

1 **Leveraging hierarchical structures for genetic block interaction studies**
2 **using the hierarchical transformer**

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24 1. Abstract

25 Initially introduced in 1909 by William Bateson, classic epistasis (genetic variant
26 interaction) refers to the phenomenon that one variant prevents another variant from a
27 different locus from manifesting its effects. The potential effects of genetic variant
28 interactions on complex diseases have been recognized for the past decades.
29 Moreover, It has been studied and demonstrated that leveraging the combined SNP
30 effects within the genetic block can significantly increase calculation power, reducing
31 background noise, ultimately leading to novel epistasis discovery that the single SNP
32 statistical epistasis study might overlook. However, it is still an open question how we
33 can best combine gene structure representation modelling and interaction learning into
34 an end-to-end model for gene interaction searching. Here, in the current study, we
35 developed a neural genetic block interaction searching model that can effectively
36 process large SNP chip inputs and output the potential genetic block interaction
37 heatmap. Our model augments a previously published hierarchical transformer
38 architecture (Liu and Lapata, 2019) with the ability to model genetic blocks. The
39 cross-block relationship mapping was achieved via a hierarchical attention mechanism
40 which allows the sharing of information regarding specific phenotypes, as opposed to
41 simple unsupervised dimensionality reduction methods e.g. PCA. Results on both
42 simulation and UK Biobank studies show our model brings substantial improvements
43 compared to traditional exhaustive searching and neural network methods.

44

45 2. Introduction

46 In the past decades, the genetic factors that contribute to the pathogenesis of complex
47 diseases have been extensively studied, and genome-wide association study (GWAS)
48 has played a fundamental role in unveiling novel risk alleles. The approach of the
49 GWAS framework assumes each SNP has an independent effect on phenotype and the
50 disease's statistical relevance was tested individually (Niel et al., 2015). However,
51 most complex disease variants identified so far confer relatively small increments in
52 risk, leading to many questions about how the remaining “missing heritability” can be
53 explained (Maher, 2008). For example, GWAS correlation identified >80 common
54 variants for type 2 diabetes with most of those associated with insulin secretion,
55 together, they only contribute ~ 10% of type 2 diabetes (T2D) heritability. T2D Low-
56 frequency and rare variants have also been identified, but their contribution towards
57 “missing heritability” is also limited (Stančáková and Laakso, 2016). Indeed, with a
58 larger sample size and the advancement of sequencing techniques, GWAS will likely
59 continue to expand the number of novel complex disease genetic markers. However,
60 the current consensus underscores the growing recognition that the missing heritability
61 of complex diseases extends beyond the scope of singular genetic factors. Interactions
62 among two or more SNPs, a combinatorial effect known as epistasis, have been
63 proven (Turton et al., 2011) can at least partly explain the “missing heritability”.

64

65 Finding the optimal interacting SNP combination for certain phenotypes, which
66 implies an exhaustive search of all possible cases, can be a challenging task. For
67 instance, in a dataset containing 500,000 SNPs, there are approximately 250 billion
68 possible pairwise SNP combinations. This immense number presents significant

69 challenges, not only in terms of computational hardware requirements but also in the
70 risk of losing true signals due to overcorrection for multiple comparisons resulting in a
71 reduction in statistical power. A problem we often refer to as the “curse of
72 dimensionality”. To address this issue, several scalable statistical approaches have
73 been proposed in recent years; however, each comes with its own set of limitations.
74 Some methods (Cordell, 2002) only select “top SNPs” (the SNPs most correlated with
75 phenotypes) for epistasis searching, while ignoring the potential effects of
76 neighbouring SNPs. Indeed, over the past few decades, extensive research (Morris and
77 Kaplan, 2002; Zaykin et al., 2002; Chen et al., 2020) has highlighted the necessity and
78 efficiency of leveraging the combined effects of multiple SNPs within certain genetic
79 regions e.g. haplotype blocks, rather than focusing on individual SNPs in association
80 studies. Some have proposed to summarise multi-dimensional SNPs into one-
81 dimensional representations using unsupervised methods such as PCA (Li et al.,
82 2009). However, these methods overlook important phenotype information and
83 compress highly dependent SNPs into a single dimension, making it difficult to detect
84 signals within these units. In short, it is still an open question how we can best
85 combine genetic block representation learning and interaction modelling to an end-to-
86 end model to increase calculation power.

87

88 The rapid development of deep learning and artificial intelligence seems to hold
89 another promise for epistasis studies. Several studies (Pérez-Enciso and Zingaretti
90 2019; Cui et al., 2022) have suggested Deep Neural Networks (DNNs) can map the
91 flexible, both linear and non-linear relationships between SNPs and observed

92 phenotypes. However, DNNs, which are primarily designed for classification, with a
93 black-box nature that makes it challenging to interpret results, particularly in
94 identifying which SNPs are interacting. Many studies aim to bridge this gap between
95 interpretability and DNN structures using such as layerwise relevance (Mieth et al.,
96 2021), permutation testing (Cui et al., 2022), and more recently, transformer with
97 attention scores (Graça et al., 2024). While the potential application of transformer in
98 genome sequencing analysis has enjoyed renewed interest. Scanning through most of
99 the genetic transformer studies in recent years (Jubair et al., 2021; Reyes et al., 2022;
100 Zhou et al., 2022), the basic unit, as the “word” in natural language, is still single SNP
101 with little existing genetic structure e.g. haplotype block, the main focus of current
102 study, introduced within the attention block. The size of haplotype blocks can vary
103 and is often larger than the typical units analysed in natural language processing. This
104 variability poses a substantial challenge in encoding these differently-sized haplotype
105 blocks into the transformer encoder while preserving their biological significance
106 during this process, to ensure that the outputs of the attention scores are interpretable
107 and relevant.

108

109 In the current study, taking inspiration from the hierarchical transformer model (Liu
110 and Lapata, 2019), we proposed a novel haplotype block-haplotype block association
111 study workflow, Haplotype Block LSTM hierarchical Transformer (HB-LT). HB-LT
112 is constructed in a hierarchical manner which allows it to efficiently capture both
113 within and cross-haplotype relationships relevant to specific phenotypes. We
114 demonstrate with simulations that grouping SNPs into dimensionality-reduced

115 haplotype block structures significantly increases detection power for epistasis studies
116 compared to existing methods. Furthermore, by evaluating our model on the UK
117 Biobank dataset, we demonstrated its potential for real-world applications.

118

119 3. Methods

120 **3.1 Model description.**

121 The model in the current study is mainly inspired by Liu and Lapata (2019) and
122 several previous machine learning works (Chang et al., 2020; Cui et al., 2022 and
123 Graça et al., 2023) dedicated to epistasis studies. Our haplotype epistasis study system
124 is illustrated in Figure 1. The inputs of the model are the pre-organised haplotype
125 datasets and the associated phenotype of each individual, while the outputs are the
126 attention weights (epistasis) among potential candidates.

127

128 **3.1.1 Long short-term memory (LSTM) pre-selection.** For large dataset analysis,
129 applying pre-selection methods effectively reduces computational burdens and
130 enhances calculation efficiency. However, one of the key challenges in the current
131 study is the variation in haplotype block lengths, which can range from as few as 2 to
132 more than 100 SNPs. Here, we adopted a learning-based approach. A linear regression
133 model is applied to each haplotype individually, and its average root of mean square
134 error on the testing dataset is used as a score indicating whether it should be selected
135 as a phenotype-associated candidate. Haplotype blocks of the SNP dataset were first
136 constructed using the confidence interval method (Gabriel et al., 2002), we then use
137 recurrent neural network LSTM to represent each haplotype block. Let

138

$$\{u_{h1}, \dots, u_{hi}\} = \text{lstm}(\{w_{h1}, \dots, w_{hi}\})$$

139 w_{hi} are word embedding for tokens in each haplotype block, where u_{hi} are updated
140 vectors for the token after LSTM.

141 An average-pooling is then used to obtain a fixed length representation and a linear
142 transformation yields the final representation of the haplotype block s_i .

$$143 \quad s_i = \text{linear} (W \cdot \text{avgpool} (u_{hi1}, \dots, u_{hi}))$$

144 All input haplotype blocks were pre-split into training and testing datasets. The model
145 is trained by minimising the root of mean square error of s_i and the phenotype y . In
146 testing, the phenotype-associated haplotype block candidates were selected based on
147 the mean prediction score.

148

149 **3.1.2 Hierarchical transformer encoder.**

150 **3.1.2.1 Embedding.** Input SNPs are first represented by word embeddings. Let
151 $e_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_e}$ represent the embedded dimensional vectors of the SNP i . Let H denote the
152 haplotype where $H = \{e_i\}_{i=1}^n$. n is the total number of SNPs in each haplotype block.

153 In our hierarchical haplotype transformer, each token (SNP) has two positions that
154 need to be considered, namely i , the position of the token (SNP) within the haplotype,
155 and j , the position of the haplotype block within the input sequence. We follow
156 (Vaswani et al., 2017) and use sine and cosine functions for calculating positional
157 embedding. These two positional embedding vectors were then concatenated and the
158 final input vector of each token (SNP) for the hierarchical haplotype transformer
159 model is: $x_i = e_i + e_p$.

160

161 **3.1.2.2 Local haplotype attention block.** The main aim of the local haplotype

162 attention block is to map the dynamic attention scores among SNPs within each

163 haplotype block. It contains several components, including multi-head attention, layer
164 normalisation and feed-forward. The number of these local attention blocks to be used
165 in the model will be decided by the researchers themselves. Let

166 $F = \{f_i\}_{i=1}^n$, $f_i \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{model}}}$ denote the features of SNPs within each haplotype input to

167 the local haplotype attention block. For the i attention head, the query $Q^j = \{q_i^j\}_{i=1}^n$,

168 key $K^j = \{k_i^j\}_{i=1}^n$ and value $V^j = \{v_i^j\}_{i=1}^n$ of each SNP are calculated based on

169 $q_i^j = W_Q^j f_i$, $k_i^j = W_K^j f_i$ and $v_i^j = W_V^j f_i$ respectively. The linear projection learnable

170 parameters weight W are matrices $W_i^Q \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{model}} \times d_k}$, $W_i^K \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{model}} \times d_k}$, $W_i^V \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{model}} \times d_v}$.

171 $d_k = d_v = d_{\text{model}}/h$. The output of j attention head will be: $\text{softmax}\left(\frac{QK^T}{\sqrt{d_k}}\right)V$. The

172 multi-head results were then concatenated and linear transferred with learnable weight

173 $W^O \in \mathbb{R}^{hd_v \times d_{\text{model}}}$ to get the final results. The feed-forward layer is composed of two

174 fully connected (FC) layers in inverse order with an activation function *Tahn* in

175 between.

176

177 **3.1.2.3 Inter-haplotype attention block.** To exchange information across different

178 haplotypes, an inter-haplotype attention block was used. To obtain a fixed-length

179 haplotype representation, a weighted, multi-head pooling was first used to represent

180 each haplotype. In each head, weight distributions over tokens (SNPs) are calculated

181 and different heads will encode haplotypes with different attention weights. Let

182 $x_i^{l-1} \in \mathbb{R}^d$ denote the output vector from the last layer of the local haplotype attention

183 block, which will be the input of the multi-head pooling layer. For haplotype H_j , for

184 head z , a linear transformation was first applied to convert the input vector into an

185 attention score a_i^z and a value vector b_i^z with the weight $W_a^z \in \mathbb{R}^{1 \times d}$ and $W_b^z \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{head}} \times d}$.

186 The final output $d_{\text{head}} \times \mathbf{1}$ is a weighted sum representing haplotype j in head z where

187 $W_c^z \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{head}} \times d_{\text{head}}}$.

188
$$\text{head}_j^z = \text{LayerNorm} \left(W_c^z \sum_{i=1}^n a_i^z b_i^z \right)$$

189 Similar to local haplotype attention blocks, inter-haplotype allows one haplotype to
190 attend to another to model the haplotype-haplotype dependencies.

191
$$q_j^z = W_q^z \text{head}_j^z$$

192
$$k_j^z = W_k^z \text{head}_j^z$$

193
$$v_j^z = W_v^z \text{head}_j^z$$

194
$$\text{context}_j^z = \sum_{j=1}^m \frac{\exp(q_j^{zT} k_j^z)}{\sum_{a=1}^m \exp(q_a^{zT} k_a^z)} v_j^z$$

195 Where $q_i^z, k_i^z \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{head}} \times d_{\text{head}}}$ and $v_j^z \in \mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{head}} \times 1}$, the output context_j^z was then flattened to

196 generate a vector with dimension $\mathbb{R}^{d_{\text{head}}}$. Finally, the different heads for each haplotype

197 were then concatenated and linear transformed $c_j = W_c[\text{context}_j^1; \dots; \text{context}_j^{n_{\text{head}}}]$

198 where $W_c \in \mathbb{R}^{d \times d}$ and $c_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$ will be added to the original token i vector to update the

199 token. Figure 2 provides a schematic view of inter-haplotype block attention.

200

201 3.2 Simulation dataset.

202 The simulation datasets were achieved by re-sampling approaches with existing

203 genotype data as reference panels, thereby retaining allele frequency and LD patterns

204 (Wright et al., 2007). In the current study, the re-sampling based method Hapgen2 (Su

205 et al., 2011) was applied with 1000Genomes (Auton & Salcedo, 2015) as a reference

206 panel. In total, chromosome 20 of 1000 individuals was resampled and subjected to

207 the following analysis. The haplotype block was parsed based on the confidence
208 interval method (Gabriel et al., 2002) by *PLINK* (Purcell et al., 2007).

209

210 In our current study, we first simulate the expression of h_i of each haplotype block i
211 according to a linear combination of all SNPs in the haplotype block.

$$h_i = \sum_{j=1}^{a_i} \alpha_{ij} x_{ij}$$

212

213 The phenotype was then simulated based on three epistasis models, which were
214 originally proposed by Burton et al (2007). More specifically, model 1 reflects an
215 epistasis model where the odds of disease increase multiplicatively within and
216 between 2-way disease markers. Using h_i and h_j to denote the expression of haplotype
217 i and j , α and θ to denote the baseline and the factor of odd disease increase. Model1:

$$\text{odds}[h_i, h_j] = \alpha \times (1 + \theta_1)^{h_i} \times (1 + \theta_2)^{h_j} + \epsilon$$

218
219 In contrast, model 2 represents a disease model where the odds of disease only
220 increase unless both loci have at least one disease-associated allele,

$$\text{odds}[h_i, h_j] = \alpha \times (1 + \theta)^{(h_i) \times (h_j)} + \epsilon$$

221
222 Model 3 is similar to model 2, but renders a simpler threshold model as

$$\text{odds}[h_i, h_j] = \alpha \times (1 + \theta) + \epsilon$$

223
224

225 To simulate the simple epistasis model, two haplotype blocks will be randomly
226 selected each time and the phenotype model 1, model 2 or model 3 will be simulated
227 accordingly. To simulate the complex epistasis model, one dataset will contain
228 multiple epistasis from different SNP pairs. Here, we use the ‘Combined Model

229 1+2+3' as a complex epistasis model which contains three epistasis from the previous
230 three basic models.

231

232 **3.3 Baseline models.**

233 To benchmark our model, we selected two state-of-the-art approaches for comparison
234 with the current proposed framework, matrixEpistasis (Zhu and Fang, 2017) and
235 GWAS_NN (Cui et al., 2022). MatrixEpistasis represents a state-of-the-art method
236 for exhaustive epistasis searching. In contrast, GWAS_NN is one of the few methods
237 in the current field that tackles epistasis detection using neural networks, while also
238 providing an interpretation for the observed results. The GWAS_NN model first
239 learns the genetic block representations from all SNPs of a genetic block in a shallow
240 layer and then learns the complex relationships between genetic blocks in a deep
241 layer. These two baseline models exemplify the two main categories for epistasis
242 detection: exhaustive searching and machine learning. Both baseline models were
243 operated with the default settings unless indicated otherwise.

244

245 **3.4 Cohort description and statistical analysis.**

246 **3.4.1 Cohort description.** This research has been conducted using the UK Biobank
247 Resource. A material transfer agreement was signed with UK Biobank that covers
248 Research Tissue Bank (RTB) under projects 49731 and 59642. The UK Biobank
249 study began in 2006 and, by 2010, had recruited over 500,000 participants from the
250 general UK population, aged 40 to 69 at the time of enrollment. The UK Biobank
251 genetic data contains genotypes for 488,377 participants. These were assayed using

252 two different yet similar assays, Applied Biosystems UK BiLEVE Axiom Array by
253 Affymetrix (Thermo Fisher Scientific) and Applied Biosystems UK Biobank Axiom
254 Array. More detail on the assay and quality control can be found in the UK Biobank
255 Genotyping and Quality Control
256 (https://biobank.ctsu.ox.ac.uk/crystal/crystal/docs/genotyping_qc.pdf). Individuals
257 included in the current study from UK Biobank have T2D and are of European
258 descent. The UK The REC reference for UK Biobank is 16/NW/0274.

259

260 **3.4.2 Candidate genes selection.** To test the potential application of HB-LT in a real-
261 world scenario, we applied HB-LT to pre-selected glycosylated haemoglobin associated
262 genes. The candidate genes were first extracted from the DisGeNET database (Piñero,
263 et al., 2015). In total, fourteen genes were extracted and their coordinates
264 (chromosome, gene start position, and gene end position) were obtained using the
265 BioMart Project martview tool (Supplemental material). Next, SNPs located in each
266 gene \pm 10 kbps were extracted in *PLINK* (Purcell et al., 2007). The thresholds set for
267 quality control including, imputation quality, Hardy-Weinberg equilibrium,
268 genotyping missing data across individuals, and genotyping missing rate were 0.8, 10-
269 10, 0.05, and 0.05 respectively.

270

271 **3.4.3 Covariants pre-filtering.** The datasets were subjected to a PCA-based covariant
272 pre-filtering stage to reduce the confounding effects before they feed into the HB-LT
273 for potential epistasis signal mining. Four covariants, including sex, age of diabetes
274 diagnosis, diabetes duration and population genetic structure were standardised

275 (*Scikit-learn* package) and subjected to PCA (*Scikit-learn* package) to reduce into a 2-
276 dimensional space. A 1×1 square was then applied to locate the most densely
277 populated area and individuals within this area were selected and subjected to the
278 following analysis.

279

280 **3.5 Software support.**

281 We conducted model-building and statistical analysis mainly using Python 3.9
282 (<https://www.python.org/>) and additional packages including *Pandas* (2.2.2), *Numpy*
283 (1.26.4), *PyTorch* (2.3.1), and *Tensorflow* (2.16.1). Other software includes R 4.2.2
284 (<https://www.r-project.org/>), Hapgen2
285 (https://mathgen.stats.ox.ac.uk/genetics_software/hapgen/), PLINK 1.9
286 (<https://www.cog-genomics.org/plink/>) and BioMart Project martview
287 (<https://mart.ensembl.org/>). The figures in the current study were drawn by *Matplotlib*
288 (3.8.2) and *Plotly* (5.22.0).

289

290 **3.6 Data availability statement.**

291 UK Biobank data are available to registered investigators under approved applications
292 (<http://www.ukbiobank.ac.uk>). Other relevant data are available from the
293 corresponding author upon request. The source code will be available shortly after the
294 deposition.

295

296 **4. Results**

297 **Long short-term memory (LSTM) selects potential phenotype-associated signals**
298 **as stage 1 of the current model.**

299 To pre-select potential phenotype-associated candidates from pools of haplotype
300 blocks in the human genome while maintaining a feasible computational burden, it is
301 essential to implement efficient filtering techniques. These techniques should be
302 capable of learning the representations of haplotype blocks by considering all the
303 SNPs within each block to the phenotype. Long short-term memory (LSTM) is a
304 recurrent neural network that is capable of learning long-range dependency and can
305 process sequences with variable lengths. It was widely used in datasets that process
306 “sequential” properties, such as natural language translation, before the introduction of
307 the Transformer model (Vaswani et al., 2017). Nevertheless, LSTMs still demonstrate
308 several advantages, especially for small datasets such as haplotype blocks, making
309 them a potentially effective technique for the filtering stage.

310

311 In the current study, we evaluated three epistasis models (model 1, model 2, and
312 model 3) as described by Burton et al. (2007), using chromosome 20 data from 1,000
313 individuals. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) were pre-organized into
314 haplotype blocks using *PLINK*. Detailed descriptions of the dataset simulation and
315 haplotype block parsing methods can be found in the Methods section. Each haplotype
316 was tested individually by LSTM (n=10) and the root of mean square error was
317 recorded each time. Figure 3 shows the LSTM performance of chromosome 20 with 2
318 random haplotype blocks selected as epistasis signals of model 1, model 2 and model
319 3 (from top to bottom) at one record. Multiple valleys can be observed in all three
320 plots, indicating the presence of real epistasis signals. To quantify the performance of
321 the model across multiple runs with different haplotype block sizes, we repeated this

322 process 10 times and recorded the ROC AUC each time. As shown in the figure, the
323 LSTM can distinguish the epistasis signals from the background noise, achieving an
324 area under the curve (AUC) close to 1 in all three simple epistasis models.
325 Additionally, we conducted tests using the complex epistasis model to evaluate the
326 LSTM's capability in distinguishing signals. This complex epistasis model
327 encapsulates the combined effects of model 1, model 2, and model 3, which feature
328 multiple epistatic interactions from different haplotype block pairs. Employing
329 assessment criteria similar to those used for the simple epistasis model, Figure 3
330 shows that the LSTM demonstrates robust performance in accurately identifying all
331 haplotype blocks which contain complex epistasis signals. In short, in both simple and
332 complex epistasis models, the LSTM is an effective tool for selecting potential
333 candidates from large haplotype pools, significantly reducing the computational
334 burden and increasing the calculation power for subsequent hierarchical transformer
335 analysis.

336

337 **The hierarchical transformer encoder maps the haplotype block interactions**
338 **with the complex epistasis model as stage 2 of the current study.**

339 After selecting the potential phenotype-associated haplotype block candidates, we
340 applied a hierarchical transformer encoder and continued with the simulation datasets
341 to assess its ability for epistasis signal detections. The hierarchical transformer
342 encoder is a modified version of the hierarchical transformer that was originally
343 proposed by Liu and Lapata (2019). The potential epistasis signals were quantified
344 and visualised using the attention weights, which served as the main output of the

345 current hierarchical transformer encoder. "Attention," first introduced by Vaswani et
346 al. (2017), is a mechanism in the transformer neural network that enables the model to
347 dynamically weigh the importance of each element in an input sequence relative to the
348 others. The attention weights, the main output of our current model, are computed
349 using a scaled dot-product that quantifies this "relatedness" between pairs of haplotype
350 blocks and SNPs (within haplotype block). Several studies (Ahmed, Aly and Liu,
351 2024; Graça et al., 2024) have demonstrated these attention weights that learned by
352 the model, at least partially, can be interpreted as the epistasis interactive scores
353 between genetic regions.

354

355 In the hierarchical transformer encoder, attention weights are initially mapped
356 between each SNP within each haplotype block. Subsequently, a fixed-length
357 representation of each haplotype is generated using multi-head pooling. Multi-head
358 attention weights are then calculated between haplotypes. This updated information is
359 incorporated into the original SNP embedding and processed through the feed-forward
360 layer. For further details, please refer to the Methods section. Figure 4a illustrates the
361 Root Mean Square Error (RMSE) and loss for both training and testing datasets, split
362 in a ratio of 0.8:0.2, for a single record. The plots demonstrate a smooth training
363 trajectory with no significant discrepancies between the training and testing datasets,
364 indicating stable model performance and effective training without overfitting.

365 Additionally, this process was repeated 10 times, each iteration using different pre-
366 selected simulated signals (Figure 4b). The model consistently demonstrated a robust

367 performance in phenotype predictions with mean RMSE lower than 0.012 for both
368 training and testing datasets.

369

370 More importantly, to evaluate whether the simulated complex epistasis signals
371 (model1+2+3) can be at least partially captured by the cross-haplotype attention
372 weights, which are the primary output of our current HB-LT model, we compared
373 these weights with the ground truth matrix. We then plotted the ROC AUC curve
374 (n=10), as shown in Figure 4c. The model achieved an average AUC of 0.83. In short,
375 after the LSTM pre-selected the potential phenotype-associated haplotype blocks, the
376 hierarchical transformer encoder demonstrated reasonable performance in
377 distinguishing potential interaction/epistasis signals between haplotype blocks.

378

379 **HB-LT outperforms baseline models for both simple and complex epistasis**
380 **models.**

381 Traditional exhaustive epistasis searching methods are often facing a challenge
382 referred to as the “curse of dimensionality”. The SNPs that are involved in the
383 epistatic interactions might have low minor allele frequencies, however, the variants
384 to be tested can be huge. As a result, detecting these interactions becomes challenging
385 due to the reduced statistical power and the increased likelihood of both type 1 and
386 type 2 errors. In the current study, we selected matrixEpistasis (Zhu and Fang, 2017)
387 as one of the representatives for an exhaustive epistasis searching method against our
388 current HB-LT model.

389 In contrast, we also tested two deep learning neural network baseline models,
390 GWAS_NN (Cui et al., 2022) and LSTM with the vanilla transformer encoder, against
391 our current HB-LT model. In GWAS_NN, the long sequence of SNPs was initially
392 divided into different genetic blocks (SNPs layer). Fully connected multilayer
393 perceptrons (MLPs) were then used to learn a fixed representation for each genetic
394 block (g_1, \dots, g_m). Another set of MLPs was subsequently trained to learn the epistasis
395 between these genetic blocks. Additionally, we also tested the LSTM with the vanilla
396 transformer encoder against our HB-LT model to assess the potential advantages of
397 the hierarchical transformer structure compared to the vanilla single SNP transformer
398 structure for epistasis studies.

399

400 A total of 6,156 haplotype blocks (60,501 SNPs) from chromosome 20 in the
401 simulation datasets were analysed using three baseline models and the HB-LT model.
402 These models were evaluated under both simple and complex epistasis conditions
403 with recorded ROC AUC (n=10). Overall, all four models showed robust performance
404 in identifying epistasis signals. MatrixEpistasis demonstrated a stable yet
405 comparatively low performance, with an average of around 0.73 across both simple
406 and complex epistasis models. This outcome likely reflects the reduced statistical
407 power of exhaustive searching methods when handling large SNP datasets. In
408 contrast, HB-LT exhibited the highest performance across both simple and complex
409 models, although this advantage was less pronounced when dealing with complex
410 models. The reason HB-LT has a larger ROC AUC than baseline models could mainly
411 be because HB-LT employs multi-head pooling to utilise all SNPs for representing

412 haplotype blocks in a supervised manner. This approach not only reduces
413 dimensionality compared to considering each SNP individually but also provides more
414 informative representations than selecting a single SNP or using unsupervised
415 methods such as PCA.

416

417

418 **Interaction discovery in a diabetes glycated haemoglobin study.**

419 To inspect how trustworthy our proposed framework is in a real-world scenario,
420 experiments on real-world cohort, UK BioBank for glycated haemoglobin (HbA1c)
421 are performed. Glycated haemoglobin (HbA1c) is the most common biomarker used
422 to monitor glucose control in diabetes patients (WHO, 2011), which reflects the
423 glycemic load ~ 3 months and traits such as hemoglobinopathies and alteration in
424 intracellular glucose metabolism (Nathan, Turgeon and Regan, 2007). HbA1c levels
425 are influenced by both environmental and genetic factors. Research studies (Snieder et
426 al., 2001; Meigs et al., 2002) estimating the heritability of HbA1c in non-diabetic
427 individuals report a range from 27% to 62%, providing strong evidence of a
428 significant genetic component in HbA1c variability. Previous genome-wide
429 association studies (GWAS) (Wheeler et al., 2017) have identified more than 100
430 genetic variants to be associated with HbA1c. In this study, we re-examined the
431 HbA1c-associated loci in the UK Biobank cohort to explore potential novel epistasis
432 signals, both within and across haplotype blocks. To limit the potential confounding
433 factors in our current study, patients were pre-filtered based on 4 covariants (age of
434 diabetes diagnosis; diabetes duration; sex and population genetic structure) in UK
435 Biobank to select individuals with similar characteristics and eliminate the potential

436 outliers. The clinical features of individuals from the UK Biobank used in the current
437 study are shown in Table 1. The chosen datasets have 1277 individuals, with in total
438 of 14 genes with 10kbp flanking regions added to both ends, 74 haplotype blocks and
439 1821 SNPs. The haplotype blocks were parsed based on the confidence interval
440 method (Gabriel et al., 2002). More details regarding individual covariants pre-
441 selection and haplotype block parsing can be referred to the Methods section.

442

443 **Cross-haplotype block epistasis**

444 Unlike the simulated datasets, the interacting haplotype blocks are not known in the
445 real datasets. One of the common approaches to validate the proposed framework's
446 prediction and interpretation is to find previous works that report genes and epistatic
447 relationships on the related disease. Afterwards, the objective is to map the framework
448 haplotype block outputs to the target genes. In the UK Biobank, using HB-LT, we
449 observed 7 pairwise interaction candidates. All interaction candidates of the HbA1c
450 phenotype and their corresponding attention scores were listed in the first two
451 columns of Table 2. The threshold is set as attention scores higher than 0.1. There are
452 no standard ways to choose the attention threshold. For the future studies, researchers
453 can set the threshold wherever they think that fits their hypothesis.

454 We then investigate whether the interaction candidates discovered by HB-LT can be
455 detected by other methods. Similarly to the simulation dataset section, we trained
456 GWAS_NN and recorded the interaction scores for each interaction candidate in the
457 third column in Table 2. Not all signals detected by HB-LT can also be mapped out by
458 GWAS_NN as significant. This could potentially highlight that HB-LT can detect

459 novel signals which can be overlooked by other methods. Finally, We then check if
460 any of the gene interactions have already been recorded in the previous studies, shown
461 in the last column of Table 2.

462

463 **Within-haplotype SNP epistasis**

464 One of the key advantages of HB-LT compared to other multi-dimensional reduction
465 methods is that it trains each SNP individually before pooling them into a fixed
466 haplotype representation. This approach preserves the haplotype structure during the
467 training process, allowing us to monitor not only potential cross-haplotype
468 interactions but also SNP interactions within each haplotype block. Indeed, it is
469 believed that SNPs within a functional region have a higher chance to interact with
470 each other and influence the phenotype (Ma, Clark and Keinan, 2013). We listed all
471 the within-haplotype SNP interaction candidates, gene names and attention scores in
472 the first three columns of Table 3. By setting the threshold > 0.05 , there are 16 within
473 haplotype block pairwise SNP interactions observed. Similarly, we compared the
474 within-haplotype pairwise SNP interaction results obtained from HB-LT with those
475 identified using the previously published exhaustive search method, MatrixEpistasis
476 and recorded the *p-value* in the last column of Table 3.

477

478 In summary, leveraging pre-selected HbA1c-associated genes from the UK Biobank,
479 we explore the potential real-world application of HB-LT. Future studies are essential
480 to statistically and biologically validate our current findings. Additionally, further

481 investigation is warranted to assess the feasibility of HB-LT in hypothesis-free, large-
482 scale genetic datasets.

483

484 5. Discussion

485 The current existing approaches for detecting interactions in genetic study face several
486 challenges including: (i) to reduce the “curse of dimensionality”, genes are typically
487 represented as the most important SNPs while ignoring the potential effects of
488 neighbouring SNPs. (ii) only restrictive forms of interactions are considered. (iii)
489 while scalable methods like PCA have been proposed to reduce the multidimensional
490 SNP data into a one-dimensional representation, these techniques often neglect
491 important phenotype-related information. Additionally, such methods make it difficult
492 to analyse the internal structure of each condensed multi-SNP unit in relation to the
493 phenotype. Indeed, there is a need for a framework that integrates genetic block
494 representation learning with the modelling of both intra- and inter-block interactions
495 within an end-to-end model. Here, we proposed a deep learning genetic block
496 detection method, Haplotype Block LSTM hierarchical Transformer (HB-LT). HB-LT
497 can hierarchically encode genetic SNP sequences. In HB-LT, each SNPs in
498 relationship to its surrounding SNPs within each genetic block were learned by a
499 multi-attention head. Next, a pooling method is applied to get a fixed representation of
500 each genetic block, cross genetic block relationships via an attention method were
501 then mapped as opposed to concatenating dimensional condensed genetic units into
502 flat sequences and then fed into the model. This approach enables the model to
503 dynamically learn richer structural dependencies among SNPs within each genetic

504 block and effectively incorporate these insights into the inter-genetic block layer. In
505 the experimental work, the results obtained from HB-LT were compared with both
506 exhaustive searching (MatrixEpistasis) and deep learning methods (GWAS_NN). The
507 current study shows that HB-LT exhibits a better performance for epistasis detections
508 in both simple and complex epistasis models. Moreover, HB-LT was also tested on
509 HbA1c in the UK Biobank to assess its application in a real-world scenario.

510

511 The current proposed deep learning framework may have many attractive features, but
512 it also has several shortcomings. First, it should be noted, that although the potential
513 applications of attention weights in transformer as an indicator of epistasis have been
514 studied and demonstrated in recent years (Reyes et al., 2022; Graça et al., 2024), these
515 weights cannot be directly interpreted as measurements of epistasis levels in genetics.
516 While these weights can highlight regions of interest in relation to the phenotype, the
517 focus of attention mechanisms is on capturing token dependencies and relevant
518 patterns in the dataset to improve outcome predictions, not necessarily to isolate or
519 quantify specific genetic interactions. Moreover, the intricate relationship between
520 statistical and biological epistasis adds an additional layer of complexity (Moore and
521 Williams, 2005; Ebbert, Ridge, and Kauwe, 2015). The disparity between these two
522 models of epistasis often obscures the biological relevance and implications of
523 statistical findings, making it challenging to draw clear, meaningful conclusions about
524 the underlying genetic mechanisms. Indeed, we view our proposed HB-LT framework
525 as a tool for mining and filtering large datasets. Regions of interest identified by HB-
526 LT should be further investigated and validated through more targeted statistical

527 methods and potential complementary biological experiments. Second, the potential
528 covariants, such as age and population genetic structure are not directly incorporated
529 in the current model, instead, a PCA-based pre-filtering stage was applied to minimise
530 the confounding effects. By implementing this approach, we minimised the risk of
531 extraneous factors contaminating the HB-LT model outputs, making the results more
532 straightforward to interpret. However, this adjustment means that the HB-LT model
533 will not be applied to the full dataset size, potentially leading to a loss of information.
534 Additionally, this change may introduce new complexities for future users. The
535 challenge of how to incorporate potential covariates into the model remains an open
536 question that needs to be addressed. Finally, the potential of whole-genome
537 hypothesis-free epistasis studies to significantly enhance outcome prediction has been
538 a topic of debate and scepticism for decades. Several studies (González-Camacho et
539 al., 2012; Mäki-Tanila and Hill, 2014 and Wei et al., 2014) have demonstrated that
540 despite the possible biological ubiquity of epistasis, the total genetic variance of
541 polygenic traits is likely largely to be explained by the “additive top SNPs model”.
542 However, other studies (Dudley and Johnson, 2009; Hu et al., 2011; Álvarez-Castro et
543 al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012) conducted showed that the inclusion of epistatic effect
544 networks for prediction improved prediction over the use of additive effects only.
545 Indeed, we do not intend to propose HB-LT as a replacement for the “top SNPs
546 approach”. This study is not aimed at comparing epistasis and non-epistasis models
547 for outcome prediction. Instead, HB-LT serves as a complementary tool designed to
548 uncover interactions that might otherwise be overlooked, potentially revealing novel

549 genetic structures underlying complex disease development and leading to the
550 discovery of new markers.

551

552 6. Conclusion

553 For the past decades, Genome-wide Association Studies (GWAS) have successfully
554 identified thousands of risk alleles for complex diseases. Despite this, it usually failed
555 to capture the statistical epistasis i.e. interaction between SNPs, which is
556 acknowledged as a fundamental factor for understanding complex disease genetic
557 pathways. Traditional epistasis searching tools often suffer from computational burden
558 and lack of calculation power. Moreover, it has become increasingly recognized that
559 leveraging the combined effects of SNP groups within specific genetic blocks for
560 epistasis searching can yield greater phenotypic variance than focusing on individual
561 SNPs alone. However, to our best knowledge, there is yet a framework that has been
562 proposed that can incorporate this hierarchical genetic structure to form an end-to-end
563 model for epistasis searching. Here, we proposed HB-LT, which takes advantage of
564 the haplotype block structure existing in the genome to reduce the dimensionality of
565 SNP features and increase statistical power. Haplotype block is not the only way to
566 measure SNP dependencies and grouping, the impact of different methods for
567 epistasis study should be investigated in the future.

568

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576

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580

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582 the supervision of G.R. and with professional support from P.H., J.T., A.B. and B.L.
583 The current model (HB-LT) was designed by S.L. and S.A. The source code was
584 written by S.A. and S.L. The model training and testing were performed by S.L. and
585 S.A. The real-world cohort genetic datasets were organized, maintained and queried
586 by R.A. The manuscript was written by S.L.

587

588 8. References

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758 quantitative traits with covariate adjustment. *Bioinformatics*, 34(14), pp.2341–2348.
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760

761 Table 1. Characteristics of the included individuals of the cohorts.

Clinical Features	UK Biobank (n=1277) (Mean±SD)
Age of diabetes diagnosis	56.3±3.0
Duration (year)	4.0±2.4
Diastolic blood pressure	83.0±5.1
Systolic blood pressure	142.0±8.8

Sex (Male: Female)	482:795
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762

763 Table 2. Cross-haplotype blocks attention in UK Biobank by two independent

764 methods.

Phenotype	Genes	Haplo Block*	HB-LT Attention Scores (UK Biobank)	GWAS_N Interaction Scores (UK Biobank)	References
HbA1c	LOC112268412, KLF11, CYS1; GCK, LOC105375257, YKT6	H2, H11	0.23	0.0012	Oishi and Manabe, 2018
	LOC112268412, KLF11,	H2, H15	0.22	0.17	NA

	CYS1; BLK				
	BLK, LOC1053 79241; NSMCE2	H23, H30	0.13	0.09	NA
	NSMCE2	H30, H31	0.30	0.23	
	CEL; KCNJ11	H34, H41	0.13	0.19	NA
	CEL; NCR3LG 1, KCNJ11	H34, H40	0.12	0.19	NA
	ABCC8; KCNJ11	H40, H42	0.12	0.008	De Franco et al., 2020

765 * Full length of each Haplotype block seen in Supplemental material.

766

767 Table 3. Within haplotype block SNP attention in UK Biobank by both HB-LT and

768 MatrixEpistasis.

Phenotype	Genes	Pairwise	Attention	P-value (UK BioBank)
-----------	-------	----------	-----------	----------------------

		SNPs	Scores (UK BioBank) HB-LT	MatrixEpistasis
HbA1c	NA	rs6756950, rs7420169	0.11	0.00037
	HNF4A	rs736820, rs736824	0.11	0.00046
	GCK	rs2908285, rs118180640	0.09	0.00023
	YKT6, GCK	rs1814253, rs118180640	0.07	0.00163
	GCK, NA	rs118180640 , rs758983	0.07	0.00091
	NEUROD 1, NA	rs12053195 , rs6756950	0.06	0.052

	NA, NEUROD1	rs6756950, rs12052558	0.05	0.002
	NA, NEUROD1	rs6756950, rs16867467	0.05	0.0002

769

770

771 **Figure Legend**

772 **Figure 1. Pipeline of our within and cross haplotype block epistasis detection**

773 **method (HB-LT).** The haplotype dataset was first selected by Long short-term
774 memory (LSTM) to obtain the potential phenotype-associated haplotype blocks
775 (HBs). These candidates are then fed into the Hierarchical transformer encoder to
776 obtain the within and cross-haplotype block attention weights, which could be
777 subjected to the following analysis for potential epistasis signal discoveries.

778

779 **Figure 2. The overall pipeline of the hierarchical haplotype transformer**
780 **encoder.**

781

782 **Figure 3. Long short-term memory (LSTM) selects potential phenotype-**

783 **associated haplotype block candidates on both simple and complex epistasis**

784 **models using simulated datasets.** Each haplotype block was independently trained

785 and tested by the LSTM model. The root mean square error (RMSE) of the testing

786 datasets was plotted along with the mean and standard deviation (SD). To evaluate the

787 model's performance with different haplotype block lengths, the process was repeated

788 (n=10). For each iteration, the area under the curve (AUC) of the model's predictions

789 was plotted against the ground truth.

790

791 **Figure 4. The hierarchical transformer encoder distinguishes epistasis signals in**

792 **a complex epistasis model using simulated datasets.** Pre-selected haplotype block

793 candidates identified by the long short-term memory (LSTM) model were

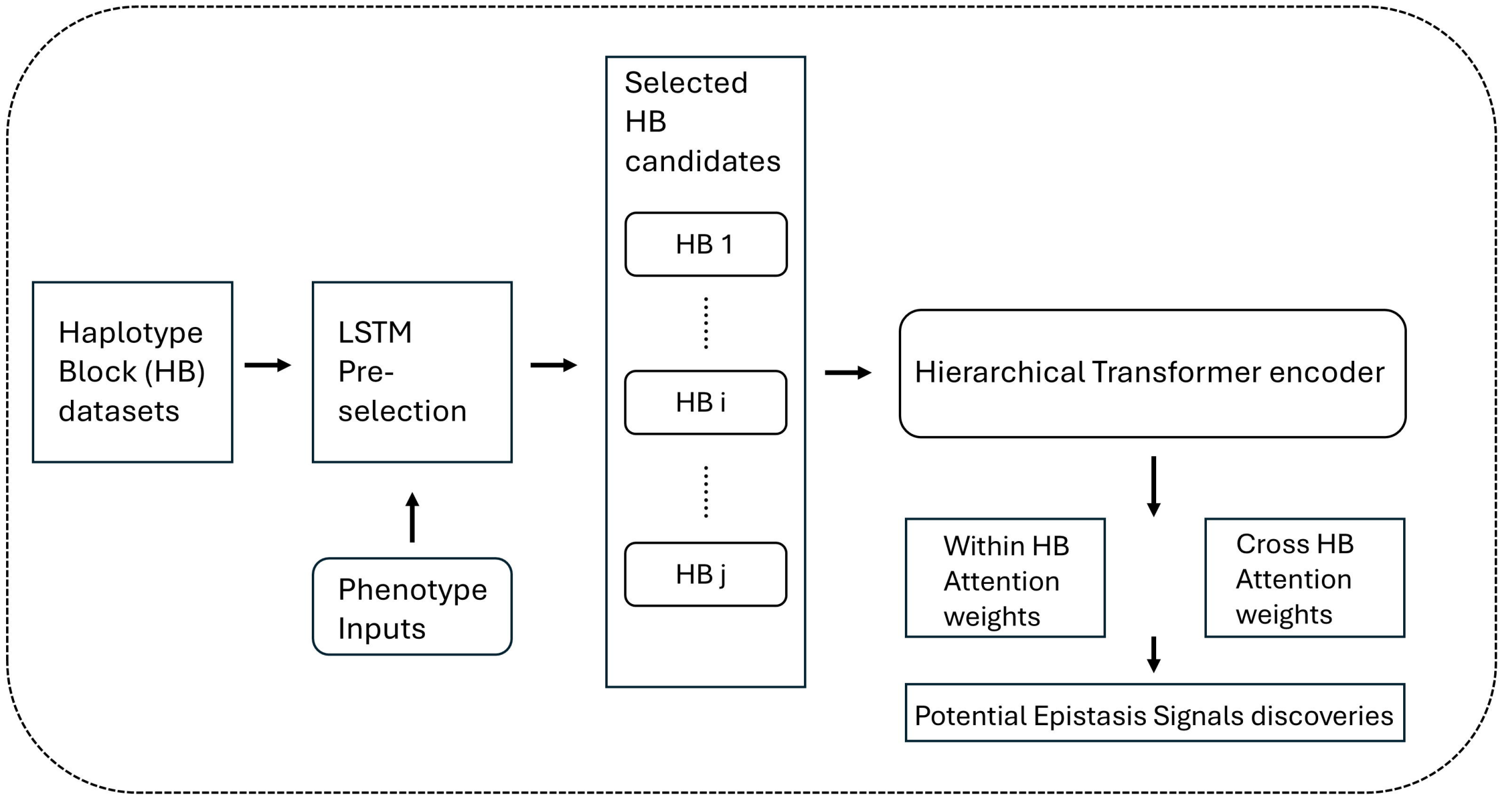
794 subsequently processed by the hierarchical transformer encoder. (a) Training and
795 testing loss, and root mean square error (RMSE) for a single record. (b) Box plot
796 showing the RMSE for training and testing datasets (n=10). (c) The area under the
797 curve (AUC) for the complex epistasis signals predicted by the hierarchical
798 transformer encoder, compared to the ground truth.

799

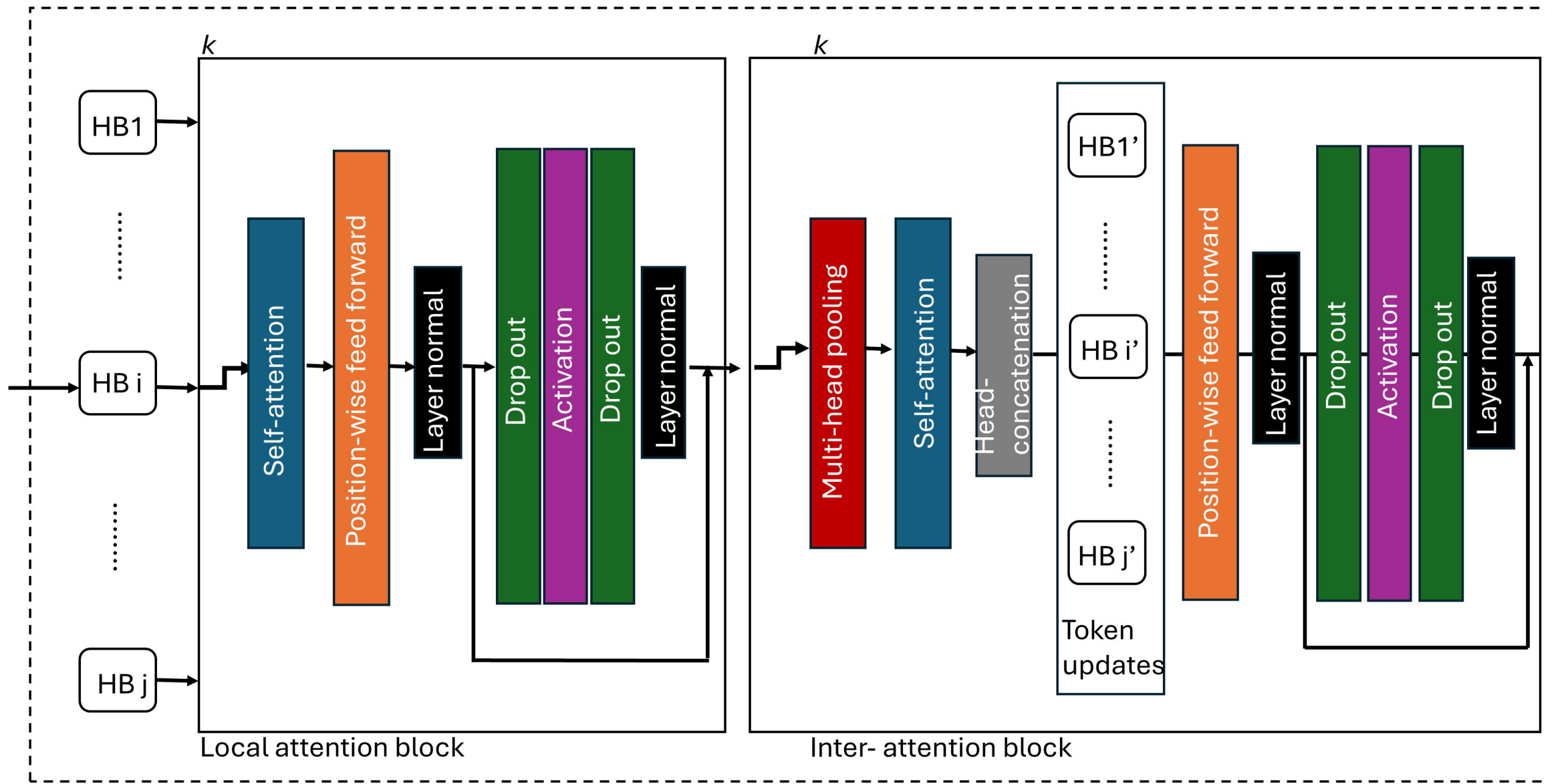
800 **Figure 5. The comparison of HB-LT with state-of-art Epistasis searching**
801 **methods, MatrixEpistasis (Zhu and Fang, 2017) and GWAS_NN (Cui et al.,**
802 **2022) in both simple and complex epistasis models with n=10.**

803

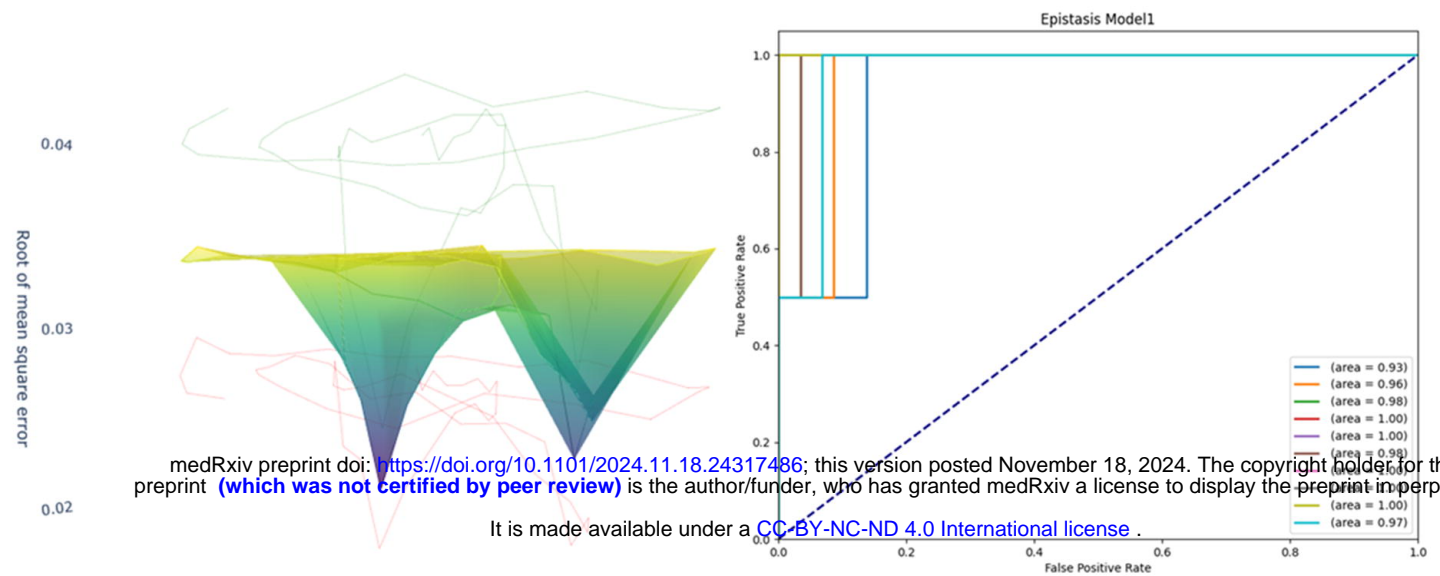
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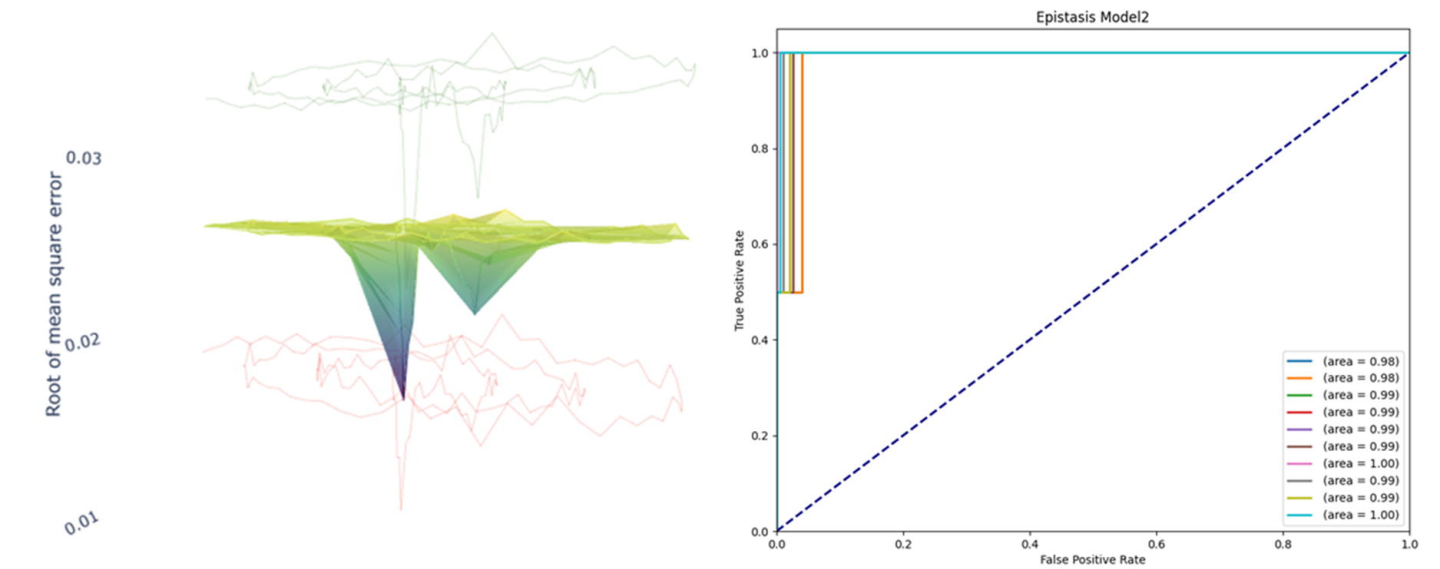
HB-LT



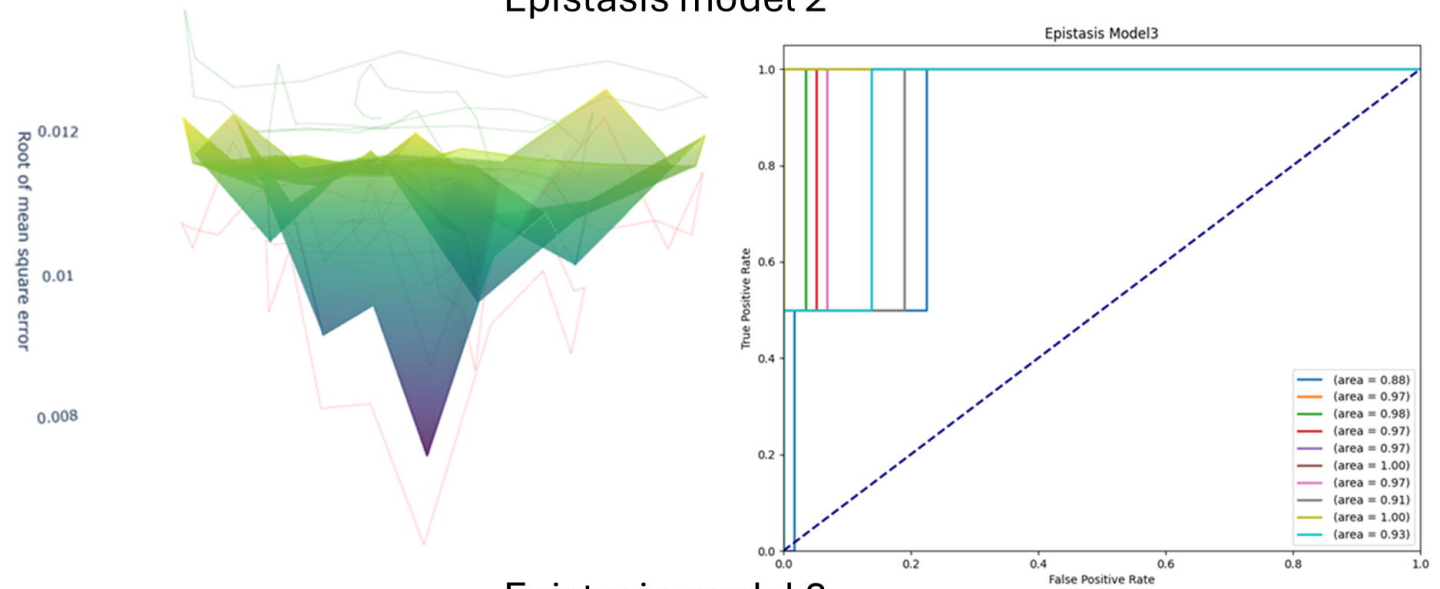
Hierarchical haplotype transformer encoder



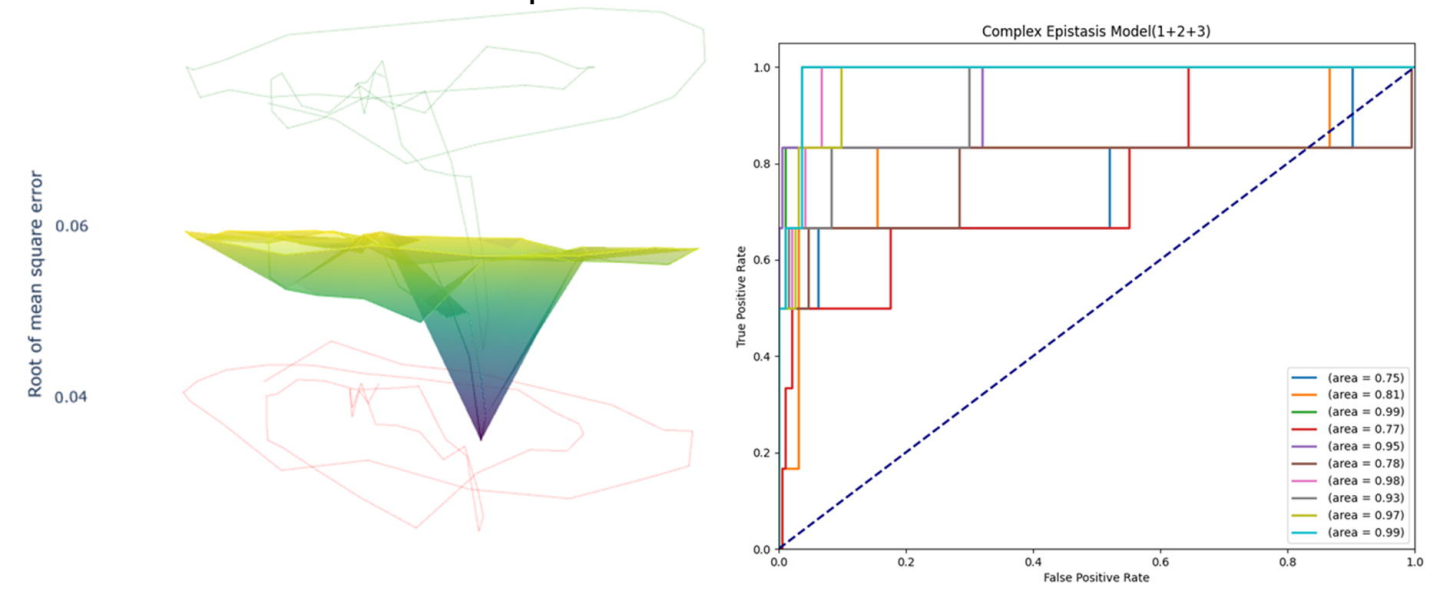
Epistasis model 1



Epistasis model 2

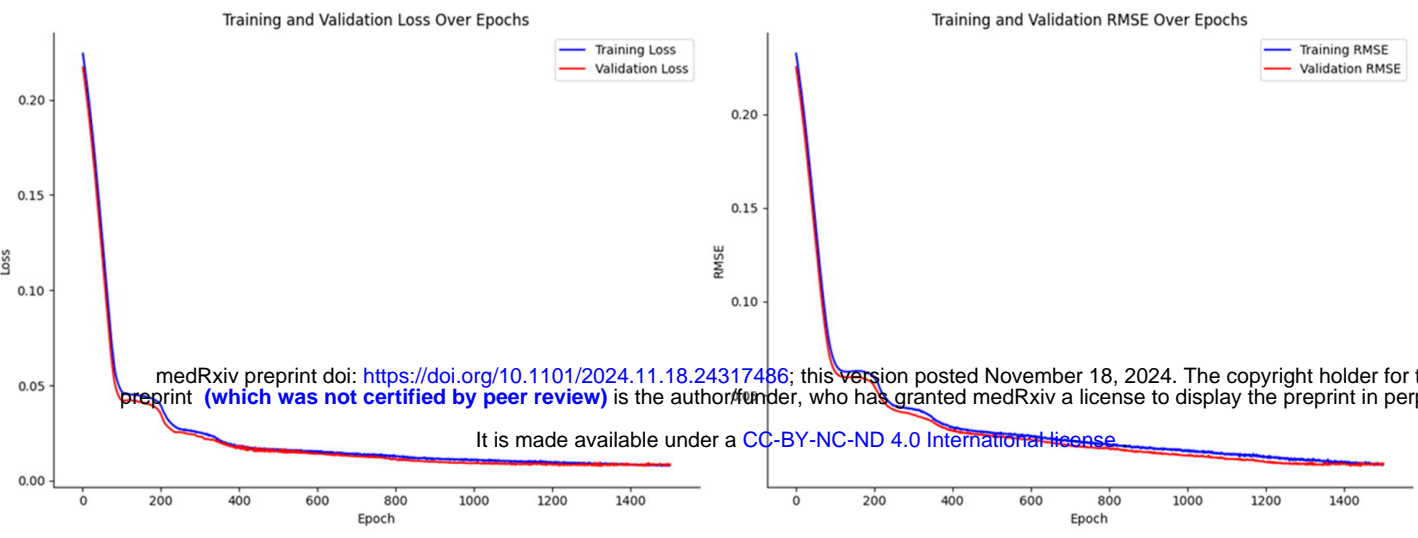


Epistasis model 3

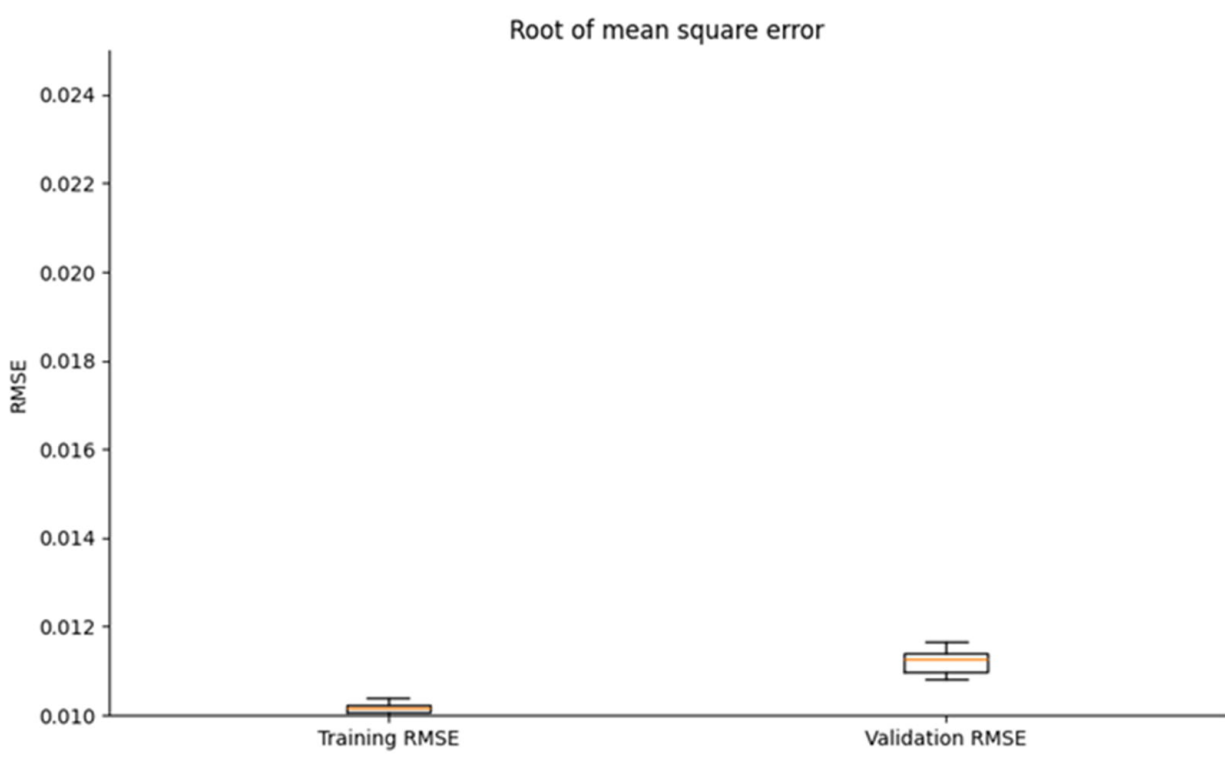


Complex Epistasis model (model1+2+3)

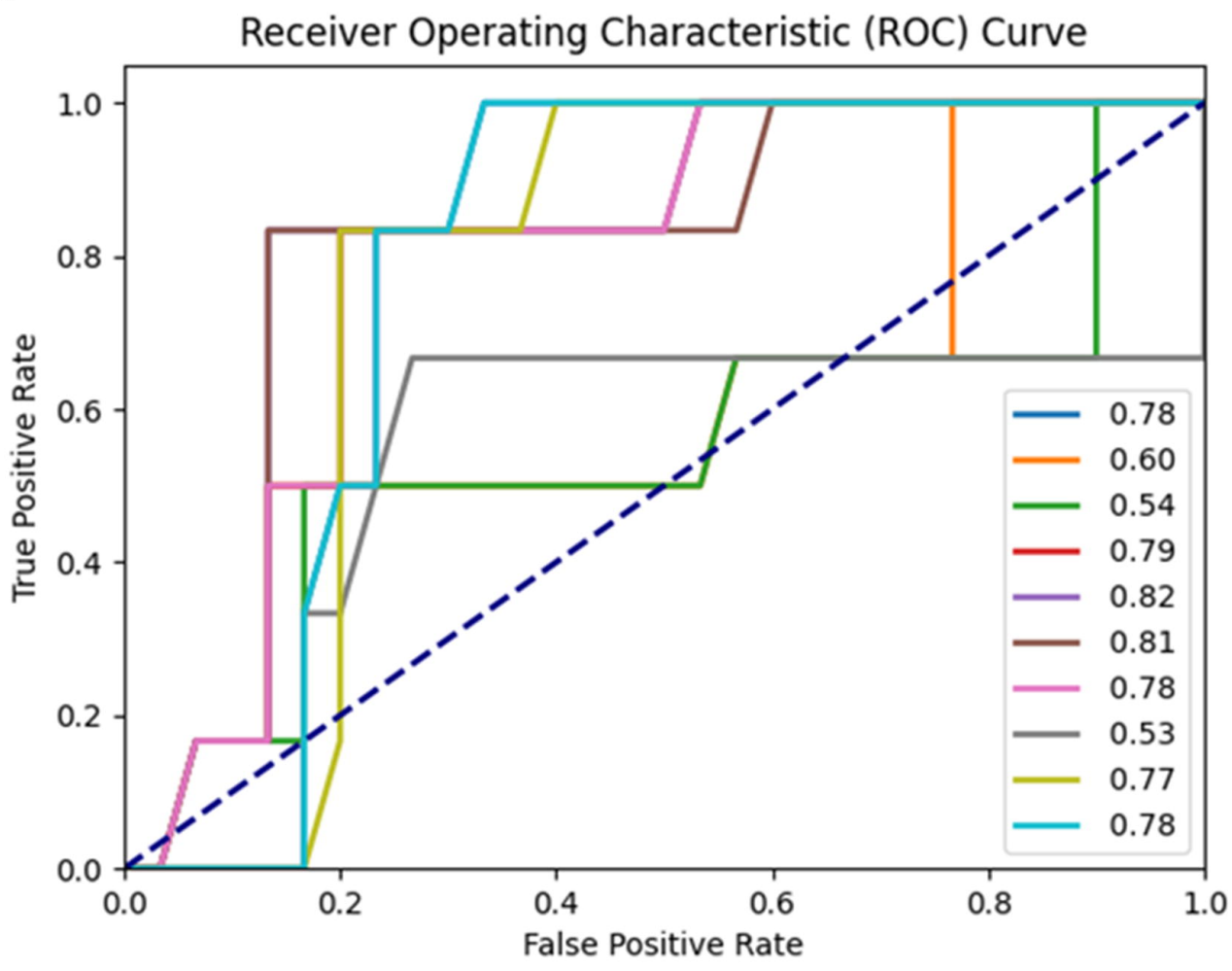
a.



b.



c.



ROC AUC of HB-LT and baseline models

