Genomic Informational Field Theory (GIFT) to map complex traits in small sample sizes

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ABSTRACT

Genome-wide association studies (GWAS) are commonly used to investigate the genetic basis of complex traits. However, to be adequately powered they typically require large sample sizes to provide precise inferences. To address this challenge, this paper introduces GIFT, a novel data analytic method that enhances the power of genetic analyses, enabling the use of smaller datasets without compromising precision. In a small cohort of 157 ponies, GIFT was applied to examine the complex trait of "height at withers", comparing its performance to traditional GWAS. Only GIFT identified genetic loci linked to insulin physiology validating, in turn, a long-standing hypothesis that "height at withers" is associated with insulin physiology in equids, potentially promoting equine metabolic syndrome (EMS). Additionally, by redefining correlations between single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), GIFT offers new insights into linkage disequilibrium and epistatic interactions that, through the development of a network centrality measure, distinguishes core from peripheral genes within gene networks involved in "height at withers". By reducing the time and cost associated with large-scale genotype–phenotype mapping studies, GIFT expands access to quantitative genetic research, enabling smaller-scale investigations to explore the genetic architecture of complex traits with greater resolution.

NEW & NOTEWORTHY

Inferring genotype–phenotype associations typically requires large sample sizes, limiting many genetic studies. GIFT, a novel data analytics tool, overcomes this by enabling accurate association mapping in small datasets. We further show how GIFT's extended framework infers linkage disequilibrium, epistasis, and gene networks, distinguishing core from peripheral genes involved in complex traits. This advancement enhances understanding of biological architecture and enables high-resolution genetic research in limited cohorts, offering a powerful, cost-effective alternative to traditional large-scale approaches.

Keywords: Equids, Epistasis, Gene networks, Linkage Disequilibrium.

INTRODUCTION

Identifying associations between phenotype and genotype is the fundamental basis of genetic analysis and GWAS is currently the method of choice for mapping genotype to phenotype in large populations. It is expected that large-scale GWASs will elucidate the genetic basis of complex traits. The need for "large-scale" GWAS arises from the statistical requirements of the method requiring very large populations to produce valid inferences when effect sizes are small. A prime example of large-scale GWAS applied to a complex trait is the genetic analysis of the phenotype "standing height" in humans. A recent international GWAS involving an unprecedented sample size of 5.4 million individuals successfully produced a saturated map of genetic variants associated with human height (1). Although this represents a landmark achievement in genetics, it also highlights the limitations of GWAS, whose success relies heavily on data acquisition to generate adequately powered studies, an activity that is time-intensive and costly. While human genetic studies benefit from substantial funding and large-scale GWAS capabilities, research on non-human species, especially those facing extinction, often lacks the necessary resources to conduct similar studies (2). As a result, there is a need to explore alternative methods, increasing the investigative power of biological datasets when sample sizes are small.

GWAS is based on the statistical framework developed by Fisher more than 100 years ago. It partitions genotypic values and performs linear regression of phenotype on marker allelic dosage. Regression coefficients estimate the average allele effect sizes, and the regression variance is the additive genetic variance due to the locus. However, there is ongoing debates about whether the statistical method underpinning GWAS is optimal for understanding complex traits (3, 4).

In GWAS, statistical associations rely on frequency or count plots like bar charts or histograms, which categorize data into bins. These plots, known as distribution density functions (DDFs), form the basis of frequentist probability, determining key statistical measures such as averages and variance that are used to infer genotype-phenotype associations. However, this approach involves the loss of significant amounts of information from datasets. To comprehend this point, consider a population where phenotypic data are measured with high precision, making each data point unique. When grouped into bins to form DDFs, individual distinctions are lost since it is not possible to differentiate data within a given category, even though the data were initially differentiated. While averages and variances derived from DDFs appear informative, they are inherently based on this reduced representation limiting access to fine-grained information. Increasing the sample size might improve the precision of statistical summaries, i.e., average and variance, but it does not recover the lost individual details.

This raises a fundamental question: Is more data always beneficial if the method inherently disregards fine-grained information?

GIFT is a novel data analytics method designed to overcome this conceptual limitation by analyzing the full biodiversity of data without requiring data categorization. Through theoretical simulations (5, 6) and analysis of various datasets with sample sizes comparable to those used in GWASs (7), GIFT has been shown to enhance both investigative and discriminative powers of genetic studies. However, the ability of GIFT to operate effectively with smaller sample sizes and provide essential genetic information has not yet been shown.

Herein, using a small cohort of 157 ponies and focusing on the complex trait "height at withers" the investigative powers of GWAS and GIFT are compared. Several reasons motivated the focus on "height at withers".

First, like "standing height" in humans, "height at withers" in equids is a classic complex trait positively selected during domestication and correlated with other morphometric traits (8–10). With a well-established heritability, GWASs have investigated its genetic background (9, 11–24). Thus, GIFT-derived variants can be benchmarked against GWAS results in the equine species and compared to similar phenotype, i.e., "body size" or "body height", across different species.

Second, "height at withers" is suspected to be associated with equine metabolic syndrome (EMS) (11). EMS
describes a cluster of metabolic disturbances predisposing horses to laminitis, a condition where insulin
dysregulation plays a central role (11, 16, 25, 26). While a GWAS identified HMGA2 (High mobility group AT-
hook protein 2) and IRAK3 (Interleukin-1 receptor-associated kinase 3) as associated with "height at withers"
in a cohort of 236 ponies, no genes were linked to insulin physiology (11). However, since a retrospective
correlation was identified between blood insulin concentrations and HMGA2 allelic dosages (11), it was
hypothesized that GIFT could reveal further genetic insights into the relationship between insulin physiology
and "height at withers".
Third, it is postulated that complex traits can be omnigenic involving core and peripheral genes (27). Validating
this new paradigm using GWAS would necessitate large sample sizes to detail any information on gene
networks. However, since GIFT provides a more detailed genetic analysis, it was hypothesized that redefining
SNP and gene pairwise correlations using GIFT could offer a fresh perspective on linkage disequilibrium (LD)
and epistasis informing, in turn, on the potential validity of the omnigenic paradigm.
The results herein demonstrate that GIFT's approach is adequate when small sample sizes are used, yielding
new insights into the genetic architecture of complex traits.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Data collection

106 Data from a study performed by Knowles *et al.* were re-used in which blood collection was performed and the
107 "height at withers" measured in a number of different breeds (25). In order to remain coherent with the study
108 by Norton *et al* (11), Shetland ponies were removed from the current study resulting in a final sample size of
109 157 ponies

Equine genome sequencing

111 Blood samples collected (buffy coats) were used for DNA extractions (LGC Biosciences) and genotyping
112 individuals using the Axiom™ Equine Genotyping Array (MNEC670, Cambridge Genomic Services). Further to
113 Axiom Analysis Suite following best practices pathway, a total of 478498 quality controlled single nucleotide
114 polymorphisms were identified.

Phenotype 'height at withers'

Measurements of "height at withers" obtained in (25) were pre-analysed. A Kolmogorov-Smirnov test
performed against raw data for the height returning a p-value of 0.05101 suggested that raw data are not
normally distributed, requiring the need to pre-correct data for fixed effects. Phenotypic data were then pre-
corrected for the fixed effects of Breed (B) and sex (S) in R-studio (GMMAT package) using the following linear
model, $H_{ij} = \mu + B_i + S_j + e_{ij}$, where H_{ij} is the "height at withers" resulting from the ith Breed and j^{th} Sex
(Male vs Female); μ is the overall mean; B_i is the effect of the ith Breed (i =1,..,7); S_j the effect of jth Sex (Male
vs Female) and, e_{ij} is the residual. With this correction, a new Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was performed against
the residual values for the height, i.e., the e_{ij}-values, providing an acceptable p-value of 0.8357 demonstrating,
in turn, that the e_{ij}-values are quasi-normally distributed and usable by GWAS.

GWAS

The genotype dataset was filtered using PLINK (HWE p-value threshold of 10^{-6}, call rate for genotypes of 10%
and a MAF of 1%), the number of independent SNPs ($N_{Ind-SNPs} = 73792$) was determined using BCFTOOLS
(r^2-threshold=0.1) and the GWAS Manhattan plots, linked to the determination of the GWAS p-values (p_{GWAS}),
were obtained using GEMMA. The threshold of significance for GWAS was determined using 99% and 95%
Bonferroni   corrections,   numerically   given   by, $-Log(0.01/N_{Ind-SNPs}) = 6.8680$ and
$-Log(0.05/N_{Ind-SNPs}) = 6.1690$, respectively. The code to determine the Manhattan plot for GWAS in
Fig.1A in the text is given in supplemental code S14.

GIFT

The same genotype and phenotypic residuals given by the e_{ij}-values, as filtered by GWAS, were used for GIFT.
Regarding the representation of GIFT, upon selecting a SNP the different genotypes were assigned arbitrary
values of +1, 0, and -1, respectively. More specifically, the assignment of values +1, 0, and -1 were done as a
function of the base pairs as follows: AA=TT=+1, GG=CC=-1, and 0 otherwise. The microstates +1, -1 and zero
are respectively color coded in red, blue and grey in the figures to facilitate the representation of genetic

paths. With this convention, any barcode can be represented by a string of numbers from which a GIFT analysis
can be inferred (Supplemental_Text_S1.doc). As GIFT is not amenable to Bonferroni correction, a different
method was used to set a threshold of significance. The information captured by GIFT for a given SNP concerns
the relative ordering of microstates in their string to which a p-value, noted $\hat{p}_{GIFT}$, can be numerically
determined as explained in (7) or in the Supplemental_Text_S1.doc. To consider the false discovery rate (FDR)
Benjamini-Yekutieli procedure (BYp) was applied to the different $\hat{p}_{GIFT}$-values, in turn translating the different
$\hat{p}_{GIFT}$-values toward smaller values noted, p_{GIFT}, in the text. To set a threshold of significance a null hypothesis
was required at the population level. To capture this global null hypothesis for each string of microstates, i.e.,
each SNP, all the microstates were randomly permutated once and the corresponding $\hat{p}_{GIFT}$ value resulting
from the permutation determined. This operation provided a probability density function of $\hat{p}_{GIFT}$-values. By
determining the 99.9% and 99% quantiles of this distribution two thresholds of significance were determined
and used in the present study. The code to determine the Manhattan for GIFT in Fig.1B in the main text is
given in Supplemental_Code_S15.html. The code to determine the 1,000 random permutations in Fig.1E in
the main text is given in supplemental_Code_S16.html.
Enrichment and correlation analyses
Enrichment analyses were performed using STRING, Uniprot, Ensembl, Gephi and the GWAS catalog (31, 41,
42, 62, 65) as cited in the text. Pearson correlations between genetic paths were performed using R-studio
and the measure of centrality using Matlab.

RESULTS

Manhattan Plots using GWAS or GIFT
GIFT is a method designed to decouple the notion of precision in phenotypic measurements from that of
sample size, providing genotype-phenotype associations without relying on data categorization or grouping
(Supplemental_Text_S1.doc). Measurements of "height at withers" obtained by Knowles et al. (2023) were
pre-corrected for the fixed effects of breed and sex (25). Further to this correction, phenotypic residual values
(Supplemental_Data_S2.xls) were demonstrated to be adequately normally distributed using Kolmogorov-
Smirnov test and usable by GWAS and GIFT (Supplemental_Figure_S3.doc). Association analyses using GWAS
and GIFT based on the phenotypic residual values were then performed and plotted under the form of
Manhattan plots. Fig.1 presents the Manhattan plots for both GWAS (Fig.1A) and GIFT (Fig.1B). Concentrating
on the highest threshold levels for GWAS and GIFT, the significant SNPs were then mapped to the reference
horse genome assembly (EquCab3.0) available on Ensembl to retrieve the corresponding gene Id and gene
name when available. The results summarized in Table 1 and Table 2 clearly demonstrate that SNPs located
on chromosome 6 are highly significant. However, while GWAS identifies 5 significant SNPs associated with
the HMGA2 gene, GIFT detects 28 significant SNPs for the same gene on chromosome 6. Notably, GIFT also
highlights significant SNPs on chromosome 2 that are not detected by GWAS. Figures 1C and 1D provide a
comparative visualization of two representative SNPs using both GWAS and GIFT. Figure 1C shows the most
significant SNP on chromosome 6, identified by both methods, whereas Figure 1D presents the most significant
SNP on chromosome 2, uniquely identified by GIFT. Interestingly, the SNP on chromosome 2 exhibiting a
sigmoidal genetic path (Figure 1D, right panels) lacks a traditionally defined gene effect size (Figure 1D, left
panel).
To confirm that the significant SNPs identified by GIFT result from the unique organization of their microstates
rather than random chance, the microstates of each significant SNP were randomly permuted 1,000 times.
After each permutation, the significance level, i.e., the value of $-\text{Log}_{10}(p_{GIFT})$, was determined. The
statistical summary of these significance values after 1,000 random permutations was summarized as a
boxplot (Fig. 1E). These values were then compared to the original significance value of the same SNP, as
determined in Fig. 1b, and represented as a blue dot in Fig.1E. Fig.1E confirms that GIFT's identification of
genotype–phenotype associations is not due to random chance. Additionally, using the identified gene names
in Table 1 and Table 2, STRING analyses were conducted employing a minimum required interaction score of
0.4 using the *Equus caballus* species. The enrichment p-values for GWAS (Table 1) and GIFT (Table 2) are 1
and 0.0303, respectively. These findings further confirm that the set of genes identified by GIFT is not random,
highlighting that GIFT enhances the investigative power of biological datasets.

Finally, to assess whether GIFT can operate effectively with smaller sample sizes, the original dataset (N=157)
was randomly subsampled to N=140, 120, and 100. For each subsample, the values of $-\text{Log}_{10}(\text{p}_{\text{GIFT}})$
corresponding to the most significant SNPs (Fig.1E) were recalculated, along with updated quantile thresholds.
This procedure was repeated 10 times for each sample size to compute the mean and standard deviation of
$-\text{Log}_{10}(\text{p}_{\text{GIFT}})$ for the top SNPs (Fig.1E). As shown in Fig.1F, although a decrease in the magnitude of
$-\text{Log}_{10}(\text{p}_{\text{GIFT}})$ is observed with smaller sample sizes, the majority of the average values remain above the
99% quantile threshold when N=120. Notably, N=100 appears to represent the lower limit for reliable GIFT
performance, as a substantial portion of the average $-\text{Log}_{10}(\text{p}_{\text{GIFT}})$ values approach the 99% quantile
threshold. Nevertheless, the most significant SNPs, typically exhibiting $-\text{Log}_{10}(\text{p}_{\text{GIFT}}) > 20$ at N=157
(Fig.1E), remain above the 99% quantile threshold, even at this reduced sample size.
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Biological relevance of genes determined by GIFT
While GWAS previously identified HMGA2 and IRAK3 as the only significant associations with "height at
withers" in a cohort of 249 ponies (11), using a different and smaller cohort of 157 ponies the GIFT method
expands these findings to other genes also known to be associated to body size but in other species. For
example, genes associated to the trait "body size" are HMGA2 and MSRB3 (Methionine-R-sulfoxide reductase
B3) in sheep and dogs (28, 29) and, HMGA2 and IRAK3 in cattle (30). Interestingly, HMGA2, MSRB3, IRAK3 and
TMBIM4 (Transmembrane BAX Inhibitor Motif Containing 4) are located in close proximity within the equid
genome (11). Although the absence of SNPs associated with the insulin gene in the GIFT or GWAS results may
appear unexpected, it is explained by the gene array used, which lacked coverage at the genomic locations of
the insulin gene.
To assess whether any of the gene names listed in Table 1 and Table 2 have previously been associated with
the phenotype "body height" in humans, the GWAS Catalog (31) was used. Table 3 provides a summary of this
cross-species comparison, connecting each gene name from Table 1 and Table 2 to the study accession Ids
from the GWAS catalog when found. Of the 20 gene names listed in Table 1 only 6, namely, OXCT1 (3-Oxoacid
CoA-Transferase 1), IRAK3, FUT1 (fucosyltranferase 1), EN1 (engrailed Homeobox 1), IRS2 (insulin receptor
substrate 2) and BECN2 (beclin 2), have no equivalent in the GWAS catalog for the phenotype selected.
Regarding genes associated with insulin physiology, a selection of genes was examined for their roles in insulin
action, insulin secretion, glucose uptake and homeostasis, or energy metabolism. Given the limited molecular
biology studies in equids, this investigation was extended to other species.
Insulin Action: IRS2 plays a key role in initiating the signalling pathway upon insulin binding to its receptor (32),
facilitating glucose uptake (33). Knockout studies of IRS2 have demonstrated phenotypes characterized by
glucose intolerance (34). Additionally, PALLD (Palladin), a cytoskeletal protein, is essential for active actin
remodelling and the formation of membrane ruffles (35), a process integral to insulin signalling due to its role
in the membrane translocation of specific GLUT family members (36).
Insulin Secretion: The KCNB1 (Kv2.1) gene encodes a critical potassium channel expressed in the β-cells of
pancreatic cell lines (37). This channel influences insulin secretion levels from pancreatic β-cells (38).
Mutations in KCNB1 have been implicated in insulin resistance in humans (39), and its expression is notably
lower in human patients with type 2 diabetes (40).
Glucose uptake and homeostasis: Information on MFSDB4 (Major Facilitator Superfamily Domain Containing
4B) is limited. However, a Uniprot search predicts this gene functions as a sodium-dependent glucose
transporter, derived from an ancestral gene identified in rats that shares the glucose uptake function (41, 42).
According to Ensembl gene tree analyses, MFSDB4 and its ancestral gene share a common origin
approximately 96 million years ago (43). Additionally, in mice the SLIT2 (Slit Guidance Ligand 2) gene has been
shown to improves glucose homeostasis (44), while BECL2 was shown to be a regulator of body weight and
glucose homeostasis in human (45). Interestingly, the genetic locus that contains human BECL2 on
chromosome 1q43 in human, has been linked to obesity and diabetes-related traits in multiple ethnic
populations (46–50).
Energy Metabolism: Among metabolically involved genes, CRB4 (Carbonyl Reductase Family Member 4) is a
mitochondrial NADPH-dependent reductase involved in quinone reduction and fatty acid biosynthesis, playing
a vital role in mitochondrial lipid metabolism and overall function (51). Impaired CBR4 functionality can disrupt
lipid metabolism in human, leading to lipid accumulation and insulin resistance (52). HIBCH (3-

Hydroxyisobutyryl-CoA Hydrolase) catalyzes the conversion of 3-hydroxyisobutyryl-CoA to 3-
hydroxyisobutyrate (3-HIB) as part of the valine catabolic pathway. Reduced valine and elevated 3-HIB blood
concentration levels have been associated with the heightened energy demands of endurance racing in horses
(53). Elevated blood level of 3-HIB likely reflects its role as an inter-organ metabolite that mediates the
gluconeogenic potential of valine (54). Interestingly, 3-HIB blood concentration is also a marker of insulin
resistance in human (55). SLIT2 involved in promoting thermogenesis of adipose tissue and energy expenditure
in mice (44), is also associated with backfat thickness in pigs (56). In addition, EN1 has been shown to stimulate
brown adipogenesis and thermogenesis in mice (57), IRAK3 has been demonstrated to be related to the early
onset of obesity-related insulin resistance and metabolic syndrome in human (58) and, OXCT1, a rate limiting
enzyme of ketone oxidation, has been found to reverse obesity-induced hyperglycemia in mice when inhibited
using gene knock-out or pharmacological intervention (59, 60).
Altogether, GIFT's cross-species comparative results strongly suggest that insulin physiology is associated with
the phenotype "height at withers" in the equine species. Notably, the genes listed in Table 2 are located on
different chromosomes, indicating that GIFT's pairwise SNP correlations may offer novel insights into linkage
disequilibrium (LD) and epistasis contributing to this phenotype.
256
GIFT's determination of LD
At the core of GIFT lies the concept of the genetic path, represented by $\Delta\theta$ in Fig.1C and Fig.1D (right panels)
for each SNP in the genome. The overall pattern of $\Delta\theta$s reflects the ordering of genetic microstates when the
sample is ordered by phenotypic residual values (Supplemental_Text_S1.doc). Consequently, SNPs similarly
related to the phenotype exhibit comparable large $\Delta\theta$ patterns. Conversely, SNPs that are unrelated to the
phenotype give small and noisy $\Delta\theta$ curves. This property is essential to determine precise correlations
between loci, which can be compared to that of usual LD definition. An example will illustrate this point. Using
GIFT, HMGA2 contains 28 significant SNPs (Table 2) and it is therefore possible to determine the local LD in
the portion of genome that defines this protein. The measure of LD commonly used, a.k.a. the r^2 measure of
LD, is given by (61):

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$$r^2 = \frac{(p_{ab} - p_a p_b)^2}{p_a(1-p_a)p_b(1-p_b)} \tag{1}$$

where p_{ab} is the frequency of haplotypes having allele 'a' at locus 1 and allele 'b' at locus 2. As the square of
a correlation, r^2 can range from 0 to 1 as p_a, p_b and p_{ab} vary. In Fig.2A, the genetic paths $\theta(i)$ and $\theta_0(i)$
pertaining to the first 16 SNPs belonging to HMGA2, enumerated from 1 to 16 in the figures, are represented.
At the exception of SNPs 5, 7 and 8 on one hand, and SNPs 11, 12, 15 and 16 on another, the curves determined
by, $\theta(i)$ and $\theta_0(i)$, for each SNP are clearly different. In Fig.2B the r^2 measure of LD for HMGA2 is
determined where the enumeration of SNPs (from 1 to 16) is given next to their SNP-Id on the diagonal. Fig.2B
demonstrates that while the r^2 measure of LD for HMGA2 (detailed in Supplemental_Data_S7.xls) is very
patchy, strong correlations exist between some SNPs. It is interesting to note from Fig.2B that while the
correlation between SNPs 6 and 10, marked by a white star in Fig.2B is strong, the paths are anti-symmetrical.
This anti-symmetry arises because, for SNP6, the path begins with '-1' (blue) microstates and ends with '+1'
(red) microstates, whereas the opposite is observed for SNP10. In contrast, this effect is not reflected in equation
(1), as it considers the entire population to compute bulk probabilities (p_a, p_b, p_{ab}), meaning that the notion of
ordering does not influence the result from equation (1). This highlights that the initial and arbitrary assignment
of microstates ('+1' and '-1') is not fundamental for the r² measure of LD.
To develop a novel measure of LD based on genetic paths, while maintaining the core principles of equation
(1), these paths can be rectified and overlapped to reveal their underlying patterns. This is possible by swapping
the initial assignment of microstates ('+1' and '-1'). Note that as the level of significance calculated by GIFT
relies on the amplitude of $\Delta\theta$ (see supplemental text S1 or (7)), changing the initial assignment of microstates,
e.g., swapping the microstates '+1' and '-1', does not change the level of significance calculated. In the left
panel of Fig.2C, the genetic paths ($\Delta\theta$s) of all SNPs within HMGA2 are plotted. In the right panel of Fig.2C,
these paths are rectified and overlapped, revealing the presence of two distinct groups of genetic paths (light
grey and dark grey). Since the key to inferring associations with the phenotype lies in the overall pattern of
these genetic paths, a refined measure of LD as described by GIFT can be formulated simply using Pearson's
correlation formula in the following form:

$$r_{GIFT}^2 = \frac{[cov(\Delta\theta_1, \Delta\theta_2)]^2}{var(\Delta\theta_1)var(\Delta\theta_2)} \qquad (2)$$

Where $\Delta\theta_1$ and $\Delta\theta_2$ represent two genetic paths with, $var(\Delta\theta_p) = \frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\Delta\theta_p(i) - \langle\Delta\theta_p(i)\rangle)^2$ where $p \in$

$\{1,2\}$ and, $cov(\Delta\theta_1, \Delta\theta_2) = \frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\Delta\theta_1(i) - \langle\Delta\theta_1(i)\rangle)(\Delta\theta_2(i) - \langle\Delta\theta_2(i)\rangle)$. Note that with equation (2) the

initial and arbitrary assignment of microstates is not fundamental. This can be demonstrated trivially as

swapping '+1' and '-1' in $\Delta\theta_1(i)$ transforms it in $-\Delta\theta_1(i)$ with a resulting $r_{GIFT}^2 = \frac{[cov(-\Delta\theta_1, \Delta\theta_2)]^2}{var(-\Delta\theta_1)var(\Delta\theta_2)} =$

$\frac{[-cov(\Delta\theta_1, \Delta\theta_2)]^2}{var(\Delta\theta_1)var(\Delta\theta_2)} = \frac{[cov(\Delta\theta_1, \Delta\theta_2)]^2}{var(\Delta\theta_1)var(\Delta\theta_2)}$.

Using equation (2), Fig.2D presents a new heatmap of SNP pairwise correlations for HMGA2 (detailed in

Supplemental_Data_S8.xls). This result reveals stronger correlations between SNPs that are not apparent in

Fig.2B. Notably, examining the microstate composition of the two groups of genetic paths in Fig.2E clarifies

why they can be distinguished in Fig.2C, given the possible reassignment of microstates '+1' and '-1'. Each

group exhibits highly similar microstate profiles, resulting in slightly different levels of significance (Fig.2F).

GIFT's determination of epistasis

Returning to the set of significant SNPs identified by GIFT in Table 2, heatmaps using equation (1) (Fig.3A)

and equation (2) (Fig.3B) were generated to assess pairwise correlations between SNPs. The detail of pairwise

correlations between SNPs using equations (1) and (2) are reported in Supplemental_Data_S9.xls and

Supplemental_Data_S10.xls, respectively. Notably, equation (1) does not suggest strong correlations between

SNPs across different chromosomes (Fig.3A), whereas equation (2) indicates the opposite (Fig.3B). Since all

SNPs represented in Fig.3B are significant, the absence of correlation between two SNPs implies that their

genetic paths, i.e., their $\Delta\theta$ curves, differ in nature, for instance one following a parabolic trajectory and the

other a sigmoidal one. To assess the presence of strong correlations using Eq.2 a threshold of $1 \geq r_{GIFT}^2 \geq 0.90$

was set generating a new heatmap (Supplemental_Figure_S11.doc). To determine strongly pairwise correlated

gene names the average of pairwise correlation between SNPs pertaining to any two genes and noted $\langle r_{GIFT}^2 \rangle$

was used as numerical representative of pairwise correlation between genes (mean and variance of pairwise

correlations are given in Supplemental_Data_S12.xls). As relatively large haplotype blocks are expected in the

equine species due to breeding practices, only strongly correlated gene names across different chromosomes

were selected and represented under the form of networks in Fig.3C, with the edge colors representing the

strength of correlation resulting from $\langle r_{GIFT}^2 \rangle$. For information, an enrichment p-value of 0.00887 for both

networks was obtained conducting a STRING analysis employing a minimum required interaction score of 0.4

for the *Equus caballus* species. Since the connecting edges exhibited varying correlation values, some rectified

genetic paths were grouped and plotted. This approach provided insight into the qualitative differences between

genetic paths from different chromosomes with varying correlation strengths. Fig.3D demonstrates that the

paraboloid genetic paths (top panel) pertaining to TMBIM4, IRAK3 and OXCT1 with a resulting average

correlation between edges of $\langle r_{GIFT}^2 \rangle \sim 0.97$ are visibly overlapped. A similar procedure was applied for

sigmoidal paths (Fig.3D bottom panel) using CBR4, PALLD and IRS2 with an average correlation between

edges of $\langle r_{GIFT}^2 \rangle \sim 0.91$. These results demonstrate that the methodology underscoring GIFT can underline

correlations between genes located on the same chromosome or across different chromosomes.

While GIFT supports the identification of gene networks it also enables the detection of more nuanced genetic

structures. For instance, its analysis of the association between HMGA2 and the phenotype "height at withers"

revealed two distinct clusters of genetic pathways, i.e., two separate groups of SNPs (Fig.2C). To explore

whether these groups exhibit preferential correlations with specific gene names, they were analysed

individually. As summarized in Table 4, SNPs from Group 1 are more frequently associated with other gene

names than those from Group 2, highlighting GIFT's capacity to uncover fine-grained patterns of genetic

interaction.

The key result obtained by Fig.3 concerns the possibility to extract gene networks based on similarity between

genetic paths, underlining the possibility to detect what may be thought of as epistasis for complex traits.

GIFT's determination of gene-networks

Before applying correction measures for the false discovery rate, Bonferroni for GWAS and the Benjamini-

Yekutieli procedure for GIFT, nominal significance levels were set at 1% (99% quantile threshold) for GWAS

and 0.1% (99.9% quantile threshold) for GIFT. However, this constraint can be relaxed for GIFT by using a
nominal significance level similar to that of GWAS (i.e., 1%). Referring to Fig.1A and Fig.1B, this adjustment
corresponds to maintaining the threshold indicated by the dashed line for GWAS while adopting the threshold
represented by the continuous line for GIFT. Doing so allowed GIFT to identify 940 significant SNP-Ids,
corresponding to 421 gene-Ids and 282 final known gene names. To assess the presence of strong pairwise
correlations between SNPs using Eq.2, only r_{GIFT}^2 values within the range $1 \geq r_{GIFT}^2 \geq 0.90$ were considered.
The numerical details of SNP pairwise correlations are given in Supplemental_Data_S13.xls.

This approach resulted in a binary mapping of pairwise correlations, as shown in Fig.4A, highlighting what may
be termed as epistatic interactions. Next, using gene names and a mean correlation value for correlations also
within the range $1 \geq \langle r_{GIFT}^2 \rangle \geq 0.9$, the $N \times N$ adjacency matrix defined as $\boldsymbol{A} = (A_{i,j})$, where $N = 282$
corresponds to known gene names, $A_{i,j} = 1$ if genes 'i' and 'j' are connected or zero otherwise, was computed
and the gene networks visualized using the Fruchterman-Reingold layout in Gephi (62). With this layout genes
are represented with their level of connectivity shown by a circle whose radius increases as the level of
connectivity increases. As shown in Fig.4B, this representation differentiates genes with a high number of
connections, which are typically positioned near the center of the network, from those with fewer
connections, located at the periphery highlighting, in turn, a distinction between core and peripheral genes.
To assess the information from Fig.4B, the STRING database of known and predicted protein-protein
interactions was utilized. By analyzing all gene names presented in Fig. 4B, a STRING analysis was performed
with a minimum required interaction score of 0.4 for the *Equus caballus* species, yielding an enrichment p-
value of 0.000966. Fundamental to gene networks is the notion of gene centrality that determines a measure
of a gene's importance or influence within the network. One way to quantify centrality is through eigenvector
centrality using the adjacency matrix previously computed. As the gene networks from Fig.4B are undirected,
the matrix $\boldsymbol{A}$ is symmetric for each network, and the centrality measure for the gene 'i', denoted g_i, is related
to the centralities of i's neighboring genes in the network as follows:

$$g_i = \frac{1}{\lambda} \sum_{j=1}^{N} A_{i,j} \cdot g_j \hspace{4cm} (3)$$

where λ is the largest eigenvalue of matrix $\boldsymbol{A}$. Defining the vector of centralities as $\vec{g} = (g_1, g_2, \ldots, g_N)$, Eq.3
may be rewritten in matrix form:

$$\lambda \vec{g} = \boldsymbol{A} \cdot \vec{g} \hspace{4cm} (4)$$

The vector $\vec{g}$ may be normalized so that the most important gene in the network has a weight of 1, that is,
$max(g_i) = 1$. Table 5 provides the centrality measures of the first ten genes determined by GIFT.

To assess whether the information in Table 5 has some relevance for the human "height", the GWAS catalog
was used to determine whether the central genes found in equine were also found in previous GWASs. Of all
ten central genes from Table 5, TECPR1 (Tectonin beta-propeller repeat-containing protein 1) and IRAK3, are
the only ones showing no equivalence to humans from the GWAS catalog. However, it is worth noting that
TECPR1 is central in promoting the fusion of autophagosomes with lysosomes to promote autophagy (63), a
process up-regulated in the human adipose tissue of patients suffering of type 2 diabetes (64).

DISCUSSION

As statistical methods, GWAS and GIFT enable the determination of genotype-phenotype associations.
However, they differ in the level of genetic detail captured. GWAS employs a coarse-grained approach using
DDFs, whereas GIFT adopts a fine-grained strategy based on genetic paths that appear naturally upon
deconstructing DDFs. Since statistical inferences are always underpinned by probability, it may seem
counterintuitive that GIFT, while outperforming GWAS within such as small dataset, also relies on probability
to determine significance levels, a field fundamentally based on a lack of complete information. However, GIFT
and GWAS use distinct types of probabilities. GWAS employs hypothesis-free probability in the form of
frequentist probability, typically represented by DDFs such as the normal distribution. In contrast, GIFT utilizes
combinatorial probability, which calculates the likelihood of specific outcomes based on counting methods.
Indeed, GIFT focuses on enumerating the number of ways genetic paths can occur within a defined sample
space. By considering all possible configurations of microstates as their number and type are predefined, GIFT
delivers precise insights without requiring extensive data collection. This way of extracting information from
complex systems has parallels in statistical physics, where all complex system's states are predefined. On the

other hand, GWAS lets patterns emerge under the form of DDFs directly from data through long-run frequencies. Consequently, in the absence of sufficient data, these DDFs may become unreliable, exposing a significant limitation of GWAS when compared to GIFT's approach.

This limitation is exemplified by the study from Norton *et al.* that hypothesized that "height at withers" and insulin physiology are genetically linked in equids (11). Using GWAS with a sample size of 236 ponies, this study failed to uncover this association. In contrast, by applying GIFT to a smaller cohort, the present study extracted such genetic insights validating their initial hypothesis. Whilst this marks the first application of GIFT in equids with potential relevance to EMS, GIFT raises questions in relation to how genetic data must be interpreted.

The specific representation of scientific datasets shapes the foundation and structure of scientific knowledge bases. However, when the representation shifts, the underlying scientific concepts must also be redefined. When DDFs are used, their statistical summaries often based on their leading-order moments such as averages and variances, are expected to capture key scientific insights. In genetics, these statistical measures are closely tied to quantifiable concepts such as gene effect size and dominance for the average, and heritability for the variance. However, as the conceptual framework introduced by GIFT establishes the genetic path as a fundamental entity, one that cannot be reduced to conventional statistical summaries, this shift has important implications. Indeed, with GIFT a SNP can be significantly associated with a phenotype even when its effect size cannot be defined (see Fig.1D). Accordingly, if heredity is defined solely through variance, which itself is determined in relation to a mean or effect size, how can heredity be conceptualized for a significant SNP that lacks a measurable effect size (see Fig.1D)? These observations do not dispute the potential for any SNP to be associated with a trait or to exhibit heritability. Instead, they highlight the need to consider SNPs collectively rather than in isolation, positioning them within intricate dependencies and higher-order relationships that may elude traditional variance- or average-based approaches.

Traditionally, GWAS relies on genotyping a subset of SNPs, known as tag SNPs, which are in strong LD with many nearby SNPs. When a tag SNP shows a strong association with a trait, it suggests that a variant in LD with it may be associated with the trait. However, LD is typically determined based on bulk allele (or microstate) frequency differences calculated across the entire population. By using the detailed genetic paths provided by GIFT, it becomes now possible to refine the correlations between adjacent SNPs along a given chromosome, thereby offering a new perspective on LD. Note that, given the comprehensive information provided by GIFT, no base pair extensions were applied around tag SNPs in this present work. Due to the strength of correlations captured by GIFT, the method was extended to detect associations between SNPs across different chromosomes, commonly referred to as epistasis. Accordingly, the results demonstrate that the emergence of high-order relationships becomes visible when the shape of genetic paths is considered (see Fig.2C, Fig.3B and Fig.4A) demonstrating, in turn, that the genome is far more organized than initially thought.

GIFT's ability to infer potential epistatic interactions, in turn, enables discussion of a recently proposed concept in genetics: the omnigenic paradigm. The omnigenic paradigm for complex traits in genetics is a model that suggests that most genes in the genome contribute, directly or indirectly, to complex traits. This concept was first proposed by Boyle *et al.* and challenges the traditional polygenic model based on GWAS, which focuses on a limited set of key, often non-epistatic, genes that interact additively to influence a phenotypic trait (27). The key concepts of the omnigenic paradigm suggest that a small subset of core genes directly regulates the complex trait, while peripheral genes influence it indirectly through interactions with core genes within regulatory networks. While the theoretical and analytical frameworks, along with the present results from GIFT, support an omnigenic-like representation of complex traits, where an increasing number of SNPs are associated, it is important to acknowledge certain limitations. GIFT reinforces the concept of core versus peripheral genes, as illustrated in Fig.4b. However, contrary to the initial assumption that *most* genes in the genome contribute directly or indirectly to complex traits, GIFT suggests that only statistically significant genes are involved. In other words, it is unlikely that *most* genes contribute by default. In this context, GIFT can be seen as a hybrid conceptual framework for complex traits positioned between GWAS and the omnigenic paradigm.

Finally, it is essential to acknowledge that, while GIFT is a powerful tool for identifying genes associated with complex traits and gene networks, true validation of their functional roles requires experimental confirmation in live biological systems. Statistical associations alone do not establish causality; rather, they highlight

potential candidates that may influence a trait. Without such validation, associations remain putative, emphasizing the need for integrative approaches that combine computational methods like GIFT with experimental genetics to fully understand the molecular mechanisms underlying complex traits.

DATA AVAILABILITY

Source data for this study are not publicly available due to commercial privacy or ethical restrictions. However, the source data are available to verified researchers upon request following instructions as explained in (25).

SUPPLEMENTAL MATERIAL

XXXXXXXXXX

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DISCLOSURES

Dr Patricia Harris is an advisor to Mars Horsecare & WALTHAM ™ Equine Studies Group at Waltham Petcare Science Institute.

AUTHOR CONTRIBUTIONS

CR conceptualized GIFT; CR, JW formalized GIFT; PK coded GIFT simulations; SG computed network centrality results; the dataset used was designed and obtained by EK, PH, NMG, JE; paper was written by CR; paper was proofread by EK, PH, NMG, JE, AP, CR.

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FIGURE LEGENDS

Figure 1: Comparison of GWAS and GIFT results for "height at withers". (A) GWAS Manhattan plot. The vertical dashed and solid lines represent the 99% and 95% Bonferroni correction thresholds, respectively. The horizontal blue arrow highlights the most significant SNP (SNP-Id: AX-104415011, Chr6, position: 82439707, $-\log(p_{GWAS}) = 8.243$ ($a = -2.18 \cdot 10^{-5}$ a.u., $d = -5.58 \cdot 10^{-7}$ a.u., $r^2 = 0.173$). **(B)** GIFT Manhattan plot. The vertical dashed and solid line represents the 99.9% and 99% quantiles of the null hypothesis distribution by GIFT, respectively. The horizontal blue arrows point to the most significant SNP on chromosome 6 found by GIFT ($-\log(p_{GIFT}) = 27.04$), that happens to be the same as determined by GWAS. The horizontal purple arrow points to the most significant SNP on chromosome 2 only determined by GIFT (SNP-Id: AX-103149967, Chr2, position: 82564015, $-\log(p_{GIFT}) = 24.30$). **(C)** GWAS and GIFT representations of the SNP pointed by the horizontal blue arrows in (A) and (B). **(D)** GWAS and GIFT representations of the SNP pointed by the horizontal purple arrow in (B). **(E)** The microstates of each significant SNP were permutated randomly 1000 times and the statistics of their $-Log_{10}(p_{GIFT})$ values displayed using a box plot and compared to the $-Log_{10}(p_{GIFT})$ determined from the dataset (blue disk). The red dashed and continuous lines correspond, respectively, to the 99.9% and 99% quantile thresholds; they are the same threshold given by the black dashed and continuous lines in (B). **(F)** The original dataset (N=157) was randomly subsampled to N=140, 120, and 100. This procedure was repeated 10 times for each sample size to compute the mean and standard deviation of $-Log_{10}(p_{GIFT})$ for the most significant SNPs. The ordering of SNPs on the x-axis is the same as in (B). Supplemental_Data_S4.xls and Supplemental_Data_S5.xls provide the correspondence between the Axiom™ SNP annotations, typically 'AX-…', and the chromosomal positions of the significant SNPs for GWAS and GIFT, respectively) (a.u.: arbitrary unit, Chr: chromosome).

Figure 2: Genetic Paths and Linkage Disequilibrium (LD) for HMGA2. (A) Plot of genetic paths, θ(i) and θ_0(i), for the first 16 SNPs associated with HMGA2, numbered from 1 to 16. **(B)** r^2 measure of linkage disequilibrium (LD) for HMGA2. The first 16 SNPs (as shown in (A)) are enumerated from 1 to 16, with their SNP-Ids displayed along the diagonal. **(C)** Genetic trajectories (Δθs) of all SNPs within HMGA2 are plotted (left panel) and rectified (right panel), revealing the presence of two distinct SNP groups (coloured in light and dark grey). **(D)** r^2_{GIFT} measure quantifies pairwise correlations between SNPs within HMGA2. **(E)** The two SNP groups identified in **c** exhibit strong symmetries when analysed in terms of microstate composition. **(F)** The statistical significances of the two SNP groups from (C) are presented. Supplemental_Data_S5.xls provides the correspondence between the Axiom™ annotations and the chromosomal positions of the significant SNPs for GIFT.

Figure 3: r^2_{GIFT} measure of SNP pairwise correlations to determine local gene networks. (A) r^2-measure of pairwise correlation between significant SNPs (Table 2). The alternate red and blue colors of SNP Ids along the diagonal reflects that SNPs are located on different chromosomes. **(B)** r^2_{GIFT}-measure of pairwise correlations between SNPs (Table 2). **(C)** Networks of correlated gene names across different chromosomes for which $1 \geq r^2_{GIFT} \geq 0.90$. **(D)** Resulting representation of correlated paraboloid (left panel) and sigmoidal (right panel) genetic paths. The variable 'n' represents the number of SNPs linked to a given gene. The green triangular line delineates SNP-Ids (Table 2) associated with specific chromosomes. Supplemental_Data_S5.xls provides the correspondence between the Axiom™ annotations and the chromosomal positions of the significant SNPs for GIFT.

Figure 4: r^2_{GIFT} measure of gene names pairwise correlations to determine the gene networks associated with "height at withers". (A) Binary map of pairwise correlations between SNPs when adjusting the quantile threshold from 99.9% to 99% for GIFT, the green triangles separate the chromosomes. All chromosomes are present but in different proportions. **(B)** Resulting network of gene names associated with (A), where blue edges represent connections within the same chromosome, while red edges represent connections across different chromosomes.

754 **Table 1:** List of significant genes detected by GWAS.

GWAS (99% Bonferroni correction)						
Chr.	Gene-Id	Gene name	Biotype	#SNPs detected	$\langle -\log(p_{GWAS}) \rangle$	$\sigma_{-\log(p_{GWAS})}$
6	ENSECAG00000040252	HMGA2	protein	5	7.548	0.298
6	ENSECAG00000057296	NA	lncRNA	1	7.308	NA
GWAS (95% Bonferroni correction)						
Chr.	Gene-Id	Gene name	Biotype	#SNPs detected	$\langle -\log(p_{GWAS}) \rangle$	$\sigma_{-\log(p_{GWAS})}$
6	ENSECAG00000040252	HMGA2	protein	5	7.548	0.298
6	ENSECAG00000057296	NA	lncRNA	2	6.769	0.763
6	ENSECAG00000051733	NA	lncRNA	1	6.229	NA

755 When multiple significant SNPs were detected on a gene, $\langle -\log(p_{GWAS}) \rangle$ represents the average p-value
756 calculated and, $\sigma_{-\log(p_{GWAS})}$ represents the standard deviation of p-values calculated.
757 Supplemental_Data_S4.xls provides detailed information on the SNPs involved. (Chr.: Chromosome).
758
759

760 **Table 2:** List of significant genes detected by GIFT.

GIFT (99.9% quantile significance including FDR correction)						
Chr.	Gene-Id	Gene name	Biotype	#SNPs detected	$\langle -\log(p_{GIFT}) \rangle$	$\sigma_{-\log(p_{GIFT})}$
6	ENSECAG00000051733	NA	lncRNA	1	24.633	NA
2	ENSECAG00000022089	CBR4	protein	1	22.182	NA
6	ENSECAG00000057296	NA	lncRNA	4	20.993	4.759
6	ENSECAG00000040252	HMGA2	protein	28	19.756	2.887
2	ENSECAG00000023122	PALLD	protein	2	19.612	3.634
2	ENSECAG00000050428	NA	lncRNA	3	19.035	0.328
10	ENSECAG00000049140	MFSD4B	protein	1	18.408	NA
23	ENSECAG00000020142	ELAVL2	protein	2	18.005	0.000
6	ENSECAG00000005110	MSRB3	protein	2	17.455	0.026
22	ENSECAG00000016080	KCNB1	protein	1	17.309	NA
6	ENSECAG00000006721	TMBIM4	protein	3	17.273	1.371
3	ENSECAG00000022407	SLIT2	protein	2	17.247	1.116
10	ENSECAG00000009918	MYB	protein	1	17.168	NA
18	ENSECAG00000023666	HIBCH	protein	1	17.122	NA
21	ENSECAG00000018312	OXCT1	protein	1	17.031	NA
6	ENSECAG00000026958	IRAK3	protein	4	16.977	0.573
10	ENSECAG00000006058	FUT1	protein	1	16.832	NA
18	ENSECAG00000022853	CD28	protein	1	16.521	NA
18	ENSECAG00000017122	NCKAP5	protein	1	16.481	NA
18	ENSECAG00000000157	EN1	protein	1	16.436	NA
28	ENSECAG00000009835	ABTB3	protein	1	16.368	NA
14	ENSECAG00000055847	NA	lncRNA	1	16.313	NA
17	ENSECAG00000003315	IRS2	protein	1	16.307	NA
30	ENSECAG00000017996	BECN2	protein	1	16.248	NA

761 When multiple significant SNPs were detected on a gene, $\langle -\log(p_{GIFT}) \rangle$ represents the average p-value
762 calculated for the gene and, $\sigma_{-\log(p_{GIFT})}$ represents the standard deviation of p-values calculated.
763 Supplemental_Data_S5.xls provides detailed information on the SNPs involved. (Chr.: Chromosome).
764

Table 3: Comparison of gene names from Table 1 to gene names found in human for the phenotype "body height" from the GWAS catalog.

Gene name	Study Accession Id (GWAS Catalog)
CBR4	GCST90245848
HMGA2	GCST000068, GCST000644, GCST000372, GCST000175, GCST000176, GCST001290, GCST000174, GCST001956, GCST001263, GCST000817, GCST008053, GCST008053, GCST002702, GCST002647, GCST008839, GCST007841, GCST90018959, GCST90435412, GCST008163, GCST90245844, GCST90245843, GCST90131910, GCST90095033, GCST90245848, GCST90267284, GCST90245848, GCST90245845, GCST90245846, GCST90245847, GCST90278637, GCST90479634, GCST90479636, GCST90479637, GCST90479635
PALLD	GCST90245848
MSFD4B	GCST90245848
ELAVL2	GCST90245848
MSRB3	GCST008839, GCST007841, GCST90435412, GCST90245844, GCST90267284
KCNB1	GCST008163, GCST90245848, GCST90479636
TMBIM4	GCST90245848
SLIT2	GCST010988, GCST90245848
MYB	GCST90245848
OXCT1	GCST90245848
CD28	GCST90245848
NCKAP5	GCST90245848
ABTB3	GCST90245848

Supplemental_Data_S6.xls provides detailed information of SNPs found from the GWAS Catalog.

Table 5: Equine gene names centrality (eigenvector ranks) and their comparison to gene names found in human for the phenotype "body height" from the GWAS catalog.

Gene name	Eigenvector rank value	Study accession Id (GWAS catalog)
HMGA2	1.0000	See Table 2
MRSB3	0.6914	See Table 2
TMBIM4	0.5727	See Table 2
TECPR1	0.4964	None
IRAK3	0.4870	None
CELF2	0.4406	GCST90245848
OXCT1	0.4268	See Table 2
SH3RF3	0.4166	GCST008839; GCST007841; GCST90018959; GCST90245848
HELB	0.3693	GCST90245848
GMDS	0.3630	GCST008839; GCST007841; GCST90018959; GCST90018739; GCST90435412; GCST90245848; GCST90245844; GCST90245845; GCST90267284; GCST90479634; GCST90479635; GCST90479636; GCST90475368

Supplemental_Data_S14.xls provides detailed information of SNPs found from the GWAS Catalog.

FIGURES

FIGURE 1

FIGURE 2

A

B