1 RESEARCH ARTICLE

3 **Genomic Informational Field Theory (GIFT) to identify genetic associations of a complex trait using a**
4 **small sample size**

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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. GIFT enabled the identification 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). By redefining correlations between single nucleotide
polymorphisms (SNPs), GIFT provides new insights into linkage disequilibrium and reveals underlying gene
network structures. This, in turn, enables the distinction between core and peripheral genes within these
networks. By reducing the time and cost associated with large-scale genotype–phenotype mapping studies
without sacrificing statistical robustness, GIFT broadens access to quantitative genetic research, allowing
smaller-scale studies to investigate 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 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, Core genes, Peripheral genes, 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 GWAS meta-analysis 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, which can be a limitation to individual investigations or non-consortium science. 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 other 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" (27).

Third, it is postulated that complex traits can be omnigenic involving core and peripheral genes (28). 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 gene networks 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

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

Equine genome sequencing

109 Blood samples collected (buffy coats) were used for DNA extractions (LGC Biosciences) and genotyping
110 individuals using the Axiom™ Equine Genotyping Array (MNEC670, Cambridge Genomic Services). Further
111 to Axiom Analysis Suite following best practices pathway, a total of 478498 quality controlled single nucleotide
112 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 and sex, as well as for relatedness between individuals using the kinship
matrix (K) extracted using GEMMA. Using R-studio (GMMAT package) the following linear model was used,
$\vec{H} = \mathbf{X}\vec{\beta} + \mathbf{I}\vec{u} + \vec{r}$, where $\vec{H}$ is the vector of individual height, $\mathbf{X}$ is the designed matrix for fixed effects, $\vec{\beta}$ is the
vector of coefficients for fixed effects, $\mathbf{I}$ is the identity matrix, $\vec{u}$ is a vector of normally distributed random
effect linked to the kinship matrix $\mathbf{K}$ defined by, $\vec{u} = \mathrm{N}(0, \mathbf{K}\sigma_g^2)$, where σ_g^2 is the genetic variance and $\vec{r}$ is the
residual vector. With this correction, a new Kolmogorov-Smirnov test was performed against the residual values
for the height providing an acceptable p-value of 0.836 demonstrating, in turn, that the components of $\vec{r}$ 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 10%), the number of independent SNPs ($N_{Ind-SNPs} = 44412$) 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, $-\mathrm{Log}(0.01/N_{Ind-SNPs}) = 6.647$ and
$-\mathrm{Log}(0.05/N_{Ind-SNPs}) = 5.9485$, respectively.

GIFT

The same genotype and phenotypic residuals, 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 genetic microstates +1, -1 and 0 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
performed providing a level of significance noted p_{GIFT} for the SNP considered, as explained in (7) and further
developed mathematically in (27). The level of significance (p_{GIFT}) can then be plotted using a Manhattan plot
and the same significance thresholds determined using 99% and 95% Bonferroni correction as in GWAS. For
readers unfamiliar with GIFT, Supplemental_Text_S1.doc introduces the methodology underpinning GIFT.

Enrichment and correlation analyses

144 Enrichment analyses were performed using STRING, Uniprot, Ensembl, Gephi and the GWAS catalog (29–33)
145 as cited in the text. Pearson correlations between genetic paths were performed using R-studio and the measure
146 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. Measurements of "height at withers" obtained by Knowles et al. (25) were pre-corrected for fixed effects and relatedness. Further to this correction, phenotypic residual values were demonstrated to be adequately normally distributed using Kolmogorov-Smirnov test and usable by GWAS and GIFT (Supplemental_Figure_S2.doc). Association analyses using GWAS and GIFT based on the same 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 up to 18 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 a significant SNP on chromosome 6 identified by both methods, whereas Figure 1D presents one 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).

While the Bonferroni correction provides strong protection against type I errors, it is highly conservative, particularly in GWAS using relatively small sample sizes, and may therefore miss biologically relevant associations. In contrast, the Benjamini–Hochberg procedure, which controls the false discovery rate (FDR) using the expected proportion of false positives among significant results, is preferred for small genetic population studies and exploratory analyses, as it maximizes discovery while controlling error rates.

Accordingly, p-values from both GWAS and GIFT were adjusted using the Benjamini–Hochberg procedure and compared. As shown in Fig. 1E and Fig. 1F for GWAS and GIFT, respectively, a large proportion of the signals detected by GIFT remain significant after FDR correction (adjusted p-value < 0.05). This result indicates that, under the same error-control criteria, GIFT is more sensitive than GWAS in identifying significant associations in studies with small sample sizes.

To further confirm that the significant SNPs identified by GIFT in Fig.1B result from the unique organization of their microstates rather than random chance, the microstates of each significant SNP from Fig.1B were randomly permuted 1,000 times. After each permutation, the significance level, i.e., the value of $-\text{Log}_{10}(p_{\text{GIFT}})$, was determined. The statistical summary of these significant values obtained from 1,000 random permutations was presented as a boxplot (Fig.1G). These random permutations represent the distribution expected under a null hypothesis in which no genotype–phenotype association exists for the SNP considered. These values were then compared to the original significance value of the same SNP and to the Bonferroni corrections applied, as determined in Fig.1B, and represented as a blue dot in Fig.1G. Fig.1G confirms that GIFT's identification of genotype–phenotype associations is not due to random chance.

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 $-\text{Log}_{10}(p_{\text{GIFT}})$ corresponding to the most significant SNPs in Fig.1B were recalculated. This procedure was repeated 10 times for each new sample size to compute the average and standard deviation of $-\text{Log}_{10}(p_{\text{GIFT}})$ values obtained for the top SNPs (Fig.1E). Additionally, for each subsampling the microstates were randomly permuted 1,000 times to extract an average value for $-\text{Log}_{10}(p_{\text{GIFT}})$. As each subsampling was performed 10 times the statistics (average and standard deviation) of $-\text{Log}_{10}(p_{\text{GIFT}})$ values upon subsampling and random permutation of microstates were reported as a boxplot for each SNP. As shown in Fig.1F, although a decrease in the magnitude of $-\text{Log}_{10}(p_{\text{GIFT}})$ is clearly observed with smaller sample sizes, there is no overlap of standard deviations obtained between the subsampling and the null hypothesis.

Biological relevance of genes determined by GWAS and GIFT

Focusing on the 99% Bonferroni correction threshold, the GWAS identified HMGA2, a gene associated with the trait "body size" in several animal species, including ponies, sheep, dogs, and cattle (11, 34−36). When the Bonferroni threshold was relaxed to 95%, an additional gene, NCKAP5 (NCK-associated protein 5), was

identified. Interestingly, although NCKAP5 does not appear among the significant genes listed by GIFT above the 5% Bonferroni correction threshold, its significance value, $-\log(p_{GIFT})$, remains high, at 5.301. With regard to GIFT and using the lowest threshold, the significant genes detected were HMGA2, CBR4 (carbonyl reductase 4), PALLD (palladin), KIAA2012, SUMO1 (small ubiquitin-related modifier 1), BTBD9 (BTB domain–containing 9), and TMBIM4 (transmembrane BAX inhibitor motif–containing protein 4).

Given the limited number of extensive genetic studies in equids compared to humans, the relevance of the gene names listed in Tables 1 and 2 was initially assessed using "body height" as a search term in the GWAS Catalog (29). All genes listed in Tables 1 and 2, with the exception of SUMO1, have previously been significantly associated with "body height" in humans (1).

In a second step, the genes listed in Tables 1 and 2 were cross-referenced in PubMed to determine whether their reported functions are related to physiological processes associated with insulin action, insulin secretion, glucose uptake and homeostasis, energy metabolism, and metabolic disorders such as diabetes. Given the limited number of molecular biology studies in equids, this investigation was extended to other species.

HMGA2 (High Mobility Group AT-hook 2) is a non-histone chromatin-associated protein that binds AT-rich DNA sequences to modulate gene expression, acting as an architectural transcription factor (37), including the expression of peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ (PPARγ) leading to the expression and release from adipose tissue of adiponectin, an insulin-sensitizing adipokine (38). While HMGA2 itself has not been directly linked to metabolic dysregulation, in obesity and type 2 diabetes the impairment of PPARγ activity selectively downregulates insulin-sensitizing genes, most notably adiponectin, thereby contributing directly to systemic insulin resistance (39).

A multi-omic mapping of human pancreatic islet stress responses has identified NCKAP5 as a gene dynamically regulated by both endoplasmic reticulum (ER) stress and pro-inflammatory cytokines, two pathophysiological stressors implicated in type 2 diabetes (T2D) pathogenesis (40).

CBR4, a member of the carbonyl reductase family, regulates fatty acid biosynthesis through its interaction with fatty acid synthase (FASN), a multifunctional enzyme central to energy storage and signal transduction. FASN has been implicated in activation of the PI3K/AKT/mTOR signaling axis, which governs cellular growth and metabolism (41). Mechanistically, CBR4 engages the ubiquitin-proteasome pathway to promote the degradation of FASN, resulting in reduced FASN protein levels and subsequently diminished AKT (protein kinase B) activation (42, 43). This cascade of events ultimately leads to the inhibition of the mTOR (mechanistic target of rapamycin) signaling pathway. Given that mTOR is directly activated by insulin through the canonical PI3K/AKT cascade, this regulatory axis positions CBR4 as a modulator of insulin-mediated signals that integrate cellular energy status (43).

PALLD (Palladin), a cytoskeletal protein, is essential for active actin remodelling and the formation of membrane ruffles (44), a process integral to insulin signalling due to its role in the membrane translocation of specific GLUT family members (45). Furthermore, a genome-wide functional screen identified PALLD as a novel negative regulator of insulin signaling, demonstrating that its overexpression inhibits insulin-stimulated AKT phosphorylation and reduces insulin receptor (IR) abundance, while its knockdown produces the opposite effects (46).

SUMO1 is a central component of the SUMOylation pathway. This post-translational modification process critically regulates metabolic homeostasis by modifying key transcription factors that influence lipid biosynthesis, adipogenesis, and energy balance. SUMO1 covalently attaches to specific lysine residues on target proteins, thereby modulating their stability, subcellular localisation, and transcriptional activity in response to metabolic cues (47, 48). A pivotal target of SUMO1 is the nuclear receptor PPARγ, a master regulator of insulin sensitivity (49). Functional studies using SUMO1-knockout mice revealed that these animals gain less weight on a high-fat diet and show attenuated expression of PPARγ target genes, demonstrating that SUMO1 is required for full PPARγ transcriptional activity (50). Collectively, these findings establish SUMO1 as a critical modulator of transcriptional networks governing adipogenesis, lipid metabolism, and energy balance, with direct implications for insulin sensitivity and the pathogenesis of metabolic disorders.

Mechanistic studies have identified BTBD9 as a novel component of the insulin/insulin-like growth factor (IGF) signaling pathway, where it functions as a negative regulator. Specifically, BTBD9 overexpression significantly elevates levels of the forkhead box O (FOXO) transcription factor while decreasing AKT levels, establishing a mechanistic link to the canonical insulin/IGF signaling cascade (51, 52). Interestingly, human subjects with elevated blood manganese levels exhibited decreased BTBD9 mRNA expression, suggesting environmental

regulation of this modulator (52). These findings position BTBD9 as a key regulator of IGF signaling connecting
BTBD9 to fundamental growth factor signaling pathways involved in body growth and development.
TMBIM4 was identified as a novel candidate gene for type 2 diabetes (T2D) through a multi-tissue gene
expression analysis that compared transcriptomic data from T2D patients and controls across 21 experimental
groups sourced from the Gene Expression Omnibus (GEO) database. The gene was prioritized based on two
complementary criteria: it exhibited a high percentage of differential expression between diabetic and non-
diabetic individuals across multiple tissues, and it was located within ±1 Mb of a known T2D susceptibility
SNP (rs1531343), suggesting it may be the functional effector gene through which this genetic variant exerts
its pathogenic effect. Expression analysis revealed that TMBIM4 was predominantly upregulated in skeletal
muscle but downregulated in liver tissue of T2D patients, indicating tissue-specific dysregulation in key insulin-
responsive organs (53).
Altogether, GIFT's results strongly suggest that gene associated with the phenotype "height at withers" are also
related to metabolic dysregulations.
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) possibly highlighting how genes may
interact together.
270
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. 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 (see supplemental_Text_S1). 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 18 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 (54):

$$r^2 = \frac{(p_{ab}-p_a p_b)^2}{p_a(1-p_a)p_b(1-p_b)}$$ (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 18 SNPs belonging to HMGA2 (Table 2), enumerated from 1 to 18 in the figures, are
represented. In Fig.2B the r^2 measure of LD for HMGA2 is determined where the enumeration of SNPs (from
1 to 18) is given next to their SNP-Id on the diagonal. Fig.2B demonstrates that while the r^2 measure of LD for
HMGA2 is very patchy, strong correlations exist between some SNPs. It is interesting to note from Fig.2B that
while the correlation between SNPs 1 and 5, marked by a white star in Fig.2B is relatively strong, the paths are
anti-symmetrical. This anti-symmetry arises because, for SNP 1, the path begins with '-1' (blue) microstates
and ends with '+1' (red) microstates, whereas the opposite is observed for SNP 5. This antisymmetric 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), the genetic paths in Fig.2A 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), 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 types 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:

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

Where $\Delta\theta_1$ and $\Delta\theta_2$ represent two genetic paths with, $\mathrm{var}(\Delta\theta_p) = \frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\Delta\theta_p(i) - \langle\Delta\theta_p(i)\rangle)^2$ where $p \in$
$\{1,2\}$ and, $\mathrm{cov}(\Delta\theta_1,\Delta\theta_2) = \frac{1}{N-1}\sum_{i=1}^{N}(\Delta\theta_1(i) - \langle\Delta\theta_1(i)\rangle)(\Delta\theta_2(i) - \langle\Delta\theta_2(i)\rangle)$. 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 $r^2_{\mathrm{GIFT}} = \frac{[\mathrm{cov}(-\Delta\theta_1,\Delta\theta_2)]^2}{\mathrm{var}(-\Delta\theta_1)\mathrm{var}(\Delta\theta_2)} =$
$\frac{[-\mathrm{cov}(\Delta\theta_1,\Delta\theta_2)]^2}{\mathrm{var}(\Delta\theta_1)\mathrm{var}(\Delta\theta_2)} = \frac{[\mathrm{cov}(\Delta\theta_1,\Delta\theta_2)]^2}{\mathrm{var}(\Delta\theta_1)\mathrm{var}(\Delta\theta_2)}$.
Using equation (2), Fig.2D presents a new heatmap of SNP pairwise correlations for HMGA2. This result
reveals stronger correlations between SNPs when genetic paths are considered that are not apparent in Fig.2B.
Notably, examining the microstate composition of the two types of genetic paths in Fig.2E clarifies why they
can be distinguished in Fig.2C, given the possible reassignment of microstates '+1' and '-1'.
314
GIFT's determination of similarity between the genetic paths of significant SNPs across different
chromosomes: Isomorphism
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 significant SNPs. In Figs.3A
and 3B, the switch in colour for the SNP-Id is used represent the location of SNPs on different chromosomes.
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 as exemplified
by Figs.1C and 1D.
The key result presented in Fig.3 demonstrates the possibility of extracting gene network information from
pairwise correlations between SNPs using Equation (2), highlighting the emergence of potentially isomorphic
networks based on similarities in the patterns of two different SNP-related $\Delta\theta$s.
328
GIFT's determination of isomorphic gene networks
To assess the presence of isomorphic networks, FDR-adjusted p-values using the Benjamini-Hochberg process
were used through which SNPs with a p-value<3% (Fig.1F) were selected, returning a total of 895 significant
SNPs corresponding to 209 gene names. To extract only strongly pairwise correlated SNPs using equation (2)
a threshold of $1 \geq r^2_{\mathrm{GIFT}} \geq 0.90$ was set. As shown in Fig.4A, this process suggests strong correlations across
chromosomes. To determine strongly pairwise correlated gene names the average of pairwise correlations
between SNPs pertaining to any two genes and noted $\langle r^2_{\mathrm{GIFT}}\rangle$ was used as numerical representative of pairwise
correlation between genes.
Next, using gene names and a mean correlation value for correlations also within the range $1 \geq \langle r^2_{\mathrm{GIFT}}\rangle \geq 0.9$,
the $N \times N$ adjacency matrix defined as $\boldsymbol{A} = (A_{i,j})$, where $N = 202$ 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 (30). 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.
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:
$g_i = \frac{1}{\lambda}\sum_{j=1}^{N} A_{i,j} \cdot g_j$ (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:
$\lambda\vec{g} = \boldsymbol{A} \cdot \vec{g}$ (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 3 provides the name of central genes as well as their centrality measures found using
equation (4).

With the exceptions of HMGA2 and TMBIM4, the central genes identified are different from those listed in
Tables 1 and 2. Additionally, it is visible from Table 3 that, except for HMGA2 and MSRB3, the centrality
measures of genes drop rapidly to values ~0.4. Cross-referencing the second most central gene, MSRB3, using
"body height" as a search term in the GWAS Catalog (29) confirmed that it is significantly associated with
"body height" in humans (1). Additionally, MSRB3 was also cross-referenced in PubMed to determine whether
its function is related to physiological processes associated with insulin action, insulin secretion, glucose uptake
and homeostasis, energy metabolism, and metabolic disorders such as diabetes. In this context it was found that
MSRB3, an endoplasmic reticulum (ER)-resident enzyme that protects cells from oxidative and ER stress by
reducing oxidized methionine residues, has been implicated in the pathogenesis of insulin resistance and
diabetes. A study using MSRB3 knockout mice showed that the absence of this enzyme inhibits the development
of high-fat diet–induced insulin resistance. This effect is associated with increased levels of mitochondrial
oxidative phosphorylation proteins, which promote mitochondrial biogenesis. These findings suggest that
MSRB3 deficiency triggers compensatory mechanisms that preserves insulin sensitivity under metabolic stress
(55).

DISCUSSION

As statistical methods, GWAS and GIFT enable the determination of genotype-phenotype associations. The
present study aimed to compare GWAS and GIFT results in identifying genes significantly associated with the
trait "height at withers" in ponies, while simultaneously exploring potential links between this trait and equine
metabolic syndrome (EMS), in a manner similar to the study by Norton et al., which was conducted on a larger
sample size of 236 ponies (11).

Taken together, the results obtained: (i) confirm that GIFT extracts significantly more genetic information than
GWAS, while also corroborating GWAS finding (HMGA2); and (ii) suggest that the genes identified by GIFT
are strongly implicated in metabolic dysregulation involving insulin-related signaling pathways. Although the
absence of SNPs associated with the insulin gene in either the GIFT or GWAS results may appear unexpected,
this can be explained by the gene array used, which lacked coverage of the genomic regions corresponding to
the insulin gene. Additionally, making use of GIFT's framework, LD was redefined demonstrating the
possibility to extract isomorphic gene networks upon which centrality measures can be defined demonstrating
that HMGA2 is indeed a central gene for the trait "height at withers". 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. Accordingly, the results demonstrate that the emergence of high-order isomorphic relationships becomes visible when the shape of genetic paths is considered (see Figs.2C,2D,3B,4A) demonstrating, in turn, that the genome is far more organized than initially thought.

GIFT's ability to enhance the investigative power of datasets, 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 genes that cumulatively influence phenotypic trait (28). 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 the limitations of the present study. While GIFT is a powerful tool for identifying genes associated with complex traits, true validation of the results presented here would require an independent validation cohort, as a single statistical association study cannot establish causality. Rather, such studies highlight potential candidate genes that may influence the trait. Furthermore, genes identified as significant require functional validation. In the absence of these additional validations, association results remain putative.

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
All supplementary materials are available from BioRxiv: TBC

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DISCLOSURES
Dr Patricia Harris is an advisor to Mars Horsecare & WALTHAM [TM] 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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Table 1: List of significant genes detected by GWAS ordered by p-values.

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	7.129	0.298
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	7.129	0.330
6	ENSECAG00000057296	NA	lncRNA	2	6.317	0.418
6	ENSECAG00000051733	NA	lncRNA	1	6.021	NA
18	ENSECAG00000017122	NCKAP5	protein	1	5.973	NA

When multiple significant SNPs were detected on a gene, $\langle -\log(p_{GWAS}) \rangle$ represents the average p-value calculated and, $\sigma_{-\log(p_{GWAS})}$ represents the standard deviation of p-values calculated. Supplemental_Data_S3.xls provides detailed information on the SNPs involved. (Chr.: Chromosome).

652 **Table 2:** List of significant genes detected by GIFT ordered by p-values.

GIFT (99% Bonferroni correction)						
Chr.	Gene-Id	Gene name	Biotype	#SNPs detected	$\langle -\log(p_{GIFT}) \rangle$	$\sigma_{-\log(p_{GIFT})}$
6	ENSECAG00000057296	NA	lncRNA	2	7.783	0.230
6	ENSECAG00000051733	NA	lncRNA	1	7.620	NA
6	ENSECAG00000040252	HMGA2	protein	14	7.161	0.383
2	ENSECAG00000022089	CBR4	protein	1	6.999	NA
2	ENSECAG00000023122	PALLD	protein	1	6.999	NA
GIFT (95% Bonferroni correction)						
Chr.	Gene-Id	Gene name	Biotype	#SNPs detected	$\langle -\log(p_{GIFT}) \rangle$	$\sigma_{-\log(p_{GIFT})}$
6	ENSECAG00000057296	NA	lncRNA	2	7.783	0.230
6	ENSECAG00000051733	NA	lncRNA	1	7.620	NA
2	ENSECAG00000022089	CBR4	protein	1	6.999	NA
2	ENSECAG00000023122	PALLD	protein	1	6.999	NA
6	ENSECAG00000040252	HMGA2	protein	18	6.966	0.512
18	ENSECAG00000024325	KIAA2012	protein	1	6.270	NA
18	ENSECAG00000024693	SUMO1	protein	1	6.270	NA
2	ENSECAG00000050428	NA	lncRNA	3	6.093	0.09
20	ENSECAG00000018393	BTBD9	protein	2	6.022	<0.001
6	ENSECAG00000006721	TMBIM4	protein	1	5.989	NA

653 When multiple significant SNPs were detected on a gene, $\langle -\log(p_{GIFT}) \rangle$ represents the average p-value
654 calculated for the gene and, $\sigma_{-\log(p_{GIFT})}$ represents the standard deviation of p-values calculated.
655 Supplemental_Data_S3.xls provides detailed information on the SNPs involved. (Chr.: Chromosome).

658 **Table 3:** Centrality measures of central genes of isomorphic networks

Gene name	Eigenvector rank value
HMGA2	1.0000
MSRB3 (methionine sulfoxide reductase B3)	0.6320
SEZ6L (seizure related 6 homolog like)	0.4686
TMBIM4 (transmembrane BAX inhibitor motif–containing protein 4)	0.4533
TECPR1 (tectonin beta-Propeller repeat-containing protein 1)	0.4460
BAZ2A (bromodomain adjacent to zinc finger domain 2A)	0.4316
RBMS2 (RNA binding motif single stranded interacting protein 2)	0.4316
WIF1 (Wnt inhibitory factor 1)	0.4255
CELF2 (CUGBP Elav-like family member 2)	0.4210
WDFY4 (WD repeat- and FYVE domain-containing protein 4)	0.4193

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. **(B)** GIFT Manhattan plot. The vertical dashed and solid lines represent the 99% and 95% Bonferroni correction thresholds, respectively. **(C)** GWAS (left panel) and GIFT (middle and right panels) representations of SNP-Id: AX-104415011 (Chr6, position: 82439707) significant for both GWAS and GIFT with respective significances, $-\log(p_{GWAS}) = 7.246$ and $-\log(p_{GIFT}) = 8.39$. The GIFT representation displays a parabolic genetic path that is characteristic of GWAS-derived associations. **(D)** GWAS (left panel) and GIFT (middle and right panels) representations of SNP-Id: AX-103149967 (Chr2, position: 82564015) only found significant by GIFT, $-\log(p_{GIFT}) = 6.999$. The GIFT representation displays a sigmoidal genetic path that cannot be detected through GWAS-derived associations. **(E)** Manhattan plots for GWAS after correcting for false-discovery rates using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure. **(F)** Manhattan plots for GIFT after correcting for false-discovery rates using the Benjamini-Hochberg procedure. **(G)** To demonstrate the absence of spurious association with GIFT, the microstates of each significant SNP determined by GIFT were permuted randomly 1000 times and the statistics of their $-Log_{10}(p_{GIFT})$ values displayed using a box plot and compared to their initial significance level (blue disk). The red dashed and continuous lines correspond, respectively, to 99% and 95% Bonferroni correction thresholds. **(H)** To determine GIFT's robustness, the original dataset (N=157) was randomly subsampled to N=140, 120, and 100. This procedure was repeated 10 times for each subsample to compute the mean and standard deviation of $-Log_{10}(p_{GIFT})$ value for the most significant SNPs (blue disk). The ordering of SNPs on the x-axis is the same as in (E). Additionally, the microstates were permuted randomly 1000 times and the statistics of their $-Log_{10}(p_{GIFT})$ values displayed using a box plot. Supplemental_Data_S3.xls provides the correspondence between the Axiom™ SNP annotations, typically 'AX-...', and the chromosomal positions of the significant SNPs for GWAS and GIFT. (Chr: chromosome).

Figure 2: Genetic Paths and Linkage Disequilibrium (LD) for HMGA2. (A) Plot of genetic paths, $\theta(i)$ and $\theta_0(i)$, for the first 18 SNPs associated with HMGA2, numbered from 1 to 18. **(B)** r^2 measure of linkage disequilibrium (LD) for HMGA2. The first 18 SNPs (as shown in (A)) are enumerated from 1 to 18, with their SNP-Ids displayed along the diagonal. **(C)** Genetic trajectories ($\Delta\theta$s) of all SNPs within HMGA2 are plotted (left panel) and rectified (right panel), revealing the presence of two SNP types (coloured in light and dark grey). **(D)** r^2_{GIFT} measure quantifies pairwise correlations between SNPs within HMGA2. **(E)** The SNPs identified exhibit strong symmetries when analysed in terms of microstate composition. Supplemental_Data_S4.xls provides the correlation values computed.

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. The green triangular line delineates SNP-Ids (Table 2) associated with specific chromosomes. **(B)** r^2_{GIFT}-measure of pairwise correlations between SNPs (Table 2). Supplemental_Data_S5.xls provides the correlation values computed.

Figure 4: r^2_{GIFT} measure of gene names pairwise correlations to determine the isomorphic gene networks associated with "height at withers". (A) Binary map of pairwise correlations between SNPs using 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. Supplemental_Data_S6.xls provides the average and variance of correlation values computed between genes noted $\langle r^2_{GIFT} \rangle$.

711   **FIGURE 1**

Fig.1

FIGURE 2

FIGURE 3

FIGURE 4