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# Temporal Protein Evolution Prediction for Proactive Pathogen Surveillance

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## Abstract

1 Current pathogen biosurveillance systems reactively monitor evolving sequences  
2 from environmental samples and assess mutation risks to guide public health  
3 responses. To enable proactive surveillance, we developed PEVO, a deep learning  
4 framework that explores direct prediction of future protein evolution by learning  
5 mappings between temporal and sequence representations. Our approach combines  
6 TOTEM (Time-Ordered Evolutionary Modeling) embeddings to capture quarterly  
7 temporal patterns with ESM (Evolutionary Scale Modeling) protein sequence  
8 embeddings, training a neural network to map from TOTEM time space to ESM  
9 sequence space. We demonstrate our method on Ebola virus L protein sequences  
10 collected from 1976-2018 ( $n = 2343$ ) with quarterly temporal binning, generating  
11 predictions for 2019-2030 and validating on known sequences after 2019 ( $n =$   
12  $596$ ). While our TOTEM-to-ESM mapping achieved an MSE of 0.002 (RMSE  
13  $= 0.045$ ), phylodynamics baseline outperformed our approach with an RMSE of  
14 0.007. Additionally, our model's prediction variations (RMSE  $= 0.045$ ) exceed  
15 the natural variability observed in training data (STD  $= 0.0292$ ), indicating room  
16 for improvement in capturing evolutionary constraints. Despite current limitations,  
17 this work establishes a foundational framework for temporal-sequence learning  
18 that could potentially complement traditional phylodynamic approaches. With  
19 further refinement, such neural approaches may offer computational advantages for  
20 automated biosurveillance systems, contributing to the transformation of pathogen  
21 surveillance from reactive monitoring toward proactive preparedness for future  
22 pandemic threats.

## 23 1 Introduction

24 Microbial pathogens exist under continuous evolutionary pressure from environmental factors, host  
25 immune responses, and anthropogenic interventions such as vaccination and antimicrobial treatment  
26 [Smith et al., 2023]. These multifaceted selection pressures drive pathogens through perpetual  
27 cycles of mutation, selection, and adaptation, fundamentally shaping their genomic and proteomic  
28 landscapes over time. From this perspective, pathogen evolution can be conceptualized as a temporal  
29 mapping function that transforms chronological progression into specific genomic and proteomic  
30 mutations.

31 The traditional approach to modeling pathogen evolution relies on phylodynamic methods, which  
32 combine phylogenetic analysis with epidemiological dynamics to infer evolutionary parameters and  
33 reconstruct transmission histories [Volz et al., 2013]. Established phylodynamic frameworks such  
34 as BEAST2 [Bouckaert et al., 2019] and TreeTime [Sagunenko et al., 2018] construct phylogenetic  
35 trees from sequence data and estimate evolutionary rates, while platforms like Nextstrain [Hadfield  
36 et al., 2018] provide real-time phylogenetic tracking for pathogen surveillance. These methods have

37 proven invaluable for understanding historical evolutionary trajectories and are widely adopted in  
38 epidemiological practice due to their interpretability and theoretical grounding. However, phylody-  
39 namic approaches typically assume constant or slowly varying evolutionary rates and may struggle to  
40 capture complex, non-linear temporal patterns that characterize rapidly evolving pathogens under  
41 dynamic selection pressures.

42 Recent advances in protein language models (PLMs) have demonstrated remarkable success in  
43 learning intricate patterns within amino acid sequences, protein structures, and functional relationships.  
44 Models such as ESM model series [Rives et al., 2021, Lin et al., 2023], alongside structure prediction  
45 breakthroughs like AlphaFold [Jumper et al., 2021], RosettaFold [Baek et al., 2021], and generative  
46 approaches like RFdiffusion [Watson et al., 2023], have shown that deep learning can capture  
47 the underlying statistical regularities that govern protein sequence space. Critically, PLMs learn  
48 representations of the biologically viable protein sequence space—a constrained subset of the  
49 theoretically possible sequence combinations. While a protein of  $n$  amino acid residues theoretically  
50 permits  $20^n$  possible sequences, only a minute fraction of these combinations occur in nature,  
51 constrained by requirements for proper protein folding, stability, and biological function. This  
52 constraint implies that during evolutionary processes, pathogens navigate within this restricted,  
53 functionally viable region of sequence space rather than exploring the full combinatorial possibility  
54 space.

55 Parallel developments in temporal representation learning have introduced sophisticated methods for  
56 encoding time series data. Notable among these is TOTEM (Tokenized Time Series Embeddings)  
57 [Talukder et al., 2024], which provides a framework for learning rich temporal embeddings that  
58 capture complex time-dependent patterns. The convergence of these advances in protein sequence  
59 modeling and temporal representation learning presents an opportunity to test whether direct mappings  
60 between time and sequence representations can outperform traditional phylodynamic approaches for  
61 pathogen evolution prediction.

62 In this work, we introduce PEVO (Protein Evolution Predictor), a novel deep learning framework  
63 that combines TOTEM temporal embeddings [Talukder et al., 2024] with ESM-2 protein sequence  
64 representations [Rives et al., 2021] to explore direct temporal-to-sequence prediction for pathogen  
65 evolution. PEVO represents an exploratory effort to establish learnable mappings between time space  
66 and protein sequence space, bypassing explicit phylogenetic reconstruction while aiming to capture  
67 evolutionary dynamics through neural architectures.

68 Using a comprehensive dataset of historical Ebola virus L protein sequences spanning over four  
69 decades, we evaluate PEVO’s ability to predict future protein sequence embeddings and compare  
70 its performance against established phylodynamics approaches. While our initial results show that  
71 phylodynamics currently outperforms PEVO (RMSE = 0.007 vs. 0.045), and the neural model  
72 introduces variations larger than the natural standard deviation observed in training sequences, this  
73 work establishes a foundational framework for temporal-sequence learning that could potentially  
74 surpass traditional methods with further development.

## 75 2 Dataset

76 We queried GenBank [Sayers et al., 2019] for all Ebola RNA-dependent RNA polymerase (L protein)  
77 sequences, which together with VP35 are essential for viral RNA replication and transcription.  
78 After removing synthetic sequences and those shorter than 500 base pairs, we processed sequences  
79 containing unknown amino acids (Xs) by aligning them with the GenBank reference sequence using  
80 pairwise alignment and replacing unknown residues with corresponding reference amino acids. The  
81 dataset was temporally split with sequences from 1976–2018 as training data ( $n=2343$ ) and sequences  
82 from 2019 onward as testing data ( $n=596$ ), creating an approximate 75/25 train-test split.

## 83 3 Phylodynamics Analysis

84 For phylodynamic baseline comparison, we created consensus sequences for each quarter using  
85 Clustal Omega [Sievers et al., 2011] and EMBOSS [Rice et al., 2000]. We constructed maximum-  
86 likelihood phylogenetic trees with IQ-TREE [Nguyen et al., 2015] and estimated evolutionary paramet-  
87 ers using TreeTime [Sagulenko et al., 2018]. Future sequences were predicted using continuous-time

88 Markov chain models with extracted substitution rates, and RMSE was calculated by embedding  
 89 predicted and actual sequences with ESM2. See details in Appendix A.

## 90 4 Model Architecture

91 Our PEVO-TOTEM (Protein Evolution with TOTEM Time Embeddings) model learns the mapping  
 92 from temporal tokens to protein sequence representations. Unlike conventional approaches that embed  
 93 sequences into temporal space, our architecture directly maps time periods to ESM2 embedding  
 94 space, enabling the model to learn  $f : \text{time} \rightarrow \text{sequence features}$ .

95 The temporal tokenizer converts quarterly time periods into discrete tokens:

$$\text{Temporal Tokenizer} : \{1976Q1, 1976Q2, \dots, 2030Q4\} \rightarrow \{0, 1, \dots, 219\} \quad (1)$$

96 This creates a vocabulary of 220 temporal tokens spanning 55 years of quarterly periods between  
 97 [1976, 2030]. Each time period is mapped to a unique integer identifier that serves as input to the  
 98 TOTEM embedding layer to generate rich temporal representations:

$$\text{TOTEM Embedding} : \mathbb{R}^{B \times L} \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^{B \times L \times d_{\text{model}}} \quad (2)$$

99 where  $B$  is batch size,  $L$  is the temporal sequence length (number of quarterly tokens, default  $L = 8$ ,  
 100 and  $d_{\text{model}}$  is the model dimension. In our example study,  $d_{\text{model}} = 512$ . The TOTEM embedding  
 101 incorporates: 1) Base temporal embeddings: Learnable representations for each time token; 2)  
 102 Positional encoding: Enhanced with multiple temporal cycles (quarterly=4, monthly=12, weekly=52);  
 103 3) Dropout regularization: Applied to prevent overfitting.

104 We used a six layer transformer encoder with 8 attention heads to processes temporal embeddings  
 105 to capture temporal features in a 512 dimension space. The transformer uses causal masking to  
 106 ensure that predictions at time  $t$  only depend on information from times  $t' \leq t$ , maintaining temporal  
 107 causality. The sequence projection layer uses linear model with layer normalization to project  
 108 temporal features in 512 dimensions to ESM2-t6-8M embedding space in 320 dimensions.

109 To prepare the data for model training, we begin with a CSV file containing protein sequences and  
 110 their associated quarterly collection dates. Multiple sequences from the same quarter are averaged  
 111 using their ESM2 embeddings, while missing quarters use the previous quarter’s embedding. Each  
 112 sequence is embedded using ESM2 and organized chronologically into quarterly time series. We  
 113 then construct a sliding window dataset where each input contains 8 consecutive historical quarters  
 114 and targets the subsequent 4 future quarters, with the window advancing by 1 quarter per step. The  
 115 `SlidingWindowDataset` creates training pairs:

$$\text{Input} : \text{Historical quarters } [t - w + 1, \dots, t] \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Target} : \text{Future quarters } [t + 1, \dots, t + h] \quad (4)$$

116 where  $w$  is the window size (8 quarters) and  $h$  is the prediction horizon (4 quarters).

117 For prediction, the model uses the 8 historical quarters as context to predict the next 4 future  
 118 quarters. We obtain temporal embeddings for future time tokens using the TOTEM embedding layer,  
 119 then compute a context vector by mean-pooling the transformer-encoded representations from the  
 120 historical sequence. This context vector is broadcast across all future time steps and added to the  
 121 future temporal embeddings. The enhanced embeddings are then projected into the ESM2 sequence  
 122 space to yield predicted future sequence features.

123 The model optimizes a multi-component loss function:  $\mathcal{L} = \lambda^T \mathbf{L}$ , where  $\lambda = [\lambda_r, \lambda_p, \lambda_s, \lambda_c, \lambda_d]^T$   
 124 are loss weights and  $\mathbf{L} = [\mathcal{L}_{\text{recon}}, \mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}}, \mathcal{L}_{\text{smooth}}, \mathcal{L}_{\text{consist}}, \mathcal{L}_{\text{div}}]^T$  are individual loss components.

125 The reconstruction loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{recon}}$  uses combined MSE and L1 loss between predicted and ground truth  
 126 ESM2 embeddings for the 8 historical quarters, evaluating the model’s ability to reconstruct known  
 127 sequences. The prediction loss  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}}$  applies the same combined loss to the 4 future quarters, assessing  
 128 forecasting accuracy for unseen sequences.

129 Three regularization losses ensure prediction quality:  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{smooth}}$  encourages smooth temporal changes  
 130 in predicted embeddings to match ground truth dynamics;  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{consist}}$  enforces temporal consistency by  
 131 matching first- and second-order temporal dynamics; and  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{div}}$  promotes prediction diversity across  
 132 batch samples using cosine similarity to prevent mode collapse.

Default weights are  $\lambda_r = 1.0$ ,  $\lambda_p = 1.0$ ,  $\lambda_s = 0.1$ ,  $\lambda_c = 0.2$ ,  $\lambda_d = 0.05$ . The model uses AdamW optimization with cosine annealing learning rate schedule, weight decay of  $10^{-5}$ , and gradient clipping at 1.0.

## 5 Results and Discussion

We trained the model for 145 epochs on sequences spanning 1976-2019 and evaluated performance on sequences after 2019Q1-2021Q2 (Fig. 1). The model demonstrated near perfect convergence across both the composite total loss (Fig. 1A) and individual loss components (Fig. 1B, D-G) and achieved an MSE of 0.002 for ESM embedding prediction, corresponding to an RMSE of 0.045 (Fig. 1E). In comparison, the phylodynamics baseline produced an RMSE of 0.007 (Fig. 2 in Appendix).

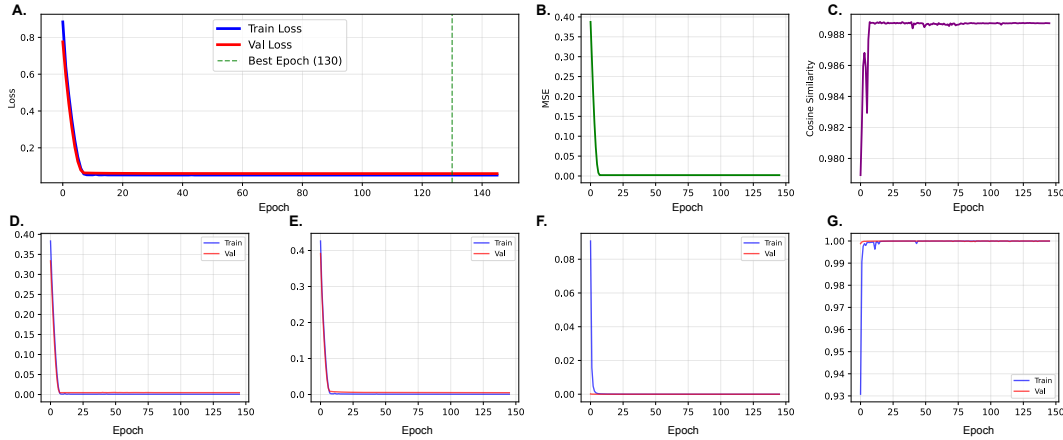


Figure 1: Final training summary from 146 epochs of training. A: Overall loss curve. B: Time-> ESM2 MSE, C: Time-> ESM2 cosine similarity, D: Reconstruction ESM MSE, E: Future Prediction ESM MSE, F: Temporal consistency; G: Diversity.

To properly interpret these results, we note that the ground truth ESM embeddings exhibited a mean standard deviation of 0.0292 across all dimensions (Fig. 3 in Appendix). Our model’s RMSE (0.045) exceeds this natural variability by 1.5-fold, indicating prediction errors surpass inherent variation in the ESM embedding space. In contrast, phylodynamics achieved superior performance with an RMSE of 0.007—4 times smaller than natural data variability and 6.4 times better than our neural approach.

This performance gap demonstrates that traditional evolutionary modeling remains highly competitive for protein sequence prediction. The gap likely reflects our relatively small dataset, high-dimensional ESM embeddings, sparse data between 1977Q1 and 1994Q3, or specific temporal patterns in Ebola L protein evolution that mechanistic phylodynamic models capture more effectively.

Given the phylodynamics baseline’s superior performance, we plan two key refinements: **Dataset Refinement** using only sequences from 1994 onward to address data sparsity and temporal gaps, and **Consensus Sequence Approach** replacing averaged embeddings with consensus sequences per quarter, matching phylodynamics methodology.

While PEVO’s direct time-to-sequence mapping approach currently underperforms, it remains valuable for biosurveillance by predicting functional and epidemiological characteristics of future mutations. Comparing predicted embeddings with historical sequences enables quantitative assessment of evolutionary similarity and identification of significant deviations for public health monitoring without requiring explicit amino acid reconstruction.

This work establishes a foundational framework for neural temporal-sequence learning in pathogen evolution prediction. While phylodynamics currently outperforms our approach, PEVO demonstrates the feasibility of direct time-to-sequence mapping and offers potential advantages in computational efficiency and automated integration for real-time biosurveillance systems. The planned refinements targeting data quality and methodological alignment provide clear pathways for improving predictive accuracy.

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## 218 A Phyldynamic Baseline Details

219 Multiple sequences per quarter were aligned using Clustal Omega [Sievers et al., 2011], and consensus  
 220 sequences were generated with EMBOSS [Rice et al., 2000]. Unknown amino acids were replaced  
 221 using the previously described method.

222 For phylogenetic projections, consensus training sequences were aligned with MUSCLE [Edgar,  
 223 2004], then maximum-likelihood trees were constructed using IQ-TREE with 1000 bootstrap repli-  
 224 cates and ModelFinder for automatic model selection [Nguyen et al., 2015, Kalyaanamoorthy et al.,  
 225 2017]. Quarter dates were converted to the first day of each quarter and input with phylogenetic trees  
 226 into TreeTime (clockfilter=5, gtr=infer) [Sagulenko et al., 2018].

227 The substitution rate ( $\mu$ ) extracted from TreeTime was used with uniform distributions for the rate  
 228 matrix of amino acid substitutions (normalized  $\mathbf{Q}$ ) and state frequencies. Using the final training  
 229 consensus sequence (2022Q4) as the starting point, each site was modeled as a continuous-time  
 230 Markov chain over 20 amino acids with  $\Delta t = 0.25$  years. For each site with rate multiplier  $r$ , the  
 231 transition probability matrix was calculated as  $\mathbf{P}(\Delta t, r) = \exp(\mathbf{Q} \cdot \mu \Delta tr)$ .

232 Predicted sequences were combined with original training data, realigned with MUSCLE, and  
 233 phylogenetically analyzed using IQ-TREE with ModelFinder and TreeTime (Appendix Fig. 2).

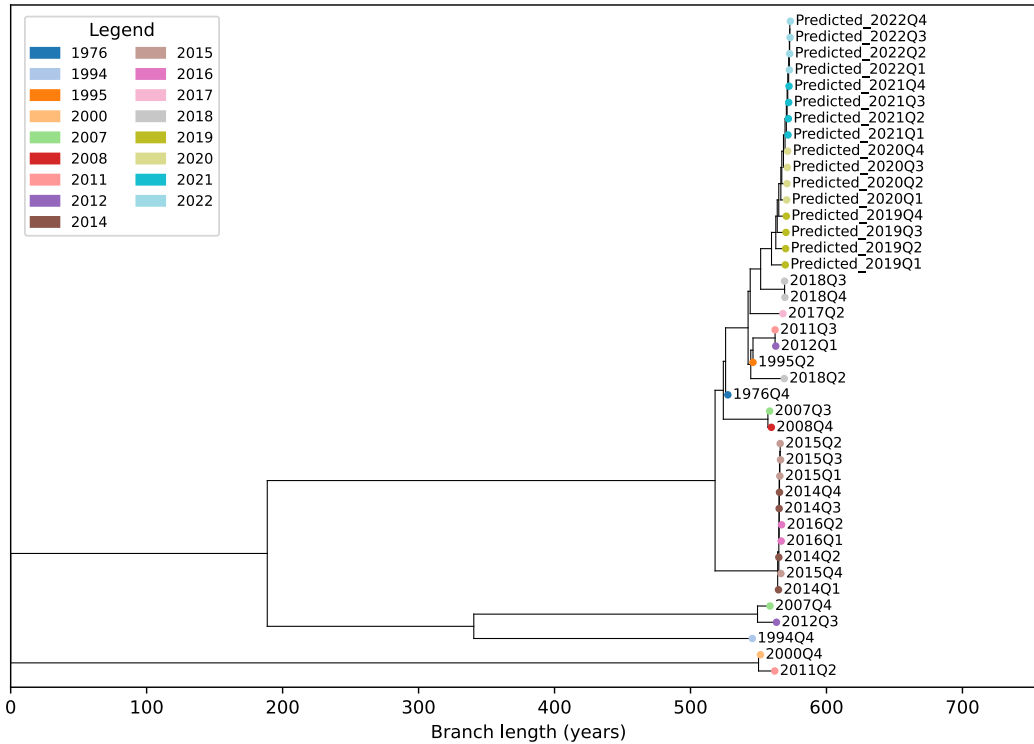


Figure 2: Phylodynamics predictions

## 234 B Loss Terms

235 Table 1 in Appendix lists the details of the error terms used in PEVO.

## 236 C Per ESM Dimension Variation

237 We generated sequence-level ESM2 embeddings for all sequences (training and testing) and computed  
 238 the standard deviation across each embedding dimension (Fig. 3). The mean standard deviation

| Loss Term                        | What it Measures                                                                                              | Input/Output Used                                                                           | Formula / Code                                                                                                                                                                            |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| $\mathcal{L}_{\text{recon}}$     | Reconstruction loss: how well the model reconstructs ESM2 embeddings for historical (input) periods           | Predicted and target ESM2 for historical periods                                            | $0.8 \text{MSE}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{hist}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{hist}}) + 0.2 \text{L1}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{hist}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{hist}})$                                      |
| $\mathcal{L}_{\text{pred}}$      | Prediction loss: how well the model predicts ESM2 embeddings for future periods                               | Predicted and target ESM2 for future periods                                                | $0.8 \text{MSE}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{future}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{future}}) + 0.2 \text{L1}(\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{future}}, \mathbf{y}_{\text{future}})$                              |
| $\mathcal{L}_{\text{smooth}}$    | Smoothness loss: encourages smooth temporal changes in predictions                                            | Differences between consecutive predicted and target ESM2 (historical & future)             | $\text{MSE}(\Delta \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{hist}}, \Delta \mathbf{y}_{\text{hist}}) + \text{MSE}(\Delta \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{future}}, \Delta \mathbf{y}_{\text{future}})$             |
| $\mathcal{L}_{\text{temp-cons}}$ | Temporal consistency loss: matches the temporal evolution (velocity & acceleration) of predictions to targets | First and second differences (gradients, accelerations) of predicted and target future ESM2 | $\text{MSE}(\Delta \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{future}}, \Delta \mathbf{y}_{\text{future}}) + 0.1 \text{MSE}(\Delta^2 \hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{future}}, \Delta^2 \mathbf{y}_{\text{future}})$ |
| $\mathcal{L}_{\text{div}}$       | Diversity loss: encourages diversity among predictions in a batch                                             | Pairwise cosine similarity of predicted future ESM2                                         | Mean of cosine similarity matrix between batch predictions                                                                                                                                |

Table 1: Summary of loss terms used in the PEVO-TOTEM model. Here,  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{hist}}$  and  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{hist}}$  are predicted and ground truth ESM2 embeddings for historical periods,  $\hat{\mathbf{y}}_{\text{future}}$  and  $\mathbf{y}_{\text{future}}$  are for future periods,  $\Delta$  denotes the first difference (temporal gradient), and  $\Delta^2$  the second difference (acceleration).

239 across all dimensions is 0.0292, representing the natural variability present in the ESM2 embedding  
240 space for our Ebola L protein dataset.

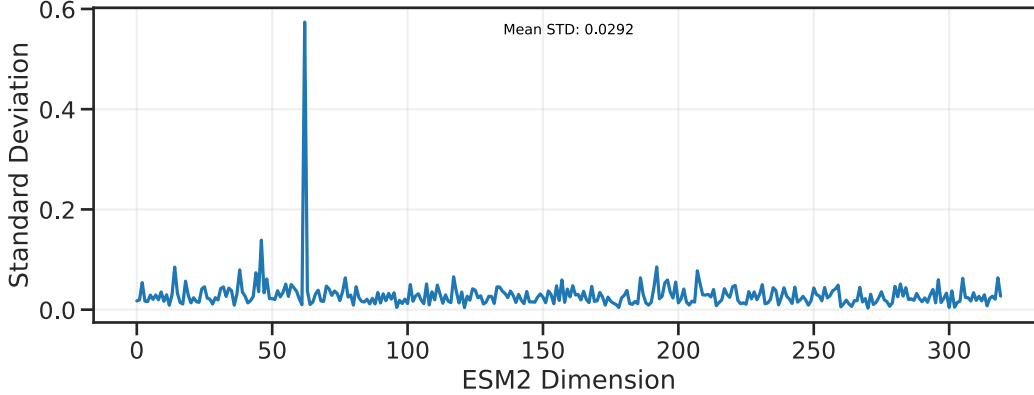


Figure 3: Per ESM embedding dimension standard deviations. X axis: 320 dimensions from ESM2 embedding space. Y axis: standard deviations