard C Brown, A Marieke Oudelaar, 568 Jelena Telenius, Yee Whye Teh, Gerton Lunter, and Jim R Hughes. Deepc: predicting 3d genome folding using megabase-scale transfer learning. Nature methods, 17(11):1118–1124, 2020. 569 570 Philip Sedgwick. Spearman's rank correlation coefficient. *Bmj*, 349, 2014. 571 Rico Sennrich, Barry Haddow, and Alexandra Birch. Neural machine translation of rare words with 572 subword units. arXiv preprint arXiv:1508.07909, 2015. 573 574 Yi Tay, Mostafa Dehghani, Samira Abnar, Yikang Shen, Dara Bahri, Philip Pham, Jinfeng Rao, 575 Liu Yang, Sebastian Ruder, and Donald Metzler. Long range arena: A benchmark for efficient transformers. arXiv preprint arXiv:2011.04006, 2020. 576 577 Laurens Van der Maaten and Geoffrey Hinton. Visualizing data using t-sne. Journal of machine 578 learning research, 9(11), 2008. 579 Ashish Vaswani, Noam Shazeer, Niki Parmar, Jakob Uszkoreit, Llion Jones, Aidan N Gomez, 580 Łukasz Kaiser, and Illia Polosukhin. Attention is all you need. Advances in neural informa-581 tion processing systems, 30, 2017. 582 583 Jian Zhou. Sequence-based modeling of three-dimensional genome architecture from kilobase to chromosome scale. Nature genetics, 54(5):725-734, 2022. 584 585 Jian Zhou and Olga G Troyanskaya. Predicting effects of noncoding variants with deep learning-586 based sequence model. Nature methods, 12(10):931-934, 2015. Zhihan Zhou, Yanrong Ji, Weijian Li, Pratik Dutta, Ramana Davuluri, and Han Liu. Dnabert-588 2: Efficient foundation model and benchmark for multi-species genome. arXiv preprint 589 arXiv:2306.15006, 2023. 590 Maxim Zvyagin, Alexander Brace, Kyle Hippe, Yuntian Deng, Bin Zhang, Cindy Orozco Bohorquez, Austin Clyde, Bharat Kale, Danilo Perez-Rivera, Heng Ma, et al. Genslms: Genome-592 scale language models reveal sars-cov-2 evolutionary dynamics. The International Journal of High Performance Computing Applications, 37(6):683–705, 2023.

594 A CODEBASE OVERVIEW

In this section, we present a comprehensive overview of the codebase structure of GeneBench. The
codebase is organized into three abstracted layers, namely the core layer, algorithm layer, and user
interface layer, arranged from the bottom to the top, as illustrated in Figure 7. Our codebase is under
Apache-2.0 license, like HyenaDNA Nguyen et al. (2024).

Core Layer The core layer of GeneBench includes key elements like data loaders for supported datasets, fundamental modules for supported models, and metrics for evaluation. Data loaders provide a standardized way of loading and preprocessing data. The modules contain essential unit implementations of supported models. Metrics offer a consistent method for evaluating results. This core layer sets the groundwork for upper layers to ensure adaptable usage.

Algorithm Layer The algorithm layer encompasses the implementations of the supported models, which are divided into two main categories: attention-based and convolution-based models. These implementations are developed using the PyTorch framework and closely adhere to the method-ologies described in the original research papers and their official open-source code. To enhance convenience, we directly incorporate the pretrained model from Huggingface. The algorithm layer ensures the compatibility, reliability, and reproducibility of the supported algorithms by abstracting common elements and preventing code duplication, thus facilitating easy and flexible integration of customized algorithms. Moreover, this layer provides a standardized interface that simplifies tasks such as model training, evaluation, and testing. By offering a consistent interface, the algorithm layer enhances user-friendliness and promotes seamless experimentation with the models.

User Interface Layer The user interface layer includes configurations, training, Experiments, and scripts to support the basic functions of GeneBench. It provides user-friendly tools for creating



Figure 7: The graphical overview of GeneBench.

visualizations. This layer is designed to be intuitive, allowing users to easily train, evaluate, and
 test the algorithms it supports. Through detailed parameter settings in the configurations, the user
 interface layer offers a unified interface that enables users to replicate the results presented in this
 paper without the need for extra steps.

652 653

654

A.1 DETAILED DATA DESCRIPTION

655 Mouse Enhancers Ensembl, Coding vs Intergenomic, Human vs Worm, Human Enhancers Cohn, 656 Human Enhancers Ensembl, Human Ensembl Regulatory, Human Nontata promoters, and Human OCR Ensembl were referenced from Grešová et al. (2023). In this context, "Human" and "Mouse" 657 signify the origin of the genetic sequences, while "Enhancers," "Regulatory," "OCR," and "pro-658 moter" describe the nature of the sequences. A regulatory gene is responsible for controlling the 659 expression of one or more structural genes. Enhancers are specific genomic elements that regu-660 late gene expression without requiring close proximity to the target gene. Open chromatin regions 661 (OCR) are parts of the genome that can be easily accessed by DNA regulatory elements. On the 662 other hand, a promoter is a segment within a gene where specific proteins bind to initiate the gene's 663 transcription. The term "Ensembl" in this context refers to the data resources provided by The 664 Ensembl project (Howe et al., 2021).

The tasks of *Human Promoter Prediction*, *Human Core Promoter Detection*, *Human Transcription Factor Prediction*, *Human Splice Site Detection*, *Mouse Transcription Factor Prediction*, *Yeast Epi- genetic Marks Prediction*, and *Virus Covid Variant Classification* adopted from Zhou et al. (2023)
encompass a variety of objectives. These tasks involve predicting different region types, such as
promoters, transcription factor binding sites, and splice sites across multiple animal genes, as well
as predicting variants of the Covid virus based on provided gene sequences.

We also include *Splice Site Prediction*, *Promoter Prediction*, and *Drosophila Enhancer Detection* in our assessment following the methodology described in Fishman et al. (2023). These datasets are known for their extensive sequences and varied tasks. They comprise sequences exceeding 1000 base pairs, covering a range of tasks like token classification, sequence-level classification, and regression. In particular, *Drosophila enhancers prediction* involves a two-class regression, where the goal is to predict two float values for every 249-base pair sequence, one for housekeeping and one for developmental enhancer scores.

More importantly, we introduce short-range task Central Dogma and long-range task *genomic structure prediction*. These predictions specifically examines how the transferability in multi-omics and structural variants impact genome organization at various scales. Additionally, we have included *Species Classification* from Nguyen et al. (2024), which has heightened the complexity of classification by encompassing a larger number of species. We incorporated the task of *Bulk RNA expression* to evaluate the model's performance within a lengthy context (Kao et al., 2024). Bulk RNA sequencing is a biological assay that gauges the average gene expression from a group of cells.

686 687

A.2 EFFECT OF SEQUENCE LENGTH

Recall the results in Figure 2. We conducted an analysis to evaluate the impact of sequence length 688 on model performance in long-range genomic tasks, that is also the motivation why we propose 689 GenHybrid. Specifically, we used input sequences of varying lengths—512, 1000, 2000, and 3000 690 base pairs (bp)-to assess the performance of four models: Hyena-DNA, Nucleotide Transformer, 691 DNABERT-2, and GENA-LM in both species and promoter prediction tasks. Additionally, to ex-692 plore the potential of convolution-based models, we tested a significantly longer input sequence of 693 30,000 bp with Hyena-DNA, focusing exclusively on the species prediction task. From the data, it is 694 evident that increasing the sequence length consistently enhances performance across all the mod-695 els tested. This trend is particularly pronounced with Hyena-DNA, which, despite trailing behind 696 attention-based models at shorter context lengths, exhibits superior performance with longer con-697 texts. This improvement underscores the advantages of using extended context lengths in genomic 698 sequence analysis. However, this benefit is not without its challenges. In tasks like promoter predic-699 tion, where input length is inherently capped at 3000 bp, Hyena-DNA's reliance on longer sequences becomes a limiting factor. This limitation presents a significant area for future research, aiming to 700 optimize model performance within these constraints and potentially develop novel approaches to 701 leverage longer sequences more effectively within the confines of specific genomic datasets.

702 B IMPLEMENTATION DETAILS

The table presented in Table 9 outlines the hyperparameters utilized in the various models supported across different datasets. Each model's hyperparameters consist of layers, a width of the hidden dimension, parameter size, learning rate, embed dropout, residual dropout, optimizer, optimizer momentum, training epochs, batch size, LR scheduler, and reverse complement augmentation. It is important to note that sequence length is task-dependent and not directly related to the model.

710 B.1 MODEL DESCRIPTION

709

711 **DNABERT** Ji et al. (2021) represents the pioneering deep learning approach that incorporates 712 the concept of Bidirectional Encoder Representations from Transformers (BERT) model (Devlin 713 et al., 2018) within the context of genomic DNA. Similar to BERT, DNABERT follows a pre-714 training—fine-tuning framework. In the pretraining phase, a portion of k contiguous tokens, cov-715 ering 15% of the sequence, is randomly masked, prompting DNABERT to forecast the masked 716 sequences based on the remaining context. The training dataset is derived from the human genome 717 using a direct non-overlapping splitting and random sampling approach, with sequence lengths rang-718 ing from 5 to 510.

Nucleotide Transformer utilizes an encoder-only transformer architecture. The models are trained using the BERT methodology. The Nucleotide Transformer employs three distinct datasets for pre-training the model: The Human reference genome dataset, The 1000G dataset, and The Multispecies dataset (Dalla-Torre et al., 2023).

DNABERT-2 utilizes the Transformer Encoder architecture, providing flexibility in input length
 and enhanced computational and memory efficiency. It replaces learned positional embeddings with
 Attention with Linear Biases (ALiBi) (Press et al., 2021) and incorporates FlashAttention (Dao et al.,
 2022) and Low Precision Layer Normalization. The model is pretrained on The Human Genome
 dataset and The Multi-Species Genome dataset (Zhou et al., 2023).

GENA-LM model utilizes the Transformer Encoder architecture and has been trained on the Human T2T v2 genome assembly dataset.

Hyena-DNA utilizes a decoder-only design, composed of a series of blocks containing a Hyena
 operator. It is pretrained using the human reference genome.

Caduceus is a group of bidirectional long-range DNA sequence models that are the pioneers in supporting RC equivariant language modeling. Caduces employ pre-training and fine-tuning techniques with MambaDNA as their foundation.

GenHybrid is a hybrid model that strategically incorporates two attention layers within an SSM based model. In our case, we employed Caduceus as the baseline and replaced the second layer and the middle layer with full attention. The training procedure is the same as Caduceus.

The convolution-based deep learning models such as CNN, SpliceAI, DeepSTARR, and Orca are
 specifically developed to predict distinct genomic features. These models are trained from scratch
 using specialized datasets instead of being pretrained on general genomic sequences.

743 744 B.2 MODULE DESCRIPTION

750

Attention is the scaled dot product operation used to represent the relationships within the input or output sequence. This attention mechanism plays a crucial role in the Transformer model, which has been a significant advancement in deep learning (Devlin et al., 2018; Radford et al., 2018). The formulation of attention is as follows:

Attention
$$(Q, K, V) = \operatorname{softmax}\left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right)V$$
 (3)

Where Q, K, and V are mapped from the input with linear layer.

Hyena a class of data-controlled operators that involve a combination of multiplicative gating interactions and long convolutions, introduced by Poli et al. (2023). The formulation of attention is as
follows:

$$y = \mathbf{H}(u)v = \mathbf{D}_x^N \mathbf{S}_h^N \cdots \mathbf{D}_x^2 \mathbf{S}_h^2 \mathbf{D}_x^1 \mathbf{S}_h^1 v$$
(4)

Configuration	HyenaDNA	DNABERT	DNABERT2	GENA-LM	NT	Caduceus	GenHybrid
Layers	8	12	12	12	29	16	10+2
Width	256	768	768	768	768	1024	256
Parameters	6.6 M	86.1M	117M	113M	498M	7.9M	79.5M
Optimizer			Adam	W			
Optimizer momentum			$\beta_1, \beta_2 = 0.9$), 0.999			
Training epoch			100				
Batch size			128-2	56			
Learning rate	1e-4 to 6e-4	3e-5	3e-5	5e-5	1e-5	1e-4 to 1e-3	3e-5 to 1e-
LR scheduler			Cosine decay				
Weight decay (model)	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Weight decay (Hyena layers)	0	\	\	\	\	\	\
Embed dropout	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.0	0.0	0.0
Resid dropout	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
Reverse complement aug.				False			
Sequence lengths	30 to 30k	30 to 512	30 to 3k	30 to 3k	30 to 3k	30 to 30k	30 to 30k

Table 9: Hyperparameter ranges used to fine-tune all models for all datasets.

Where $D_x^n = \text{diag}(x^n) \in \mathbb{R}^{L \times L}$ and S_x^n are Toeplitz matrix corresponding to h^n (Farenick, 2021).

State Space Model is an class of sequence models have proven to be effective at handling long-range models (Gu & Dao, 2023). The formulation of attention is as follows:

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{h}}(t) = \boldsymbol{A}\boldsymbol{h}(t) + \boldsymbol{B}\boldsymbol{x}(t), \quad \boldsymbol{y}(t) = \boldsymbol{C}\boldsymbol{h}(t) + \boldsymbol{D}\boldsymbol{x}(t)$$
(5)

Where $A \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times N}$, $B \in \mathbb{R}^{N \times 1}$, $C \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times N}$, and $D \in \mathbb{R}$ are the parameters of the system.

C ADDITIONAL RESULT

Genomic Structure Prediction In addition to the quantitative results presented in the main text, we also offer a visual representation for qualitative evaluation, as depicted in Figure 8 and Figure 9. Across all models examined, we illustrate both the accurate and inaccurate prediction outcomes for comparison. It is noted that while HyenaDNA and DNABERT2 exhibit diverse predictions, Orca's predictions are relatively consistent. GenHybrid predicts the most relevant results with the ground truth. Moreover, we also visualized the Drosophila Enhancer Detection task in Figure 10. The visualization results of Bulk RNA Expression tasks are in Figure 11.

788 Model Vertical Comparison we set different hidden sizes of the models to draw the compute-789 performance table below separately. Specifically, we do pre-training based on MLM on the human 790 genome hg-38 with sequence lengths of 2k and 32k, respectively. We take the eval NTK loss of the 791 10000th step to do the vertical evaluation of the model architecture. The range of hidden state size 792 in 128, 256, 512 and the number of layers is fixed as 6. We can observe that when the hidden size 793 is smaller and the model based entirely on Attention is instead not as good as the 2k model with the 794 same configuration on 32k sequence length, which also verifies that the findings of our paper are 795 mutually verifiable.

Table 10: The PPL results of MLM pre-training on hg-38 with sequence lengths of 2k.

	NT	DNABERT-2	HyenaDNA	Caduceus	GenHybrid
128	1.141	1.138	1.147	1.118	1.114
256	1.102	1.088	1.121	1.067	1.062
512	1.058	0.989	1.011	0.993	0.990

Table 11: The PPL results of MLM pre-training on hg-38 with sequence lengths of 32k.

	NT	DNABERT-2	HyenaDNA	Caduceus	GenHybrid
128	1.221	1.144	1.112	1.101	1.092
256	1.102	1.078	1.085	1.042	1.024
512	0.992	0.984	0.989	0.982	0.980

810 Mutation Prediction on Coding DNA Zero-shot mutation prediction on coding DNA sequence 811 (protein): We collected deep mutational scanning (DMS) datasets (Livesey & Marsh, 2023), where 812 numerous mutations are introduced into a coding region, and each variant is assigned an experimen-813 tally determined fitness score. The specific data flow is as follows: First, define a list of mutation 814 information, where each entry contains the mutation type and its related attributes. Next, convert the data into input strings that include a mask for easier processing by the model. Then, load the 815 pre-trained genomic model and set it to evaluation mode. Following this, extract the scores at the 816 masked positions using the logits output by the model, and return the highest-scoring predicted 817 words to identify the mutation sites. Additionally, calculate the overall likelihood of the input text 818 by applying softmax to the logits and summing the log likelihoods. Finally, for each mutation text, 819 invoke the prediction and likelihood calculation functions to output the corresponding prediction 820 results and likelihood scores. The results are listed in Table 13. 821

822 823

824

835

836 837

838

839

840

841

842

843

844

845

846

847

848

849

850

851

D FORTY-FOUR DATASETS

825 **Comprehensive Datasets** We count sub-datasets as individual datasets; for instance, Human Transcription Factor Prediction includes five sub-datasets (see Table 10). The total size is Human Core 826 Promoter Detection (3) + Human Transcription Factor Prediction (5) + Human Promoter Detection 827 (3) + Human Splice Site Detection (1) + Mouse Transcription Factor Prediction(5)+ Yeast Epigenetic 828 Marks Prediction (10) + Virus Covid Variant Classification (1) + Mouse Enhancers (1) + Coding vs 829 Intergenomic (1) + Human vs Worm (1) + Human Enhancers Cohn (1) + Human Enhancers Ensembl 830 (1) + Human Ensembl Regulatory (1) + Human Nontata promoters (1) + Human OCR Ensembl (1) 831 + Drosophila Enhancers Prediction (1) + Splice Site Prediction (1) + Species Classification (1) + 832 Promoters Prediction (1) + Genomic Structure Prediction(2) + Bulk RNA Prediction (1) + Central 833 Dogma (1) + Mutation Prediction on Coding DNA (1) 834

Details of Proposed Datasets

- Genome Structure Prediction: We utilized micro-C datasets from H1-ESCs and HFF cells, obtained from the 4D Nucleome portal, along with genomic sequences from GRCh38/hg38. Using the Selene library, we implemented on-the-fly training data generation, sampling uniformly from training chromosomes. For each micro-C dataset, we trained a separate model. Training samples consisted of input sequences paired with their corresponding genome interaction matrices, which were derived from normalized contact matrices. To prepare the genome interaction matrices, we applied two key procedures to the micro-C datasets using cooler and cool tools packages: iterative correction matrix balancing and adaptive coarse-graining. The latter smooths sparse areas of the contact map using variable window sizes to eliminate zeros. We maintained spatial resolution by avoiding additional smoothing. The final processed matrix was normalized using a background matrix derived from distance encoding, with adjustments for numerical stability. We computed distance-based expectations per chromosome using cool tools, aggregated them across chromosomes, and applied lowess smoothing for distances beyond 1.6 Mb. For model evaluation, we split the chromosomes into three sets: training (all except chr8, 9, and 10), validation (chr8), and testing (chr9, 10).
- 852 Coding DNA Mutation Prediction: We predict gene mutation loci through a masked learn-853 ing approach. The specific data flow is as follows: First, define a list of mutation informa-854 tion, where each entry contains the mutation type and its related attributes. Next, convert the data into input strings that include a mask for easier processing by the model. Then, 855 load the pre-trained genomic model and set it to evaluation mode. Following this, extract 856 the scores at the masked positions using the logits output by the model, and return the 857 highest-scoring predicted words to identify the mutation sites. Additionally, calculate the 858 overall likelihood of the input text by applying softmax to the logits and summing the log-859 likelihoods. Finally, for each mutation text, invoke the prediction and likelihood calculation functions to output the corresponding prediction results and likelihood scores. 861
- 862
- **Comparison with Other benchmarks** As shown in Table 12, GeneBench stands out compared to other genomic benchmarks, such as BEND, Genomic Benchmarks, and GUE, by providing a much

	GeneBench(ours)	BEND (Marin et al., 2023)	Genomic Benchmarks (Grešová et al., 2023)	GUE (Zhou et al., 2023)
Number of Datasets	45	6	9	28
Long range tasks	yes	yes	no	no
Regression tasks	yes	no	no	no
New method proposed	yes	no	no	no

Table 13: The results of Spearman correlation on mutation prediction on Coding DNA sequence.

	NT	DNABERT-2	HyenaDNA	Caduceus	GenHybrid
Spearman correlation	0.14	0.12	0.15	0.18	0.18

more comprehensive evaluation framework. It includes 45 datasets, which is significantly more than the others, and supports both long-range and regression tasks, making it suitable for a wider variety of genomic modeling challenges. Additionally, GeneBench is the only benchmark that proposes a new method, demonstrating its contribution not only in benchmarking but also in advancing the field of genomic modeling. These features make GeneBench a more versatile and robust choice for evaluating genomic foundation models.

Discussion We found that current DNA language models primarily fall into two categories: CNN based and attention-based pre-trained models. While the incorporation of attention mechanisms can
 help us better understand deoxyribonucleotide sequences, convolutional models outperform atten tion models in certain specific tasks. Therefore, it is particularly important to combine attention and
 convolutional modules, as this not only aids in a more comprehensive understanding of both long
 and short genomic tasks but also effectively alleviates the high computational costs associated with
 the pre-training phase. To this end, we propose GenHybrid, a simple yet efficient model co-designed
 with SSM and attention, which achieves state-of-the-art performance across multiple tasks.

In short-range tasks, attention-based models excel at capturing intrinsic information, while attention-free models perform comparably but less efficiently. In long-range tasks, the performance difference between attention-based and convolutional models becomes narrower. Moreover, increasing input length can significantly enhance performance, especially in extending gene context. Based on our experimental results, we have developed GenHybrid, a model that integrates SSM and attention to perform better on all genetic tasks we covered.

It is noteworthy that we introduced central rules and DNA structural prediction data to evaluate the
 performance of existing models. The inclusion of these two evaluation datasets allows us to assess
 genomic models not only on the basis of single genomic sequence information but also incorporating
 DNA structural information and DNA-protein interactions. Furthermore, we found that existing
 models are not effective in handling genomic mutation data, indicating that future research should
 focus on further optimizing model design for this task.

Limitations and Outlook Considering that current genomic pre-training models are primarily de-veloped using human data, we mainly evaluated the performance of genomic pre-training models on 45 human downstream tasks in GenBench. However, the genetic sequence differences among biologically distinct species are significant, and designing a universal pre-training model would better serve the diverse downstream tasks. Additionally, we are unclear about how these models learn biological sequence information during the pre-training phase; assessing the interpretability of the models will help us better design and understand them, thereby supporting "precision medicine." To further model the structural information of genomes, we should also consider fine-grained de-tails such as DNA bond angles, bond energies, and bond lengths, as well as the physicochemical properties of deoxyribonucleotides and their impact on the models.



Figure 9: The results visualization of Genomic structure predictions from Orca, HyenaDNA, Caduceus, and GenHybrid (y-axis) in Hff with the batch size as 5 (x-axis).

970

971



the actual data on the right side. The max length is fixed as 2048 (x-axis).