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# Evolution Is All You Need: Phylogenetic Augmentation for Contrastive Learning

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## Abstract

1 Self-supervised representation learning of biological sequence embeddings alle-  
2 viates computational resource constraints on downstream tasks while circumvent-  
3 ing expensive experimental label acquisition. However, existing methods mostly  
4 borrow directly from large language models designed for NLP, rather than with  
5 bioinformatics philosophies in mind. Recently, contrastive mutual information  
6 maximization methods have achieved state-of-the-art representations for ImageNet.  
7 In this perspective piece, we discuss how viewing evolution as natural sequence  
8 augmentation and maximizing information across phylogenetic “noisy channels”  
9 is a biologically and theoretically desirable objective for pretraining encoders. We  
10 first provide a review of current contrastive learning literature, then provide an  
11 illustrative example where we show that contrastive learning using evolutionary  
12 augmentation can be used as a representation learning objective which maximizes  
13 the mutual information between biological sequences and their conserved function,  
14 and finally outline rationale for this approach.

## 15 1 Introduction

16 Self-supervised learning representation learning of biological sequences aims to capture meaningful  
17 properties for downstream analyses, while pretraining only on labels derived from the data itself.  
18 Embeddings alleviate computational constraints, and yield new biological insights from analyses in  
19 a rich latent space; to do so in a self-supervised manner further circumvents the expensive and time-  
20 consuming need to gather experimental labels. Though recent works have successfully demonstrated  
21 the ability to capture properties such as fluorescence, pairwise contact, phylogenetics, structure, and  
22 subcellular localization, these works mostly use methods designed for natural language processing  
23 (NLP) [56, 12, 46, 47, 3, 25, 18, 5, 21, 40, 19]. This leaves open the question of how best to design  
24 self-supervised methods which align with biological principles.

25 Recently, contrastive methods for learning representations achieve state-of-the-art results on Im-  
26 ageNet [43, 26, 51, 24, 14]. Two “views”  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  of an input are defined (e.g. two image  
27 augmentation strategies), and the contrastive objective is to distinguish one pair of “correctly paired”  
28 views from  $N - 1$  “incorrectly paired” dissimilar views. This incentivizes the encoder to learn  
29 meaningful properties of the input, while disregarding nuisance factors. Theoretically, it can be  
30 shown that such an objective maximizes the lower-bound on the mutual information,  $I(v_1, v_2)$  [44].

31 In this piece, we first provide a review of current contrastive learning literature for obtaining repre-  
32 sentations in non-biological modalities. Then, we propose that molecular evolution is a good choice  
33 of augmentation to provide “views” for contrastive learning in computational biology, from both the  
34 theoretical and biological perspectives. Finally, we illustrate how evolutionary augmentation can be  
35 used to optimize a deep neural network encoder to preserve the information in biological sequences  
36 that pertains to their function.

## 37 2 Contrastive Learning for Mutual Information Maximization

### 38 2.1 Contrastive Learning and Mutual Information Estimation

39 The InfoMax optimization principle [36] aims to find a mapping  $g$  such that the Shannon mutual  
40 information between the input and output is maximized, i.e.  $\max_{g \in \mathcal{G}} I(X; g(X))$ . Recent years  
41 revive this principle as a representation learning objective to train deep encoders as  $g$ , and yield  
42 empirically desirable representations in the modalities of imaging [43, 27, 8, 51, 26, 37, 24, 14, 52, 55],  
43 text [48, 43, 32], and audio [37, 43].

44 Most follow a variation of this optimization objective: given input  $x$ , and transformations  $t_1$  and  
45  $t_2$ , define  $v_1 = t_1(x)$  and  $v_2 = t_2(x)$  as two different “views” of  $x$ . These “transformations” can  
46 be parameterless augmentations [14], or another neural network summarizing global information  
47 [27, 43]. Further, define encoder(s) and latent representations  $z_1 = g_1(v_1)$  and  $z_2 = g_2(v_1)$ . The  
48 encoder mappings may be constrained by  $\mathcal{G}_1$  and  $\mathcal{G}_2$  (e.g. architecturally). In some works,  $g_1$  and  $g_2$   
49 may share some [27] or all [14] parameters. The goal is to find encoder mappings which maximize  
50 the mutual information between the outputs:

$$\max_{g_1 \in \mathcal{G}_1, g_2 \in \mathcal{G}_2} I'(g_1(v_1); g_2(v_2)) \quad (1)$$

51 This objective is shown [53] to lower-bound the true InfoMax objective. Perhaps the most widely  
52 adapted estimator is the InfoNCE estimator [43] which provides an unnormalized lower bound on the  
53 mutual information by optimizing the objective [43]:

$$\mathcal{L}_{NCE} := -\mathbb{E}_{v_1, v_2^-, v_2^+} \left[ \log \frac{\exp(f(g_1(v_1), g_2(v_2^+)))}{\exp(f(g_1(v_1), g_2(v_2^+))) + \sum_{j=1}^{N-1} \exp(f(g_1(v_1), g_2(v_2_j^-)))} \right], \quad (2)$$

54 where  $(v_1, v_2^+) \sim p(v_1, v_2)$  is a “real” pair of views drawn from their empirical joint distribution,  
55 and we draw negative samples  $v_2^- \sim p(v_2)$  from the marginal distribution to form  $N - 1$  “fake”  
56 pairs.  $N$  denotes the total number of pairs (and, in practice, often refers to the batch size). In Arora  
57 et al. [6], losses in this general form are termed “contrastive learning”. Note that this is essentially  
58 a cross-entropy to distinguish one positive pair from  $N - 1$  negative pairs, where  $f$  is a “critic”  
59 classifier (reminiscent of adversarial learning), and should learn to return high values for the “real”  
60 pair. As is common in deep learning, the expectation is calculated over multiple batches.

61 For a more detailed discussion of the connection between the InfoNCE loss, the InfoMax objective  
62 for representation learning, and other mutual information estimators, see Appendix A.

### 63 2.2 Choice of “Views” in Contrastive Learning Literature

64 Existing works select “views” of the input in different ways. These include using different time steps  
65 of an audio or video sequence [43, 49] or using different patches of the same image [43, 26, 27, 8].  
66 Recently, contrastive learning between local and sequentially-global embeddings is used to establish  
67 representations for proteins [38]. Augmentations are an oft-used strategy for constructing different  
68 views [28, 24, 14], sometimes applied in conjunction with image patching [26, 8].

69 In this work, we argue that using evolution as a sequence augmentation strategy is a biologically  
70 and theoretically desirable choice to construct views. Previous work have explored evolutionary  
71 conservation as a means of sequence augmentation during training, such as augmenting a HMM using  
72 simulated evolution [34], or generating from a PSSM [7]. Other methods include using generative  
73 adversarial networks (GANs) for -omics data augmentation [17, 41] or injecting noise by replacing  
74 amino acids from a uniform distribution [31]. For genomic sequences, augmentations can be formed  
75 using reverse complements and extending (or cropping) genome flanks [13, 33].

## 76 3 Evolution as Sequence Augmentation

77 Here, we outline how phylogenetic augmentation fits into the contrastive learning framework, using  
78 SimCLR [14] as an example contrastive learning method. As outlined in Figure 1, homologous

79 sequences can be considered as “evolutionary augmented views” of a common ancestor,  $x$ . Sequences  
 80  $v_1$  and  $v_2$  are encoded by an encoder  $g(\cdot)$  to obtain embeddings  $z_1$  and  $z_2$ . The pair of embeddings  
 81 augmented from the same ancestor – that is, embeddings of homologous sequences – will be the  
 82 positive pair  $(v_1, v_2^+) \sim p(v_1, v_2)$ . To sample negative samples  $\{v_{2_j}^-\}_{j=1}^{N-1}$  from  $p(v_2)$ , we can draw  
 83 negatives from all non-homologous sequences.

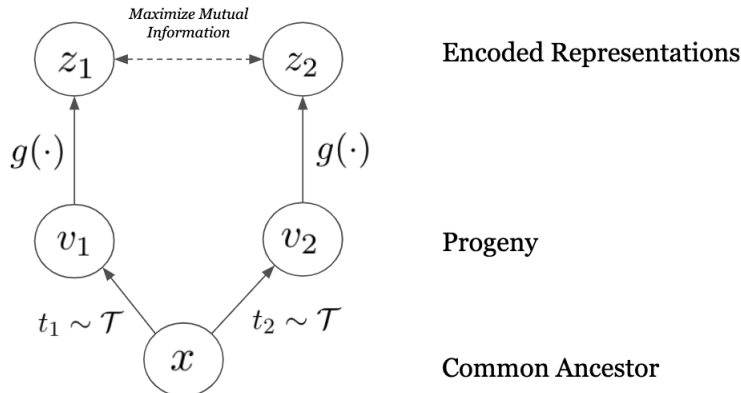


Figure 1: SimCLR [14] can be re-casted as a phylogenetic tree where augmentations are evolution. In the original Chen et al. [14] paper,  $x$  is an input image, and two image augmentation methods,  $t_1$  and  $t_2$ , are sampled from a set of image augmentation methods  $\mathcal{T}$ , to produce image augmentation  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ , which are then passed into a trainable encoder  $g(\cdot)$  (i.e.  $g_1$  and  $g_2$  share parameters entirely). In conceptualizing evolution as an augmentation strategy,  $x$  can be viewed as a common ancestor, while  $\mathcal{T}$  are possible evolutionary trajectories, characterized by different evolutionary distance, mutation and genetic drift, and  $t_1, t_2$  are two example trajectories that lead to  $v_1$  and  $v_2$ , sampled from a set of homologs. Note that notations are adapted from the original SimCLR paper for consistency with the current work.

84 The key idea is that properties of the ancestral sequence that were important for its biological function  
 85 will be preserved in both descendants (i.e. views). By training the encoder to project these to nearby  
 86 locations in the latent space, we ensure that proximity in the latent space corresponds to similar  
 87 biological functions without explicit labels during pretraining, analogous to how SimCLR learns  
 88 semantic content without image labels. We see that contrastive learning frameworks such as SimCLR  
 89 can be directly adapted to capture phylogenetic principles.

## 90 4 Why Evolution as Biological Sequence Augmentation?

### 91 4.1 Invariant Representations Across Evolutionary “Noisy-Channels” Mirrors 92 Comparative Genomics

93 *Biological sequences are vehicles for information transmission.* As such, information theoretic  
 94 principles are directly applicable to biological sequence analyses, and therefore, this may be more a  
 95 more powerful approach than methods based on the analogy with natural language [3, 47, 45, 19].

96 The analogy between molecular evolution and noisy-channel coding is well-rooted in prior work  
 97 [20, 39, 54, 35]: DNA dictates information transmission across generations, which must be transferred  
 98 through a noisy “mutation and drift channel”. Further, as noted in Kimura [30], as the genotype-to-  
 99 phenotype manifestation is information transfer, and genomic information is passed down by heredity,  
 100 we may view functional phenotypes as “decoded” information that was transmitted from a common  
 101 ancestor via molecular evolution. Drawing from these writings, we argue that using maximizing  
 102 mutual information across homologs is a good proxy for structure and function [1], which are the  
 103 central aims for biological sequence embeddings [45].

104 Even without relying on the mutual information estimation interpretation of the InfoNCE loss, the  
 105 contrastive learning objective directly encourage representational invariance to shared features across  
 106 views [14]. Therefore, in using phylogenetic relationships to create views, learned representations  
 107 directly capture the philosophy of *evolutionary conservation* in comparative genomics: functional

108 elements will be preserved in comparisons of related sequences, while non-functional sequences  
109 will decay. Hence, functional elements in biological sequences can be identified through sequence  
110 comparisons [23]. This is perhaps the most successfully employed presumption in bioinformatics  
111 [16, 4].

112 We therefore argue that InfoMax-based deep learning on evolutionary augmentation has two attractive  
113 features from the biological perspective: (1) Molecular evolution and the genotype-to-phenotype  
114 relationship has a clear analogy to information transmission; and (2) contrastive learning in this  
115 setting encourages agreement between important features across evolutionary views (homologous  
116 sequences), which directly mirrors comparative genomics.

## 117 4.2 Evolutionary Augmentation is a Theoretically Desirable View

118 Tian et al. [51] proposes the “InfoMin” principle for selecting optimal views. The authors theoretically  
119 and empirically demonstrate that good views should have *minimize* their shared MI while keeping  
120 *task-relevant* information intact for downstream uses. More formally, for a downstream classification  
121 task  $C$  to predict label  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  from  $x$ , the optimal representation  $z^* = g_1(x)$  is the minimal  
122 sufficient statistic for task  $C$ , such the representation is as useful as access to  $x$  while disregarding all  
123 nuisance in  $x$  [52, 50]. Then, the optimal views of task  $C$  is  $(v_1^*, v_2^*) = \min_{v_1; v_2} I(v_1; v_2)$ , subject to  
124  $I(v_1; y) = I(v_2; y) = I(x; y)$ . Given  $(v_1^*, v_2^*)$ , the learned representations  $(z_1^*, z_2^*)$  are optimal for  
125 task  $C$ .<sup>1</sup>

126 There are two implications in adapting the InfoMin principle to biology which render evolutionary  
127 augmentations desirable. Firstly, sampling evolutionary trajectories  $t_1, t_2 \sim \mathcal{T}$  to create  $v_1 = t_1(x)$   
128 and  $v_2 = t_2(x)$  provide a simple way to reduce  $I(v_1, v_2)$  by selecting paired views  $(v_1, v_2^+)$  with a  
129 greater phylogenetic distance between them. Secondly, note that in order to choose views based on  
130 the InfoMin principle, access to labels  $y \in \mathcal{Y}$  and knowledge of task  $C$  is needed. In fact, *supervised*  
131 contrastive learning [29] empirically yields improved results by explicitly sampling negatives from a  
132 different downstream class. If given labels for a downstream biological task of interest (e.g. remote  
133 homology), one can explicitly negative sample from dissimilar classes (e.g. different folds); however,  
134 owing to the difficult label-acquisition process and open-ended nature of biological questions, access  
135 to  $\mathcal{Y}$  – or even task  $C$  – may not be always possible. Further, it is often desirable for biological  
136 sequence embeddings to be “universal representations” [3] and applicable for a variety of downstream  
137 tasks [45]. As noted in Section 4.2, evolutionary conservation is a good proxy for many tasks of  
138 interest (e.g. structure and function).

139 Thus, we see that in transferring theoretical results for optimal view selection to the biological setting,  
140 evolution as augmentation is desirable, as: (1) It is easy to control shared mutual information between  
141 views; and (2) evolutionary conservation is a good semantic proxy for downstream labels, and  
142 implicitly performs *supervised* contrastive learning while still circumventing expensive experimental  
143 label gathering. Hence, it may be best considered a general strategy for weakly-supervised contrastive  
144 learning.

## 145 5 Conclusion

146 Current methods for self-supervised representation learning in biology are mostly adapted from  
147 NLP methods. Contrastive learning achieves state-of-the-art results in the image modality, and  
148 has a desirable theoretical property of being a lower-bound estimator of mutual information. We  
149 demonstrate how evolution can be used as a sequence augmentation strategy for contrastive learning,  
150 and provide justifications for doing so from biological and theoretical perspectives. More generally,  
151 data augmentation is a critical preprocessing step in many image analysis applications of deep  
152 learning, but is it less clear how to augment data for biological sequence analysis. As research in  
153 applications of deep learning in biology expand, we hope the view of evolution as augmentation will  
154 guide the ideation of deep learning methods in computational biology.

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<sup>1</sup>The optimal property of representations  $(z_1^*, z_2^*)$  assumes access to an encoder which serve as a minimal sufficient statistic of the input [50]. More formally, a “sufficient encoder”  $g_{\text{sufficient}}$  require that  $g_{\text{sufficient}}(v_1)$  has kept all information about  $v_2$  in  $v_1$ , and a “minimal sufficient encoder”  $g_1 \in \mathcal{G}_{\text{sufficient}}$  discards all irrelevant “nuisance” information such that  $I(g_1(v_1); v_1) \leq I(g_{\text{sufficient}}(v_1); v_1), \forall g_{\text{sufficient}} \in \mathcal{G}_{\text{sufficient}}$ .

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## 293 **A InfoMax Principle and Mutual Information Estimation for** 294 **Representation Learning**

### 295 **A.1 InfoMax for Representation Learning**

296 Using InfoMax for representation learning extends as far back as ICA [11]. As described in Equation  
297 1, in recent years, works typically maximize mutual information of two *encoded* “views” of an input  
298 (e.g. different patches of an image, or augmentations). By the data processing inequality, Tschannen  
299 et al. [53] show that:

$$I(g_1(v_1); g_2(v_2)) \leq I(x; g_1(v_1), g_2(v_2)), \quad (3)$$

300 such that maximizing Equation 1 is equivalent to maximizing a lower bound on the true InfoMax  
301 objective. This ability to minimize the mutual information in the latent embedding space rather than  
302 directly between the input and the encoded output (as per the original InfoMax formulation) has two  
303 advantages [53]: (1) MI is notoriously difficult to estimate in high dimensions, and this allows for MI  
304 estimation in a lower-dimensional space; (2) creative choices of  $\mathcal{G}$  can be used, which accommodates  
305 specific modeling needs and data intricacies.

### 306 **A.2 InfoNCE Estimator**

307 InfoNCE is one of many mutual information estimators, and following the rationale in Section A.1,  
308 the original Oord et al. [43] paper does this estimation in the embedding space. For the InfoNCE  
309 loss (Equation 2) which estimates  $I(z_1; z_2) = I(g_1(v_1); g_2(v_2))$  in Equation 3, the optimal critic  
310 function is  $f^*(z_1, z_2) = \frac{p(z_2|z_1)}{p(z_1)}$  [43]. Inserting this in the InfoNCE loss function (Equation 1) and  
311 rearranging, we have the bound [43, 44]:

$$I(z_1, z_2) \geq \log(N) - \mathcal{L}_{\text{NCE}}^* \quad (4)$$

312 where  $N$  is the number of samples. From Equation 4, note that the bound is tight when: (1) We use  
313 more samples for  $N$  which increases the  $\log(N)$  term; and (2) we have a better  $f$  which results in a  
314 lower  $\mathcal{L}_{\text{NCE}}$ . Empirically, most works corroborate the former theoretical observation regarding  $N$   
315 (exceptions being Arora et al. [6], Lu et al. [38]), while the latter observation regarding  $f$  does not  
316 usually hold, as will be further discussed in Section A.3.

317 The contrastive nature of the InfoNCE loss stems from its direct adaptation of the noise-contrastive  
318 estimation (NCE) method [22]. Noise-contrastive estimation was originally proposed for the problem  
319 of estimating parameters for unnormalized statistical models in high dimensions, by reducing the  
320 problem to simply estimating logistic regression parameters to distinguish between observed data and  
321 noise. In InfoNCE, the distinction is made between “similarity scores”, as scored by critic  $f(z_1, z_2)$ ,  
322 for one positive pair and  $N - 1$  negative pairs of encoded views.

### 323 **A.3 Other Mutual Information Estimators**

324 The InfoNCE estimator is one of many approaches which builds on advancements in variational  
325 methods to create differentiable and tractable sample-based mutual information estimators in high  
326 dimensions [15, 9, 42, 2, 10, 43, 27]. Many of these estimations involve a “critic” classifier,  $f$ .  
327 In practice,  $f$  might be a bilinear model  $z_1^T W z_2$  [43, 26, 51], separate models  $\phi(z_1)^T \phi(z_2)$  [8],  
328 modelling concatenated data  $\phi([z_1, z_2])$  [27], or a simple dot-product  $z_1^T z_2$  [14, 38]. There may be a  
329 different  $f$  for each view [43], or a global  $f$  [27].  $f$  is often trained jointly with  $g_1$  and  $g_2$ .

330 The aim of  $f$  is often to approximate the unknown densities  $p(B)$  and  $p(B|A)$ , or density ratios  
331  $\frac{p(A|B)}{p(B)} = \frac{p(B|A)}{p(A)}$  [44]. If  $I(A, B)$  is high, then  $f$  should intuitively be able to easily assign high  
332 probabilities to those samples drawn from  $p(A, B)$  [53]. The InfoNCE estimator reduces variance as  
333 compared to other estimators, by depending on multiple samples, but trades off bias to do so [44].

334 Importantly, it should be noted that whether the empirical success of the InfoNCE loss should be  
335 attributable to mutual information estimation has been questioned [44, 53], instead attributing success  
336 to geometric properties in the latent space [55]. For example, a higher-capacity  $f$  should increase



337 tightness of the bound, as noted in Section A.2, yet hinders performance [53]. The development  
338 of MI-estimators useful for neural network training – and demystifying their empirical success –  
339 remains an active area of research. For the purposes of ideas in this work, we note that SimCLR-like  
340 contrastive losses itself intuitively maximizes agreement between views in the representation space  
341 without relying on the mutual information framing of the loss [14], and hence the connection to  
342 comparative genomics still hold.