

# BEND: BENCHMARKING DNA LANGUAGE MODELS ON BIOLOGICALLY MEANINGFUL TASKS

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## ABSTRACT

The genome sequence contains the blueprint for governing cellular processes. While the availability of genomes has vastly increased over the last decades, experimental annotation of the various functional, non-coding and regulatory elements encoded in the DNA sequence remains both expensive and challenging. This has sparked interest in unsupervised language modeling of genomic DNA, a paradigm that has seen great success for protein sequence data. Although various DNA language models have been proposed, evaluation tasks often differ between individual works, and might not fully recapitulate the fundamental challenges of genome annotation, including the length, scale and sparsity of the data. In this study, we introduce **BEND**, a **Benchmark for DNA** language models, featuring a collection of realistic and biologically meaningful downstream tasks defined on the human genome. We find that embeddings from current DNA LMs can approach performance of expert methods on some tasks, but only capture limited information about long-range features. BEND is available at <https://anonymous.4open.science/r/BEND-8C42/README.md>.

## 1 INTRODUCTION

Within the last two decades, the cost of sequencing whole genomes has significantly decreased, having led to an extraordinary wealth in the availability of genomic DNA sequences. This has improved our understanding of genetic variation among human genomes and introduced genomes of hitherto understudied species. However, the generation of experimental data to annotate and understand these genomic sequences has not kept pace.

At the same time, Natural Language Processing (NLP) has demonstrated the power of large-scale models to capture signals in sequences by masking and reconstructing them in a self-supervised manner. The success of masked language modeling (MLM) has extended to the biological domain (Rao et al. (2019); Bepler & Berger (2021); Madani et al. (2023); Rives et al. (2019)), with protein language models (pLMs) now being widely used for prediction tasks on protein sequences. The availability of unlabeled genomic sequences and limited labeled data appear to make language modeling a natural fit for DNA. DNA language models (LMs) have indeed started to emerge, but while the paradigms of NLP have been easy to transfer to proteins, the same may not be true for modeling genomes, as they present unique challenges: signals can have an extremely long length range, high-signal regions are sparse, and even in those regions the density of signal is lower compared to proteins.

In this paper, we present BEND, a **Benchmark for DNA Language Models**, a collection of realistic and biologically meaningful downstream tasks. BEND aims to provide a standardized set of tasks that measure the ability of LMs to capture the intricacies of genomic data, and to help advance this nascent field. In summary, BEND contributes:

- **Six curated tasks and datasets**, probing understanding of different DNA functional elements over a variety of length scales.
- **Experiments covering DNA LMs from six different sources**. To our knowledge, this represents first evaluation of all publicly available self-supervised DNA LMs suitable for the human genome together with appropriate baseline methods.
- **An adaptable benchmarking framework** for preparing embeddings and training lightweight supervised models.

- **Result: DNA LMs approach expert method performance on some tasks.** However, no LM consistently outperforms all others, and reasoning over very long contexts, as e.g. required for finding enhancers, is still challenging.
- **Result: DNA LMs can learn distinct features in masked language modeling.** Some LMs' embeddings primarily capture information about gene structure, while others focus on noncoding regions.

## 2 BACKGROUND

### 2.1 DNA ORGANIZATION AND TERMINOLOGY

In order to facilitate understanding how different prediction tasks relate to various aspects of the genome, we briefly discuss the fundamental structure and function of eukaryotic genomic DNA (Figure 1). DNA is a linear polymer of four nucleotide bases, which are represented by the four letters A, C, G and T. It consists of two complementary *strands* that form a *double helix* by *base pairing* the bases A, T, and C, G respectively.

Genomic DNA is physically organized in a hierarchical manner. The DNA polymer is coiled around *histone* proteins, which reduces its physical length and plays a role in regulation. A complex of 8 histone proteins together with coiled DNA is called a *nucleosome*. Nucleosomes further condense to form *chromatin* fibers, which occur in compact (closed) or loose (open) form. This controls the accessibility of the involved DNA sequence to the transcriptional machinery, a process tightly regulated by chemical modifications of the histones (Bannister & Kouzarides, 2011). Chromatin can form loops, which allows regions distant in the sequence to be close in physical space. DNA appears in independent modules called *chromosomes*, which are typically millions of base pairs (bp) in length.

The genome contains *genes*, segments that are transcribed to RNA molecules and potentially translated to proteins. Protein-coding genes are structured as *introns* and *exons*. For expression, a gene is first transcribed to a pre-mRNA molecule, and introns are removed via *splicing*. This combines the exons to one contiguous sequence that encodes the protein. Flanking nucleotides in the RNA that do not code for the protein are called untranslated regions (UTRs) and can have regulatory function. In addition, genes are associated with regulatory regions such as *promoters*, *enhancers*, *silencers* and *insulators* that modulate their expression. Some elements, such as promoters, may lie in close proximity to the start of the gene, the *transcription start site* (TSS). Others can appear multiple thousands bp away from the gene, but mediate their effect by physical proximity. Gene-adjacent regulatory elements are referred to as *cis*, and distant ones as *trans*.

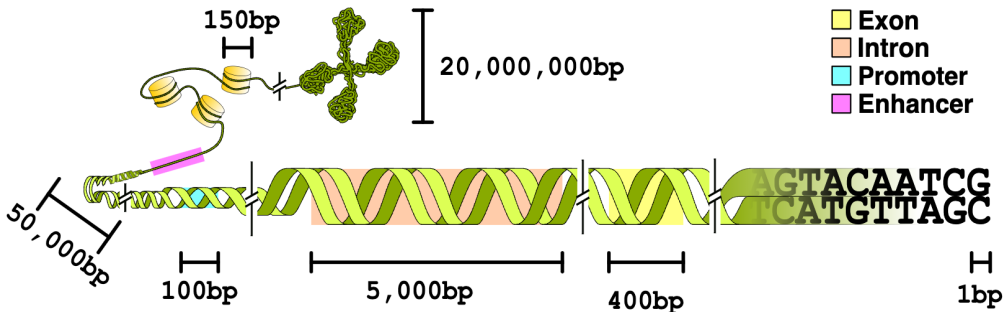


Figure 1: The organization of eukaryotic genomic DNA. The numbers are indicative examples for the human genome. Genes are structured as introns and exons, and have a promoter regulatory element before their transcription start site. Enhancer regulatory elements can be present multiple thousands bases away from the gene. DNA is wrapped around histone proteins (yellow cylinders) and densely packed as a chromosome.

### 2.2 LANGUAGE MODELING FOR BIOMOLECULAR SEQUENCES: FROM PROTEINS TO DNA

Over the last years, language modeling has achieved breakthroughs in representation learning for protein property and structure prediction, with transformer-based pLMs emerging as powerful foun-

dation models, capable of learning long-range interactions fully unsupervised (Rives et al., 2019; Elnaggar et al., 2022; Lin et al., 2023). The development of pLMs benefitted from the availability of standardized, representative benchmarks, such as TAPE (Rao et al., 2019) and PEER (Xu et al., 2022), as well as long-running protein machine learning tasks with an emphasis on fair benchmarking to measure progress (Kryshtafovych et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2019).

While LMs have been extremely successful for modeling proteins, key differences between the two types of macromolecules hinder their widespread adoption for DNA. A typical protein consists of 400-500 amino acids, which are usually represented as tokens from an alphabet of size 20. The analogy of amino acid tokens with word tokens in NLP, as well as the fact that size of inputs to pLMs and NLP models are on the same order of magnitude, made methods developed for NLP directly transferable to protein data, with little to no methodological adaption required (Rao et al., 2020; Elnaggar et al., 2022). The alphabet of DNA is significantly smaller (4 tokens) than that of proteins, while at the same time sequences, such as those of genes, are considerably longer and have no naturally defined border, as e.g. the position of the most distant relevant regulatory element is typically unknown. In contrast, protein sequences are naturally self-contained and, being the final gene product, have a significantly higher information density. Together, sparsity and long sequences pose unique challenges to DNA LMs.

## 2.3 RELATED WORKS

### 2.3.1 DNA LANGUAGE MODELS

The first available DNA LM was DNABERT (Ji et al., 2021), a 12-layer BERT (Devlin et al., 2018) model trained on sequences of length 512 from the human genome. Sequences were tokenized as k-mers using a sliding window. DNABERT was evaluated by fine-tuning on tasks comprising promoter, transcription factor (TF) binding site and splice site (SS) prediction.

A growing number of DNA LMs has been proposed since the release of DNABERT. These include the Genomic Pretrained Network (GPN) (Benegas et al., 2023), FloraBERT (Levy et al., 2022), the Nucleotide Transformer (NT) (Dalla-Torre et al., 2023), Species-aware LM (Gankin et al., 2023), GENA-LM (Fishman et al., 2023), DNABERT-2 (Zhou et al., 2023) and HyenaDNA (Poli et al., 2023). With the exception of HyenaDNA, models were trained using the MLM objective, but differ in their model architectures, tokenization strategies and training data.

GPN uses dilated convolution layers rather than a transformer model. It showed strong performance for zero-shot prediction of variant effects in the *A. thaliana* genome it was trained on. Qualitative results showed that GPN captures information about gene structure and motifs of binding sites.

Nucleotide Transformer introduced the first large-scale transformer-based DNA LMs. All NT models share the same architecture, but differ in their number of training genomes and model parameters. Models were trained on either the human reference genome, 3,202 different genetically diverse human genomes or a selection of 850 genomes from a range of species. To increase the receptive field of the model, sequences were tokenized as 6-mers, allowing for processing sequences of up to 5,994 bp in length. The NT models were evaluated on tasks comprising promoter, SS, histone modification and enhancer prediction with a context length of up to 600 bp.

GENA-LM (Fishman et al., 2023) proposed multiple medium-size LMs trained on human and multi-species genomes based on BERT and the BigBird (Zaheer et al., 2020) architecture for long sequences. Byte-Pair Encoding (BPE) was used for tokenization to further increase the receptive field, enabling an input length of about 36,000 bp. Models were evaluated on supervised tasks comprising promoter, SS, enhancer, chromatin profile and polyadenylation site prediction. While covering the same biological phenomena, tasks were defined differently than in NT. Similarly, DNABERT-2 (Zhou et al., 2023) replaced DNABERT’s k-mer tokenizer with BPE and pre-trained on multi-species genomes.

Predating NT and GENA-LM, FloraBERT (Levy et al., 2022) proposed pre-training on 93 different plant genomes to enable transfer learning for the gene expression prediction task. However, FloraBERT was trained exclusively on promoter-containing sequences. As this requires features to already be annotated in the genome, it can be considered a departure from the paradigm of fully self-supervised learning. Similarly, Gankin et al. (2023) pre-trained on 3’ untranslated regions of genes from 1,500 fungal genomes. Species information was made explicit by providing a species label with each sequence to the model.

HyenaDNA (Nguyen et al., 2023) introduced a collection of autoregressive LMs, trained using the next token prediction objective at single-nucleotide resolution on the human genome. The Hyena LM architecture (Poli et al., 2023) enabled scaling to input lengths of up to 1 million nucleotides. HyenaDNA models were evaluated by fine-tuning on NT’s supervised tasks and the Genomic Benchmarks (Grešová et al., 2023) collection, outperforming NT on the majority of tasks.

A number of DNA LMs were proposed without making trained models available. These comprise the original BigBird transformer (Zaheer et al., 2020), GeneBERT, which includes the prediction of ATAC-seq signals in the pre-training stage, MoDNA (An et al., 2022), with a motif prediction task as an additional objective, the BERT-based LOGO (Yang et al., 2021), and Revolution (Cheng et al., 2023), which adopts convolutions with circular padding.

### 2.3.2 SUPERVISED LEARNING ON DNA

Developing models on genomic DNA sequences for the prediction of properties and understanding of transcriptional regulation has long been a central task of computational genomics research. The availability of large-scale functional genomics data and advancements in deep learning techniques have brought progress in predicting various genomic features directly from DNA sequences. DeepBind (Alipanahi et al., 2015) was one of the first methods to leverage a shallow CNN architecture for predicting TF and RNA-binding protein binding sites from DNA and RNA sequence, respectively. DeepCpG (Angermueller et al., 2017) predicts DNA methylation via a CNN/GRU architecture. Basenji (Kelley et al., 2016) and ChromTransfer (Salvatore et al., 2023) model chromatin state in a cell type specific manner by predicting the presence or absence of DNase-I peaks. Using chromatin state as an auxiliary input, DeepChrome (Singh et al., 2016) predicts gene expression via multi-modal learning on DNA sequence and histone mark information.

Recently, methods for predicting gene expression have leveraged information across thousands of functional genomic tracks by training in a large-scale, multi-task fashion. Basenji (Kelley et al., 2018) and Enformer (Avsec et al., 2021) demonstrated state-of-the-art performance for gene expression prediction from DNA sequence alone, by integrating genomic information across up to 200 kilobases and multi-task training across several genome-wide functional tasks, including DNase-I activity and CAGE signal prediction. Similarly, DeepSEA (Zhou & Troyanskaya, 2015) and Sei (Chen et al., 2022) models cis-regulatory TF binding, chromatin accessibility and histone modification profiles across a large range of cell types.

All mentioned current models for the prediction of functional genomics tracks are trained in a supervised manner and do not leverage pre-trained DNA LMs.

### 2.3.3 BENCHMARK COLLECTIONS ON DNA

Genomic Benchmarks (Grešová et al., 2023) features a collection of balanced classification tasks on DNA sequences with a median length ranging from 200 to 2,381 bp. The benchmark covers the classification of DNA elements and the prediction of a sequence’s origin. For each task, only performance of a baseline supervised neural network model was reported.

DNABERT-2 (Zhou et al., 2023) introduced Genome Understanding Evaluation (GUE), a collection of classification tasks ranging from 70 to 1,000 bp. On the human genome, it includes classification of promoter, SS and TF binding sequences. It covers other species with a TF binding task on mouse, a histone modification task on yeast and a Covid variant classification task on viruses. DNABERT, DNABERT-2 and NT were evaluated. No non-LM baselines are included in GUE.

### 2.3.4 MOTIVATION OF BEND

While existing DNA LMs have reported good performance on the tasks on which they were evaluated, evaluation strategies to date have shown limited consistency across individual works, with GUE constituting the most recent attempt at benchmarking on equal terms. Beyond comparability, it is important to ensure that benchmark tasks reflect the complexity and characteristics of real-world genome analysis. In practice, genomes are vast, and functional regions are sparsely distributed throughout the genome. While there are tasks on DNA that are inherently local, such as classifying functional regions (e.g. classifying TF binding sites), it needs to be recognized that such tasks do not allow us to evaluate a model’s understanding of the genome over longer ranges.

Therefore, focusing solely on tasks on short sequences, such as distinguishing promoter from non-promoter sequences, falls short of evaluating the extent to which a model’s representations capture complex features of genomic organization, preventing us from measuring benefits of modeling the

Table 1: Overview of the tasks included in the benchmark. Nucleotide-wise tasks require the prediction of a sequence of labels with the same length as the input. In sequence-wise tasks the whole input sequence is to be classified. In binned tasks, multiple nucleotides share a label.

| Task                                      | Type                          | # Samples | Length range         | Evaluation<br>(#train/val/test) | Metric | Source  |
|---|-------------------------------|-----------|----------------------|---------------------------------|--------|---|
| Gene finding                              | Nucleotide-wise<br>Multiclass | 5,976     | 1,433 -<br>14,000 bp | 4780/598/598                    | MCC    | GENCODE<br>(Frankish et al., 2021)  |
| Enhancer annotation                       | Binned (128bp)<br>Binary      | 285       | 100,096 bp           | 10-fold CV                      | AUPRC  | Fulco et al., 2019<br>Gasperini et al., 2019<br>Enformer (Avsec et al., 2021) |
| Histone modification                      | Sequence-wise<br>Multilabel   | 612,081   | 512 bp               | 420,713/<br>70,801/120,567      | AUROC  | ENCODE (ENCODE Project Consortium, 2012)                                      |
| CpG methylation                           | Sequence-wise<br>Multilabel   | 959,039   | 512 bp               | 743,095/<br>109,717/106,227     | AUROC  | ENCODE (ENCODE Project Consortium, 2012)                                      |
| Noncoding variant<br>effects (expression) | Sequence-wise<br>Binary       | 106,221   | 512 bp               | zero-shot                       | AUROC  | DeepSEA<br>(Zhou & Troyanskaya, 2015)   |
| Noncoding variant<br>effects (disease)    | Sequence-wise<br>Binary       | 295,495   | 512 bp               | zero-shot                       | AUROC  | ClinVar<br>(Landrum et al., 2020)   |

genome with larger context windows. Moreover, there are cases in which a short-sequence task represents a simplification compared to real-world applications, as exemplified by SS-containing sequences. In genome annotation, classifying SSs is a subproblem of the gene finding task and would typically not be performed on its own.

To provide a more comprehensive assessment, BEND proposes genomic tasks that rely less on prior knowledge of feature positions and require reasoning over potentially long contexts. The tasks cover a range of length scales, selected to be both biologically relevant and to cover a variety of DNA properties. The tasks explore representations at different resolutions, requiring modelling of DNA at single bp resolution as well as over longer stretches (Table 1). We establish our benchmark on the human genome, as it offers ample experimental data for the derivation of tasks, has a complex organization, and was the focus of most published DNA LMs.

### 3 TASKS AND DATASETS

We introduce the collection of tasks included in BEND. For each task, we additionally provide a *Datasheet* (Gebru et al., 2018) in section A.1. All tasks are provided in `bed` format, listing the genome coordinates of samples (A.2). This makes it convenient to include more flanking context without reprocessing the data, should future works find it useful to take more bp into account.

#### 3.1 GENE FINDING

**Definition** Gene finding is a multiclass problem where each nucleotide is classified as being either in an exon ( $E_{F/R}$ ), intron ( $I_{F/R}$ ), a donor ( $D_{F/R}$ ) or acceptor ( $A_{F/R}$ ) splice site or a noncoding region ( $NC$ ). The  $F/R$  subscript denotes whether the gene is located on the forward or reverse strand.

**Biological relevance** Annotating genes and identifying coding sequences is a key step in genome annotation and protein discovery. It requires a model to use local context to identify correct reading frames and codon structure, while using longer range signals to propagate the location of SS to distant bp between SS, and correctly annotate them as lying in introns or exons. Introns can vary in length from a few hundred to several thousand bp, requiring an LM to understand long-range dependencies.

**Data** GENCODE (Frankish et al., 2021) gene annotations were processed to construct sequences of nucleotide labels  $y \in \{E_F, D_F, I_F, A_F, E_R, D_R, I_R, A_R, NC\}$  for each gene. Detailed processing is laid out in A.1.1. Samples were partitioned at 80% identity following AUGUSTUS’ recommendations (Stanke & Waack, 2003).

**Metric** We compute the multi-class Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) (Gorodkin, 2004) over all bp. The MCC is used as it is robust to the inherently highly uneven label ratios of this task.

#### 3.2 ENHANCER ANNOTATION

**Definition** Enhancer annotation is the problem of finding enhancer regions for a given gene. We define enhancer annotation as a binary classification task. Given a sequence of gene-adjacent ge-



omic DNA that contains an enhancer, a binary label indicating whether it contains an enhancer needs to be predicted for each segment of 128bp.

**Biological relevance** Enhancers are short, noncoding segments that contribute to regulating gene expression. They can be located anywhere from a few thousand to a million bp away from their target gene and work by being brought into physical proximity to the gene’s promoter. Their annotation is a highly challenging task that requires detection of long-range interactions.

**Data** Experimentally validated enhancer-gene pairs were taken from CRISPR interference experiments (Fulco et al., (2019); Gasperini et al., (2019)) and paired with the main TSS of each gene from Avsec et al., (2021). We extracted a sequence of 100,096 bp centered on the TSS for each gene. Each 128bp were annotated with a binary label  $y \in \{0, 1\}$  indicating whether the bin contains an enhancer, yielding a label sequence of length 782. Detailed processing is laid out in A.1.3. Samples were partitioned based on chromosomes.

**Metric** The AUPRC for binary classification is computed over all labels. As the number of samples is too limited for measuring performance robustly on a single test split, we perform 10-fold cross-validation in order to be able to evaluate performance over all samples.

### 3.3 HISTONE MODIFICATION PREDICTION

**Definition** Histone modification prediction is a multi-label classification task, where the histones which are part of the nucleosomes of a given DNA sequence are labeled with one or more histone marks.

**Biological relevance** Histone proteins are key to the organisation of DNA into chromatin. Modifications of histones modulate chromatin structure and thus contribute to regulating chromatin accessibility and gene expression. Histone modification prediction requires modeling local binding of TFs as well as long-range regulation, such as by distant enhancers.

**Data** Histone ChIP-seq data for 11 histone marks and 19 replicates in the K562 cell line was obtained from ENCODE (ENCODE Project Consortium, 2012; Luo et al., 2020). Detailed processing is laid out in A.1.4 and follows the methodology of ???. Each sample is a sequence of length 512 bp with a label vector  $\mathbf{y} \in \{0, 1\}^{19}$ , such that  $y_i = 1$  if a histone bound to this sequence carries modification  $i$ . Samples were partitioned based on chromosomes.

**Metric** The AUROC is computed for each label and subsequently averaged.

### 3.4 CpG METHYLATION PREDICTION

**Definition** CpG methylation prediction is a multi-label classification task, where a given CpG site is either methylated or unmethylated in different cell lines.

**Biological relevance** Methylation of cytosine nucleotides in CpG sites is a prominent form of epigenetic modification and plays a key role in the repression of gene expression.

**Data** Bisulfite sequencing data for 7 human cell lines was obtained from ENCODE (ENCODE Project Consortium, 2012). Detailed processing is laid out in A.1.5. Each sample is a sequence of length 512 bp centered on the CpG site with a label vector  $\mathbf{y} \in \{0, 1\}^7$ , such that  $y_i = 1$  if the C is methylated. Samples were partitioned based on chromosomes.

**Metric** The AUROC is computed for each label and averaged.

### 3.5 NONCODING VARIANT EFFECTS (EXPRESSION AND DISEASE)

**Definition** Predicting variant effects is a binary problem, where single-bp mutations are classified as either having an effect or not. We treat classification as a zero-shot task, using the cosine distance in embedding space between a variant nucleotide and its reference nucleotide as the prediction score.

**Biological relevance** Single-bp variants in noncoding regions can have functional consequences by altering gene expression levels or causing disease. This task probes the LM’s understanding of local context and potentially the structure of regulatory motifs. We focus on noncoding regions, as coding variant effects can be predicted with high accuracy by modeling the mutation in the resulting protein sequence (Frazer et al., 2021).

Table 2: Overview of the LMs included in the benchmark. Models from all works proposing DNA LMs applicable to the human genome were considered.

| Model                         | Seq length            | Trained on                        | Architecture | Source                    |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------|---------------------------|
| <b>AWD-LSTM</b>               | Infinite <sup>a</sup> | Multispecies                      | RNN          | This work                 |
| <b>Dilated ResNet</b>         | 10,000                | Human Ref <sup>c</sup>            | CNN          | This work                 |
| <b>DNABERT</b>                | 512                   | Human Ref <sup>c</sup>            | BERT         | Ji et al. (2021)          |
| <b>Nucleotide Transformer</b> | 5,994                 | Multispecies                      | BERT         | Dalla-Torre et al. (2023) |
| <b>Nucleotide Transformer</b> | 5,994                 | Human Ref <sup>c</sup>            | BERT         | Dalla-Torre et al. (2023) |
| <b>GENA-LM</b>                | 4500                  | 1000 Genomes project <sup>d</sup> | BERT         | Fishman et al. (2023)     |
| <b>GENA-LM</b>                | 36,000                | 1000 Genomes project <sup>d</sup> | BigBird      | Fishman et al. (2023)     |
| <b>DNABERT-2</b>              | Infinite <sup>b</sup> | Multispecies                      | BERT         | Zhou et al. (2023)        |
| <b>HyenaDNA</b>               | 1,000,000             | Human Ref <sup>c</sup>            | Hyena        | Nguyen et al. (2023)      |
| <b>HyenaDNA</b>               | 1,000                 | Human Ref <sup>c</sup>            | Hyena        | Nguyen et al. (2023)      |

<sup>a</sup> As the LSTM compresses all preceding tokens into a single hidden state, it can technically process infinite sequences, even though it was trained at finite lengths and might not have learnt to exploit such long contexts.

<sup>b</sup> DNABERT-2 uses ALiBi (Press et al., 2022) to encode position, which can technically scale to any sequence length. In practice, the model was trained on finite lengths and the authors embedding sequences below 10,000 bp.

<sup>c</sup> (Schneider et al., 2017)

<sup>d</sup> (McVean et al., 2012)

**Data** For expression variants, we adapt the DeepSEA dataset (Zhou & Troyanskaya, 2015). For disease-associated variants, we process ClinVar (Landrum et al., 2020). We apply Ensembl VEP (McLaren et al., 2016) to categorize variants by genomic regions into consequence types. Detailed processing is laid out in A.1.6 and A.1.7. Each variant is a genomic position with a mutation  $x \in \{A, C, G, T\}$  and a label  $y \in \{0, 1\}$ . The adjacent 512 bp serve as embedding context.

**Metric** We compute the AUROC. Additionally, we report separate AUROCs for the variant consequence types to gain further insight into what genomic features are driving performance.

## 4 MODELING

**Language Models** We benchmark available LMs suitable for the human genome (Table 2). Checkpoint selection criteria are laid out in A.6.2. Additionally, we train two simple baseline DNA LMs: An AWD-LSTM (Merity et al., 2017) model trained on three species, and a dilated CNN similar to GPN (Benegas et al., 2023), trained on the human genome. The model differs from GPN in the parameter count and the length of training sequences (A.6.1).

**Downstream model** We train a lightweight supervised two-layer CNN model with 64 channels on top of the LM embeddings for each task. LM weights are kept frozen and are not fine-tuned. For LMs with reduced output sequence length due to tokenization, embeddings are upsampled to the original sequence length (A.6.3). For sequence-level tasks, we apply average pooling after the last convolutional layer. For the enhancer annotation task, the number of channels was reduced to prevent overfitting.

**Supervised baselines** For each task, we train two supervised models without pre-training. For a fair comparison between raw and embedded DNA sequences, we train both the two-layer CNN model, as well as the dilated ResNet CNN directly on one-hot encoded DNA. The latter model is used for all tasks except chromatin accessibility and histone modification, where we instead train the Basset model which was specifically designed and developed for the task.

## 5 RESULTS

**Gene finding** DNA LMs show promising performance for gene finding (Table 3). The two-layer CNN baseline fails to learn, possibly due to its inherent limitation to local context. However, the same CNN is able to achieve varying levels of performance when using LM embeddings, suggesting that embeddings capture some long-range information. NT-MS outperforms all models by a wide margin, approaching the performance of the highly specialized AUGUSTUS (Stanke & Waack, 2003) gene finding model. HyenaDNA-large, although being the only LM whose context length fully covers the input length of the task, only shows modest performance.

Table 3: Results on all tasks. The best performing DNA LM for each task is highlighted in bold.

|                         |                        | Gene finding     | Chromatin accessibility | Enhancer annotation         | Histone modification | CpG Methylation | Variant effects (expression) | Variant effects (disease) |
|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------|-----------------|------------------------------|---------------------------|
| <b>Literature</b>       |                        | 0.78<br>AUGUSTUS | 0.85<br>Basset          | 0.07 $\pm$ 0.04<br>Enformer | 0.72<br>Basset       | -               | 0.70<br>DeepSEA              | 0.56<br>DeepSEA           |
| <b>fully supervised</b> | <b>ResNet</b>          | 0.53             | -                       | 0.06                        | -                    | -               | -                            | -                         |
|                         | <b>CNN</b>             | 0.00             | 0.76                    | 0.03                        | 0.71                 | 0.84            | -                            | -                         |
| <b>pre-trained</b>      | <b>ResNet-LM</b>       | 0.35             | 0.81                    | 0.06                        | 0.73                 | 0.87            | 0.56                         | 0.55                      |
|                         | <b>AWD-LSTM</b>        | 0.09             | 0.74                    | 0.05                        | 0.70                 | 0.81            | 0.51                         | 0.48                      |
|                         | <b>NT-H</b>            | 0.41             | 0.75                    | 0.07                        | 0.72                 | 0.88            | 0.55                         | 0.48                      |
|                         | <b>NT-MS</b>           | <b>0.76</b>      | 0.80                    | <b>0.09</b>                 | <b>0.74</b>          | <b>0.92</b>     | 0.55                         | <b>0.77</b>               |
|                         | <b>NT-H-1000G</b>      | 0.31             | -                       | -                           | -                    | 0.89            | 0.45                         | 0.49                      |
|                         | <b>DNABERT</b>         | 0.21             | <b>0.84</b>             | 0.07                        | <b>0.74</b>          | 0.91            | <b>0.60</b>                  | 0.56                      |
|                         | <b>GENA-LM BERT</b>    | 0.23             |                         | 0.05                        | 0.72                 | 0.91            | 0.49                         | 0.55                      |
|                         | <b>GENA-LM BigBird</b> | 0.31             |                         | 0.07                        | 0.74                 | 0.91            | 0.49                         | 0.52                      |
|                         | <b>DNABERT-2</b>       | 0.29             |                         | 0.06                        | 0.72                 | 0.90            | 0.49                         | 0.51                      |
|                         | <b>HyenaDNA large</b>  | 0.36             |                         | 0.07                        | 0.67                 | 0.91            | 0.45                         | 0.51                      |
|                         | <b>HyenaDNA tiny</b>   | 0.09             | 0.79                    | 0.04                        | 0.72                 | 0.86            | 0.47                         | 0.44                      |

**Chromatin accessibility prediction** Supervised training on one-hot encoded sequences using the Basset (Kelley et al., 2016) architecture shows highest performance (0.85), followed by DNABERT (0.84). AWD-LSTM and NT-H show considerably lower performances of 0.74 and 0.75, respectively, which is below the baseline CNN (0.76). This could be due to the large size of the training set, limiting the utility of pre-trained embeddings.

**Histone modification** NT-MS and DNABERT show the highest performance (0.74), outperforming the Basset (0.72) model. This suggests that LM embeddings can improve performance for histone modification prediction, albeit at marginal levels.

**CpG methylation** NT-MS performs best on all included cell lines (Table 11). DNABERT, GENA-LM and HyenaDNA-large also perform competitively, indicating that embeddings capture information about CpG island methylation patterns.

**Variant effect prediction** DNA LMs show some signal for unsupervised prediction of noncoding variant effects. As the two datasets focus on different genomic regions, we only see limited consistency between the expression and disease variant tasks, with DNABERT and NT-MS performing best respectively. While being worse than the supervised DeepSEA method, DNABERT matches DeepSEA’s unsupervised performance on the expression dataset (AUROC 0.6, A.7). On the disease dataset, multiple LMs approach DeepSEA’s Disease Impact Score, with NT-MS outperforming it. When dissecting performance by variant consequence types, we find that the performance of NT-MS is driven by variants affecting splice sites and introns (Table 13). While splice sites can be considered noncoding DNA, they are not the focus of DeepSEA, which models chromatin features. In UTRs and up- or downstream regions, NT-MS does not outperform DeepSEA. Similar to the results on the expression dataset, we find that DNABERT outperforms NT-MS in such regions, suggesting that the two LMs learned distinct sequence features during pre-training. As all other NT models show weaker performance on variants affecting gene structure, this could be a consequence of multi-species training. However, we do not see similarly strong performance in the multi-species DNABERT-2.

**Enhancer annotation** All investigated models perform poorly on this task. Enhancer annotation is an extremely difficult task due to the length scale, sparsity of the signal, and small dataset, which pose challenges for all investigated models. As we chose to frame it as a sequence annotation problem, rather than classifying matching pre-defined sequence pairs, it is a particularly stringent task. Although the supervised baseline has a large enough receptive field to detect the long-range interaction, the size of the dataset is prohibitive for performance. The Enformer (Avsec et al., 2021) performance is comparable on this task, but it must be noted that this is an unsupervised method that was not trained directly on enhancer data. Rather, it infers their locations from learning to predict other genome annotations. While this task already proves to be highly challenging for current models at the given length scales, we note that biology is even more complex, with enhancers potentially being millions of bp away.



## 6 DISCUSSION

We introduce BEND, a benchmark collection for DNA LMs that aims at better recapitulating the fundamental aspects of genomic sequence data. We find that currently available DNA LMs already show promising performance on some tasks over fully supervised baselines, but do not offer consistent improvements over all included tasks and can fall short of beating specialized existing prediction methods. Overall, we find that NT-MS is a strong default LM, but is in some tasks inferior to the much smaller DNABERT. Interestingly, while both models trained using the MLM objective, we find that they learned distinct genomic features during pre-training. With the pre-training data and the tokenization strategy being the key architectural difference, these choices may deserve more attention in future DNA LMs.

On the gene finding task, we observe that the combination of NT-MS with a simple two-layer CNN reaches a performance level close to AUGUSTUS which was found to be the state of the art in a recent benchmark (Scalzitti et al., 2020), suggesting that future more sophisticated LM-based gene finders might become a method of choice for this problem. This result also indicates that current DNA LMs are capable of modeling long-range dependencies to some extent.

Probing LMs at even longer ranges in the enhancer annotation task reveals that long-range understanding still needs improvement for sparse problems with limited data. This highlights a key issue facing DNA LMs: Not only is there a need for long-range modeling to improve our understanding of the genome, as demonstrated by Avsec et al. (2021), but it also raises a fundamental question as to whether current LM training objectives will lead to the incorporation of such distant, sparse signals, or whether the local sequence context is all that is required for sequence reconstruction and some level of supervision is needed. Since BEND is not inherently tied to an LM objective, our standardized benchmark may also prove useful for evaluating eventual DNA representation models that follow a different paradigm.

## 7 LIMITATIONS AND OUTLOOK

As the curation of a comprehensive benchmark task collection requires experimental ground-truth data to be available, and most published models are trained on human data, we focused BEND on the human genome. BEND aims at comparing the effectiveness of different model architectures and training strategies for learning representations from genomic data, under the assumption that other, similarly structured genomes should behave comparably under self-supervision. However, an important question that remains unanswered is whether DNA LMs can aid with generalization across different organisms. In the future, we hope to extend the benchmark to other, diverse organisms, so that generalization power can be tested in a transfer-learning setting, i.e. by training a task on a given organism, and evaluating performance on another.

In BEND, we benchmarked to what extent embeddings capture features that can be leveraged by downstream models for prediction. This approach is fully agnostic regarding the underlying LM’s methodology and scales to models of any size. Other works proposed to fine-tune LMs on tasks directly. While this potentially conflates a representation’s content with the inductive bias of a model architecture for a given task, fine-tuning may yield performance gains beyond the results observed in this work (Nguyen et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2023). Another aspect to be investigated in the future is to dive deeper into how LMs learn features during pre-training, as done previously for protein LMs (Vig et al., 2021).

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