

1 **Predicting nonlinear genetic relationships between traits in**
2 **multi-trait evaluations by using a GBLUP-assisted Deep**
3 **Learning model**

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18

19 **Abstract**

20 **Background**

21 Genomic prediction aims to predict the breeding values of multiple complex traits assumed to be
22 normally distributed, thus imposing linear genetic correlations between traits. However, these
23 statistical methods are unable to model nonlinear genetic relationships between traits, if existent,
24 potentially leading to a decrease in prediction accuracy. Deep learning (DL) is a promising
25 methodology for predicting multiple complex traits, in scenarios where nonlinear genetic
26 relationships are present, due to its capacity to capture complex and nonlinear patterns in large data.
27 We proposed a novel pure DL model, designed to obtain predicted genetic values (PGV) while
28 accounting for nonlinear genetic relationships between traits, and extended this model to a hybrid
29 DLGBLUP model which uses the output of the traditional GBLUP, and enhances its PGV by using
30 DL. Using simulated data, we compared the accuracy of the PGV obtained with the proposed pure
31 DL model, the hybrid DLGBLUP model, and the traditional GBLUP model – the latter being our
32 baseline reference.

33 **Results**

34 We found that both DL and DLGBLUP models either outperformed GBLUP, or presented equally
35 accurate PGV, with a particular greater accuracy for traits presenting a strongly characterized
36 nonlinear genetic relationship. DLGBLUP presented the highest prediction accuracy and smallest
37 mean squared error of the PGV for all traits. Additionally, we evolved a base population over seven
38 generations and compared the genetic progress when selecting individuals based on the additive PGV
39 obtained by either DL, DLGBLUP or GBLUP. For all traits with a nonlinear genetic relationship,
40 after the fourth generation, the observed genetic gain when selection was based on the additive PGV

41 from GBLUP was always inferior to the observed when selection was based on either DL or
42 DLGBLUP.

43 **Conclusions**

44 The integration of DL into genomic prediction has potential to bring significant advancements in the
45 field. By identifying nonlinear genetic relationships, our DL and DLGBLUP models improved
46 prediction accuracy. It offers an insight to genetic relationship and its evolution over generations,
47 with potential to improve selection strategies in commercial livestock breeding programs. Moreover,
48 DLGBLUP shows that DL can be used as a complement to statistical methods, by enhancing their
49 performance.

50 **Background**

51 Genomic prediction (GP) [1] in genetic evaluations uses DNA marker information, most commonly
52 single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) data, to predict the genetic merit of complex traits, referred
53 to as genetic value (GV). When focusing on additive genetic values, it is commonly termed as
54 breeding values (BVs) in both livestock and plant studies. Traditional statistical methods applied to
55 GP rely on linear mixed models [2], and typically use either the SNP or the genomic best linear
56 unbiased prediction (SNP-BLUP and GBLUP respectively), or Bayesian approaches, with their
57 various prior assumptions and alphabets [1, 3] to obtain the predicted genetic values (PGV), by
58 assuming normally distributed effects. Due to the assumption of normality of the data, when extended
59 to a multi trait (MT) scenario, the relationship between traits is modeled as linear. These statistical
60 methods, combined with the current availability of genomic information are very powerful, and have
61 undoubtedly revolutionized genetic evaluations, but since they fully rely on linear approximations, a
62 higher prediction accuracy is prevented, despite the efforts of improvement by providing highly

63 informative data, such as denser SNP-chips, or using a single-step strategy that combines the pedigree
64 to the genomic data in a single relationship matrix [4].

65 The restriction to linearity, in addition to the continuously increasing amount of recorded and
66 genotyped animals, which posed computational constraints for genetic evaluations with the classical
67 statistical models, were among the reasons that pushed geneticists to explore the use of deep learning
68 (DL) [5] for genetic evaluations and genomic predictions [6]. DL approaches use artificial neural
69 networks, which have the capacity to learn complex patterns and features from very large datasets, in
70 order to map input to output data. Different DL algorithms, also called architectures, can be
71 considered depending on the prediction task such as classification and regression. Among the three
72 most common DL algorithms we have (1) Multi-layer perceptron (MLP), which is particularly
73 effective for tasks that involve non-sequential and non-spatial data; (2) Convolutional neural network
74 (CNN) designed for visual data, such as images and videos; and (3) Transformer [7], the backbone
75 of most large language models (LLM), used in natural language processing (NLP) tasks, suited for
76 any data that can be represented as a sequence, including text, time-series data, and even genomic
77 sequences. DL has been successfully applied in many domains, such as computer vision, speech
78 recognition, text and image generation, and biomedicine [8, 9, 10, 11, 12].

79 Most studies that use DL for GP have focused on the inclusion of the non-additive genetic
80 effects (epistasis and dominance) to the linear model that uses genotypes to describe phenotypes, by
81 modeling their non-linearity using DL. There was a focus on the use of CNN since they are designed
82 to exploit the local characteristics of data, which can be a manner to describe linkage disequilibrium
83 (LD) between the SNPs in genomic data. Still, some studies have shown that the MLP models gave
84 better results [6]. Although in some studies DL did outperform the conventional models for very
85 specific datasets and traits, there was no clear evidence of an overall superiority of DL over the
86 statistical methods in performing GP [13, 14]. More recently, Lee et al. [15] proposed deepGBLUP,

87 a combination of DL and GBLUP into a single model. Given input SNP data, the DL networks of
88 deepGBLUP extract the effects of adjacent SNPs using locally-connected layers to estimate a GV
89 through fully-connected layers. In parallel, a GBLUP model accounting for additive, dominance and
90 epistasis effects (through their respective genetic relationship matrices) is fitted. The final estimated
91 GV is the sum of all previous estimated GV (DL, additive, dominance and epistasis). Applied to a
92 real dataset of Korean native cattle, and to simulated data, the results of the proposed deepGBLUP
93 model outperformed those of the traditional GBLUP and Bayesian methods in different single trait
94 prediction scenarios.

95 In livestock production, beyond predicting GV for individual traits, breeders aim to jointly
96 improve multiple traits of commercial interest, in order to achieve genetic progress for these traits
97 altogether. When working with multiple traits, genetic relationship between traits [16] must be
98 considered, since selection for one trait will affect the other correlated traits [17]. Genetic
99 relationships are thus a relevant factor to account for, on the different stages of a genetic evaluation,
100 from the estimation of variance components to the prediction of GV, in order to optimally improve
101 multiple traits of interest altogether. It has been shown, for example, that it is more advantageous to
102 perform a multitrait model for genetic evaluation, that considers the genetic relationships between
103 traits to improve their predictive ability [18].

104 Until now, due to the Gaussian nature of the models employed, the genetic relationship
105 between traits has been always considered as linear. Therefore, if two traits present a non-linear
106 genetic relationship, statistical methods will fail to identify this relationship, thus limiting prediction
107 accuracy of the PGV associated to the traits of interest. Such limitation cannot be overcome, unless
108 the assumption of normality of the data is dissociated from the model, in order to allow the possibility
109 of nonlinear relationships. Although the possibility of nonlinear relationships creates a difficulty for
110 the implementation of the traditional statistical models, it opens an opportunity door for the

111 implementation of DL methods. Few studies explored non-linear genetic relationships between traits
112 [19, 20], and even so, such studies focused merely on how to identify these non-linear genetic
113 relationships, rather than on how to account for them in GP.

114 This study aimed to use DL to model non-linear genetic relationships between traits and to
115 use these identified nonlinear relationships to predict the GV of multiple traits simultaneously. Using
116 simulated data, we explored (1) how the presence of nonlinear relationships between traits affect the
117 performance of GBLUP with respect to the accuracy of the PGV, (2) how to use DL to model these
118 nonlinear relationships and consider them for selecting individuals, and (3) how nonlinear
119 relationships affect the genetic progress over generations when ignored (GBLUP) or when they are
120 taken into account (DL methods). We proposed a pure and a hybrid DL model. The pure DL model
121 consisted of two steps, a first that uses the SNP data as input to predict the GV of multiple traits
122 accounting only for the genomic effects, and a second that re-predicts a new GV from the initial
123 predicted GV while allowing the flexibility to capture potential nonlinear genetic relationships
124 between traits. The hybrid model, called DLGBLUP, combines both DL and GBLUP, thus benefiting
125 from their strengths while minimizing their pitfalls, and also consists of two steps. A first that predicts
126 the GV using a multi-trait GBLUP and the genomic data, by learning the output of GBLUP using
127 DL, and a second that performs exactly the same second step of the original pure DL model.

128 **Methods**

129 **Simulated data**

130 The complete simulated genomic data consisted of 10,000 SNPs distributed across 29 chromosomes,
131 with an average LD pattern resembling that of a cattle population. From the 10,000 simulated SNPs,
132 512 were assigned as quantitative trait loci (QTL) to be shared between all traits. The non-centered

133 SNPs were coded as 0, 1, and 2, referring to homozygous for reference alleles, heterozygous, and
134 homozygous for alternate alleles, respectively.

135 A quantitative reference trait was simulated using the 512 QTL for a total of 25,000 individuals,
136 following the model: $\mathbf{y}_{\text{ref}} = \mathbf{M} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\text{ref}} + \mathbf{e}_{\text{ref}} = \mathbf{g}_{\text{ref}} + \mathbf{e}_{\text{ref}}$, where \mathbf{M} is a matrix of which element
137 $M_{i,j}$ corresponds to the centered genotype of individual i at QTL j , $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\text{ref}} = [\alpha_{\text{ref},1} \dots \alpha_{\text{ref},q}]$ is the
138 vector of the $q=512$ additive QTL effects, such that $\alpha_{\text{ref},j} \sim N(0, \sigma_{\alpha_{\text{ref},j}})$ i.i.d. for every $j = 1, \dots, q$,
139 $\mathbf{g}_{\text{ref}} = \mathbf{M} \boldsymbol{\alpha}_{\text{ref}}$ is the vector of the true genetic values (TGV) and $\mathbf{e}_{\text{ref}} \sim N(0, \sigma_{\mathbf{e}_{\text{ref}}} \mathbf{I})$ is the vector of
140 random errors. The genotypes and the reference trait were simulated using the GenEval R package
141 [19].

142 Five dependent traits, were simulated conditional to the TGV of the reference trait as $\mathbf{y}_t =$
143 $\mathbf{g}_t + \mathbf{e}_t$, for every $t = 1, \dots, 5$, such that $\mathbf{g}_t = f_t(\mathbf{g}_{\text{ref}}) + \mathbf{g}_{t,2}$, where f_t is the function describing the
144 (potentially) nonlinear relationship between the TGV of two traits. $\mathbf{g}_{t,2}$ is the vector of the genetic
145 value specific to each dependent trait, simulated as $\mathbf{g}_{t,2} = \mathbf{M}_t \boldsymbol{\alpha}_t$, where \mathbf{M}_t is the genotype matrix of
146 specific QTLs different from the common QTLs and different between the dependent traits;
147 $\boldsymbol{\alpha}_t \sim N(0, \sigma_{\alpha_t} \mathbf{I})$ is the vector of the corresponding additive QTL effects. \mathbf{g}_t was normalized such as
148 $\sigma_{\mathbf{g}_t}^2 = \sigma_{\mathbf{y}_t}^2 \times h^2$, which h^2 is the heritability. The error vector $\mathbf{e}_t \sim N(0, \sigma_{\mathbf{e}_t} \mathbf{I})$ with $\sigma_{\mathbf{e}_t} = \sigma_{\mathbf{y}_t}^2 - \sigma_{\mathbf{g}_t}^2$.
149 We fixed a $\sigma_{\mathbf{y}_t}^2 = 20$ for all traits. We choose a default h^2 of 0.3 and 50 specific QTLs. Then we tested
150 different levels of h^2 for the traits, from high to low (0.6, 0.15, 0.05), with the 50 specific QTLs, and
151 different numbers of specific QTLs (0, 10, 250), that defined the level of genetic relationships
152 between traits, with h^2 of 0.3. For each of the dependent traits, the following different relationships
153 were considered: (1) linear, (2) quadratic, (3) sinusoidal, (4) logistic and (5) exponential. While
154 different levels of h^2 and number of specific QTL were tested, each set of simulated reference and
155 dependent traits had the same h^2 and number of specific QTLs.

156 To train and evaluate the DL models, the dataset was split into three sets: training (80%),
157 validation (10%), and test set (10%), being the test set that for which PGV are to be obtained in the
158 absence of phenotypic records, while both the training and validation sets are those for which
159 individuals have genotypes and phenotypic records. Different from statistical models, DL requires an
160 internal validation set with the complete information to fine-tune the model parameters. For the
161 GBLUP model, the training and validation sets were combined to fit the model, and the same test set
162 (10% of individuals) was kept for evaluation. To assess the repeatability of our findings, we simulated
163 20 replicas of the complete data set under each combination of different levels of h^2 and number of
164 QTL.

165

166 **Multi-Trait Genomic Prediction:**

167 We used three models to perform GP: a baseline GBLUP, a pure DL model, and a hybrid DLGBLUP
168 model that combines the two previous ones.

169 ***Genomic Best Linear Unbiased Prediction (GBLUP)***

170 The GBLUP model is one of the most popular statistical methods used to predict the GV of genotyped
171 individuals using their genomic relationship matrix. The model considered for multi-trait GBLUP is:

$$172 \mathbf{Y} = \mathbf{X}\boldsymbol{\beta} + \mathbf{Z}\mathbf{g} + \mathbf{e} \quad (1)$$

173 where $\mathbf{Y} = [\mathbf{Y}_1 \dots \mathbf{Y}_k]$ is a matrix of the phenotype vectors for all trait included in the model; \mathbf{X} is a
174 design matrix for the fixed effects, $\boldsymbol{\beta} = [\boldsymbol{\beta}_1 \dots \boldsymbol{\beta}_k]$, such that $\boldsymbol{\beta}_k$ is the vector of fixed effects for each
175 of the $k = 1, \dots, K$ traits; \mathbf{Z} is an incidence matrix linking the phenotypic records to the breeding
176 values $\mathbf{g} = [\mathbf{g}_1 \dots \mathbf{g}_k]$, such that \mathbf{g}_k is the vector of breeding values for each of the $k = 1, \dots, K$ traits,
177 with distribution, $\text{vec}(\mathbf{g}) \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma}_g \otimes \mathbf{G})$ in which $\boldsymbol{\Sigma}_g$ is the additive genetic (co)variance matrix of the
178 traits, $\text{vec}(\mathbf{g})$ is the vector version of the matrix \mathbf{g} , \mathbf{G} is the genomic relationship matrix (GRM), and

179 \otimes represents their Kronecker product; and $\mathbf{e} = [\mathbf{e}_1 \dots \mathbf{e}_k]$ is the matrix of normally distributed
180 random errors with $\text{vec}(\mathbf{e}) \sim N(\mathbf{0}, \mathbf{R})$, in which \mathbf{R} is the error (co)variance matrix between the traits.
181 We used the R (4.1.1) package BGLR package (1.0.8) [22] to perform the multi-trait GBLUP, here
182 we did not consider a fixed effect so $\boldsymbol{\beta}$ is just the vector of the intercepts.

183 *Deep Learning model*

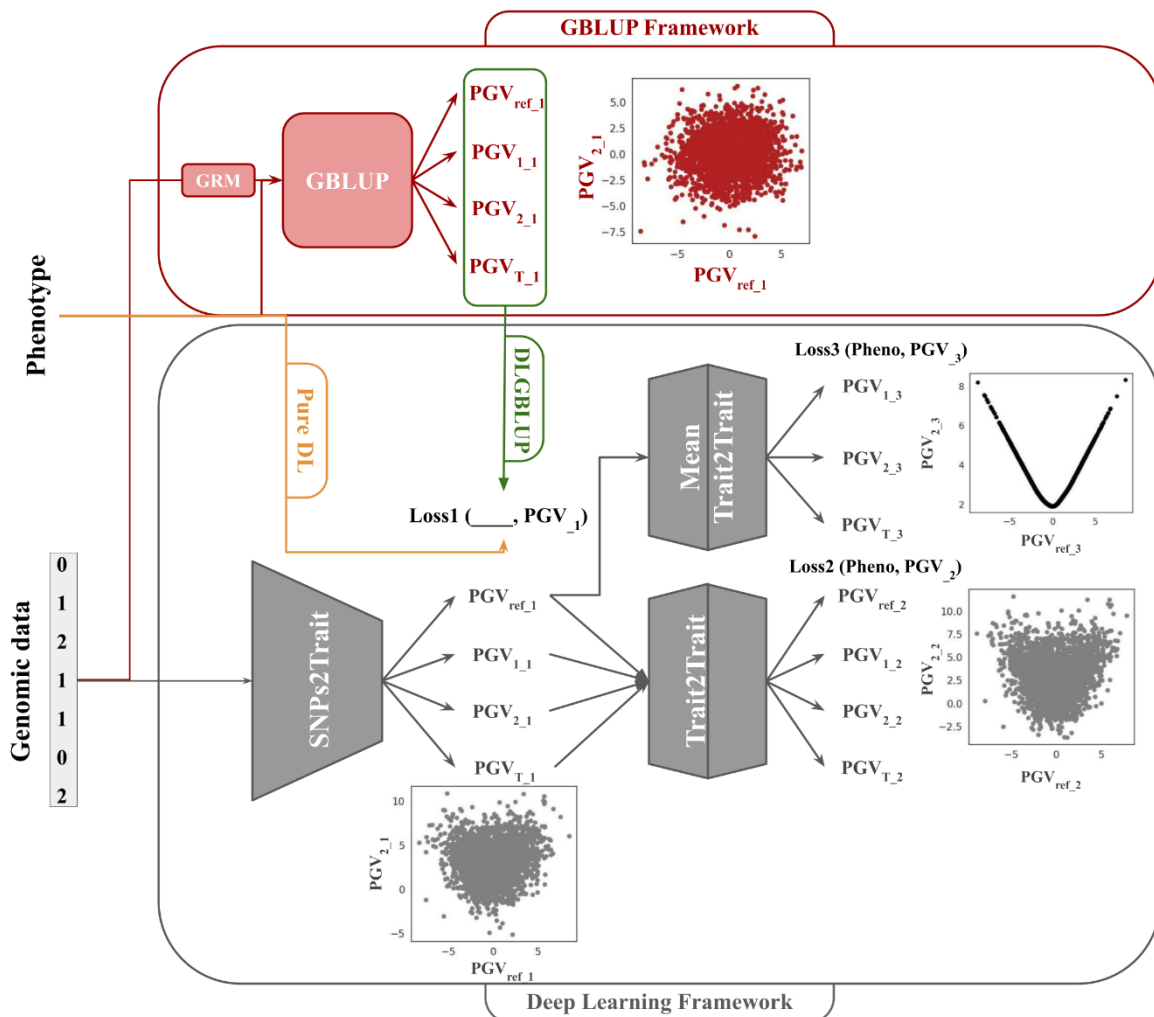
184 The MLP [23] is a feedforward network that maps an input to an output using learned parameters. It
185 consists of several layers, including hidden layers with nonlinear activation functions, each layer
186 having multiple nodes. The model takes the input layer and passes it into a network of multiple
187 connected layers (hidden layers) up to the output. In a general execution, each node is characterized
188 by the following equation:

$$189 \quad y_j = f(\sum_{i=1}^I w_{j,i} x_i + b_j) \quad (2)$$

190 where y_j is the scalar output of node j , b_j is the bias, x_i represents the output of node $i \in \{1, \dots, I\}$ of
191 the previous layer, $w_{j,i}$ symbolizes the weight assigned to this x_i , and f is a nonlinear activation
192 function. During training, the optimization process adjusts the weights and biases of the MLP by
193 minimizing a loss function between the predicted and true outputs of the training set. The Mean
194 Squared Error (MSE) and Mean Absolute Error (MAE) losses are commonly used for regression,
195 while cross entropy loss is used for classification. The backpropagation algorithm is used to
196 efficiently compute gradients, and to understand how changes in model parameters can affect the
197 output error. Stochastic gradient descent is used to update these parameters in the direction that
198 minimizes the loss.

199 The proposed DL model, illustrated in Figure 1, comprises three distinct steps (also called
200 modules hereafter): SNPs2Trait, Trait2Trait and MeanTrait2Trait. The first step, SNPs2Trait, takes
201 the SNP data as input, and then extracts the important information in the hidden layer. The prediction
202 of each trait was made separately in the output layer by processing all information from the hidden

203 layer related to each trait. However, this separation does not allow the model to capture the
 204 relationships between traits. This module will output a first predicted GV (PGV_{-1}) for multiple traits
 205 simultaneously, by capturing the relationship between the genomic data and the phenotype, which
 206 represents both the additive and some non-additive effects. Then the module Trait2Trait uses the
 207 PGV_{-1} of all traits as input to capture the relationship between all traits. This provides a new predicted
 208 GV (PGV_{-2}) for all traits simultaneously, that will be considered as the final prediction of the model.
 209 Lastly, in parallel to Trait2Trait, the module MeanTrait2Trait uses $PGV_{ref,1}$ to output predictions of
 210 the dependent traits which we call PGV_{-3} . As such, MeanTrait2Trait can capture the mean
 211 relationship between reference trait and the other dependent traits but not the dispersion around this
 212 mean. This last module is used for illustration purpose only.



213

214 **Figure 1: GBLUP vs. Deep Learning Genomic Prediction Frameworks.** The GBLUP in red and
215 DL in gray; with the second separated as pure DL in yellow and DLGBLUP in green.

216

217 All modules consist of two linear layers (with 400 and 256 neurons) and use the LeakyReLU
218 activation functions with a fixed negative slope of 0.1. The model was trained for 100 maximum
219 epochs, with an early stopping after 10 epochs without improvement of the loss in the validation,
220 using a batch size of 200. As loss function, we used Huber loss [24], a combination of the MSE and
221 the MAE, described as:

$$222 \quad L(z) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2}(z)^2 & \text{for } |z| \leq \delta, \\ \delta|z| - \frac{1}{2}\delta^2 & \text{otherwise.} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

223 where z is the error and δ is a threshold parameter that dictates the transition between the two losses.
224 We used Adam optimizer with a learning rate of 10^{-4} . The choice of optimizer, learning rate,
225 activation function and number of neurons in hidden layers was made after a preliminary grid search.
226 Two training approaches were used: (1) training the three modules as one model so the loss function
227 was the sum of loss from each module, i.e.,

$$228 \quad Loss = \sum_t L(y_t - PGV_{t_1}) + L(y_t - PGV_{t_2}) + L(y_t - PGV_{t_3}), \quad (4)$$

229 where y is the true phenotype value for multiple traits; (2) training modules sequentially in terms of
230 gradient flow. The first module was trained initially, and once this was completed, its parameters
231 were fixed by stopping the gradient propagation from a module to another. The trainings of
232 Trait2Trait and of MeanTrait2Trait were independent. The model was implemented using pytorch
233 (1.10.2) in python and trained on a single GPU with 48 GB memory (NVIDIA A40).

234 ***DLGBLUP model***

235 We proposed a hybrid model called DLGBLUP, where the first module is trained on the GBLUP
236 output instead of y . The motivation for this replacement was to guide the DL training: using the

237 GBLUP output may stabilize the optimization in DL when the 3 modules are jointly optimized.
238 Indeed, this may help the convergence of SNP2trait toward a solution close to the GBLUP one that
239 is known to performs well in predicting the additive GV. Note that in the case of a sequential training
240 SNP2Trait will exactly reproduce the GBLUP predictions (on the training set), up to convergence
241 tolerance. The Trait2Trait and MeanTrait2Trait are left unchanged.

242 **Inclusion of Non-QTL SNPs**

243 To develop the DL models properly, we first used uniquely the true QTL to minimize the errors
244 arising from the data. While a first comparison of the accuracy of the PGV from GBLUP to our
245 proposed DL and DLGBLUP models was performed using this approach, we did evaluate the effect
246 of having SNPs that were not QTL in the input genomic data on the prediction accuracy. Therefore,
247 for this evaluation, our baseline prediction data consisted of the QTL only, and then we gradually
248 added non-causative SNPs to the genomic data used for prediction, so that the whole genomic data
249 consisted of a total of non-QTL percentage of 10, 25, 50, 75, and finally a final scenario consisted of
250 using only non-causative SNPs, excluding all the QTL. A comparison of the results from a model
251 excluding non-causative mutations, but including only half of the QTL was also included in this study.

252

253 **Genomic Selection**

254 After performing the multi-trait genomic prediction, we computed a selection index (SI) as:

$$255 \quad SI = \sum_{t=1}^T (w_t + \sum_{j=1, j \neq t}^T \rho_{t,j} w_j) g_t, \quad (5)$$

256 in which w_t 's are the weights given to traits $t = 1, \dots, T$, $\rho_{t,j}$ is the empirical correlation between the
257 GVs of traits t and j , and g_t 's are the GVs of trait $t = 1, \dots, T$. For this study, we assigned equal
258 weights to all traits in order to compare the general evolution of the genetic gain based on the breeding
259 values obtained with the different models. Based on the SI, at each generation the top 10% eligible
260 males were selected and mated with all females from the latest generations, in order to generate the

261 subsequent generation, maintaining at each new generation a female-to-male proportion of 80%-20%.
262 Males were kept for breeding across four generations, while females were kept for two generations
263 only. This selection and mating design were chosen to mimic the breeding program of a dairy cattle
264 population. A base population of independent individuals (i.e. generation zero, or G0) was considered
265 to start the selection process, followed by seven simulated generations under selection referred to as
266 G1, ..., G7.

267 This simulation scheme under selection allowed us to both study the evolution of the nonlinear
268 genetic relationships between traits when the population is under selection, and compare the genetic
269 gain of selection, based on the additive GV obtained with the different models, using their values to
270 construct the SI in equation (5). Because of the way we simulate the data, the PGV obtained by all
271 prediction models could express non-additive effects. Since we are interested in the additive PGV,
272 we computed it as follow: at each generation we simulated the genotype of 20 offspring for each
273 eligible male based on random mating schemes with the females. Then, the PGVs of these simulated
274 offspring were predicted with the different models (GBLUP, DL, and DLGBLUP) trained on a dataset
275 where all individuals until the latest generation were genotyped and phenotyped. The additive PGV
276 of the eligible males were finally computed as the average of the PGVs of their simulated offspring.

277 The GVs for the reference trait on all subsequent generations were simulated using the same
278 original QTL effects of G0, and the other dependent traits were simulated as previously described in
279 the 'Simulated Data' section. The number of individuals in each of the generations G1 to G7 was
280 maintained as 5,000. With each new generation, the reference population to perform the prediction
281 models was updated to comprise all individuals from G0 to the latest with both genotypes and
282 phenotypic records, and then used to perform the genetic evaluation. For DL and DLGBLUP, the
283 genetic evaluation model with a new generation was initialized using the weights (DL parameters)
284 obtained at the evaluation of the previous generation.

285 **Evaluation metrics**

286 To evaluate the performance of each model in predicting genetic values, we used the Pearson
287 correlation coefficient to calculate the prediction accuracy for each individual trait, as well as the
288 MSE between the TGV and PGV, and performed a visual assessment of the relationship form between
289 traits. To evaluate the performance of each model with respect to genomic selection, we used the
290 genetic gain computed as the difference between the mean of the TGV for individuals in G0 and the
291 mean of the TGV for individuals in the next generation.

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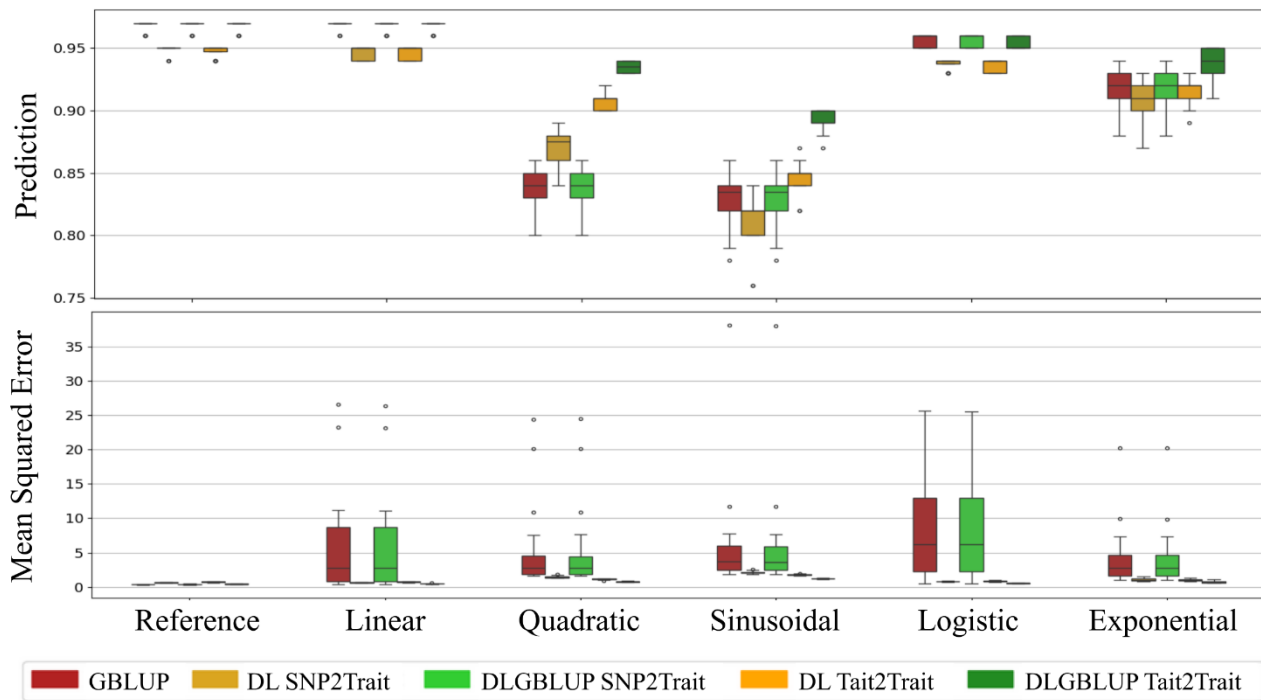
293 **Results**

294 Here we present the results of DL-based model trained following the second training approach
295 (sequential training) which gave better results. In addition, for the simplicity, we called the traits
296 based on the form of relationship they have with the reference trait, for example quadratic trait
297 correspond to the trait with f as quadratic.

298 **Genomic Prediction**

299 *Prediction Accuracy*

300 Figure 2 presents the boxplots comparing the performance of the GBLUP, pure DL, and DLGBLUP
301 models using only the QTL as input data, with respect to the prediction accuracy and the MSE, over
302 the 20 replicates performed.



303

304 **Figure 2: Performance comparison of different prediction models for various traits.** GBLUP
305 (red), Deep Learning (DL) (yellow) and DLGBLUP (green); with the two components SNPs2Trait
306 and Trait2Trait. The prediction was made using genomic data with just QTL.

307

308 At the additive effect level, GBLUP demonstrated superior prediction accuracy compared to
309 the pure DL SNP2Trait models for almost all trait except the quadratic one; nonetheless, the later
310 presented a consistently lower MSE. Once trained to predict the output of GBLUP, the results of
311 DLGBLUP SNP2Trait were very similar to those of GBLUP.

312 Both the GBLUP and DLGBLUP SNP2Trait models excelled in predicting the GV for the linear
313 and logistic traits, achieving remarkable accuracy, while their performance was diminished for the
314 other nonlinear traits, but always superior to an accuracy of 0.8 for every trait.

315 The prediction accuracy of DLGBLUP for the quadratic, sinusoidal, and exponential traits was
316 improved after passing the PGV through the Trait2Trait step of the model that predicted the GV from

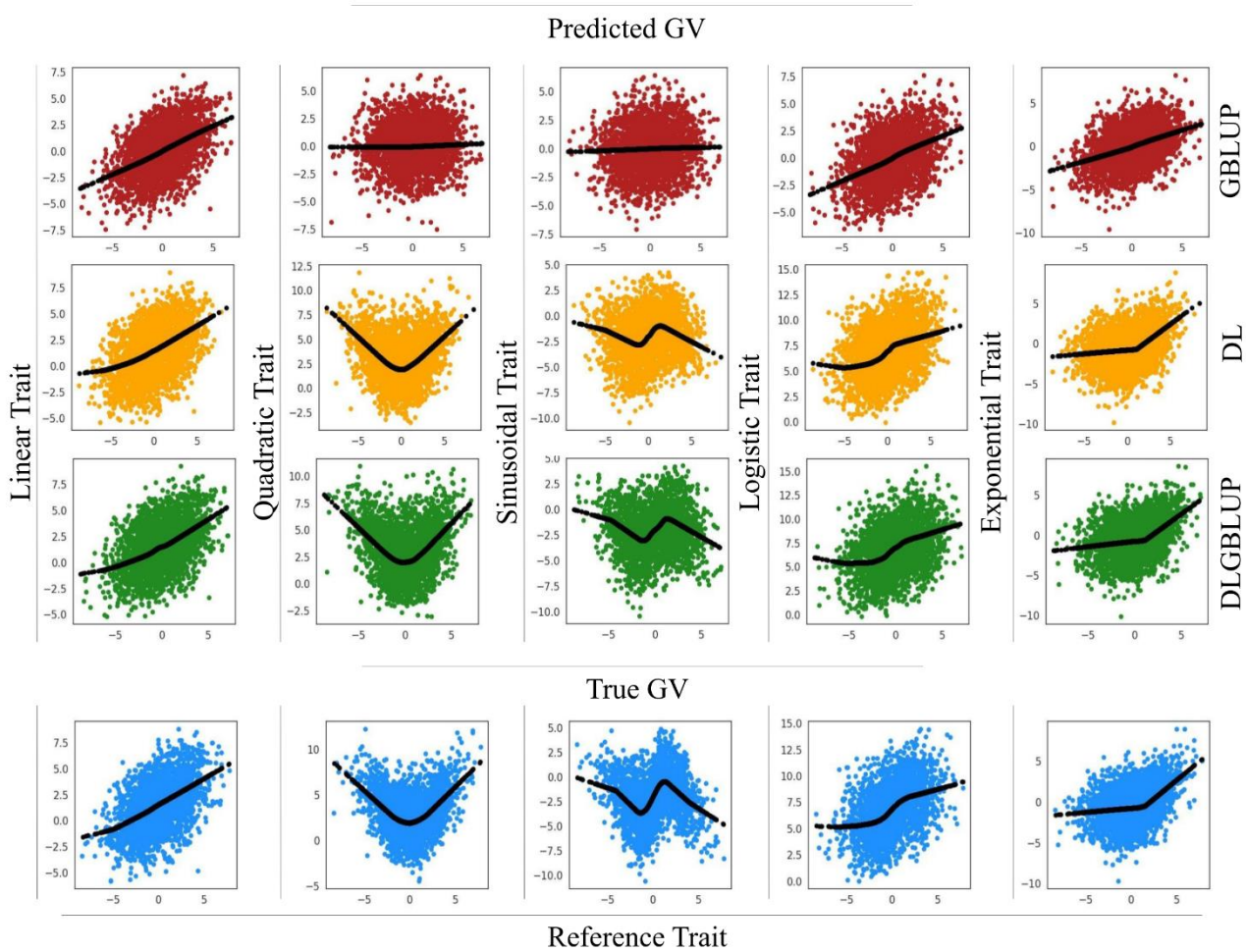
317 its relationship with other traits. This improvement varied from 0.01 to 0.1, depending on the type of
318 nonlinear relationship between traits, and on the previous GV predicted from the additive effect. After
319 passing through the Trait2Trait step, the DLGBLUP model did not provide any further improvement
320 for the prediction accuracy of the linear traits (reference included), which were already well predicted
321 by GBLUP.

322 The DLGBLUP model outperformed the pure DL model by a margin of 0.01 to 0.04 in terms
323 of prediction accuracy. Of all the evaluated models, the DLGBLUP Trait2Trait model consistently
324 yielded the lowest MSE across all dependent traits, with more reliable and precise estimation, with a
325 prediction accuracy either higher than all the other models, or just as high as GBLUP.

326 *Prediction of nonlinear relationship function*

327 Both DLGBLUP and pure DL models, with the MeanTrait2Trait step, were capable of identifying the
328 true form of the relationship between traits, whether it was linear or nonlinear. Moreover, the shape
329 of the PGV was adjusted according to the trait's relationship through the Trait2Trait part. A more
330 accurate input, i.e. the GBLUP predictions, to the MeanTrait2Trait and Trait2Trait steps, enabled the
331 prediction of a clearer and more precise relationship between traits, as illustrated in Figure 3.

332 Additionally, MeanTrait2Trait was able to detect the genetic relationships between traits,
333 while GBLUP was able to do so only for the linear trait. For the other nonlinear traits, we observed
334 that GBLUP transformed their relationship to be linear, sometimes identifying a level of linear
335 relationship (logistic and exponential traits), or completely missing any relationship between traits
336 (quadratic and sinusoidal traits).



337

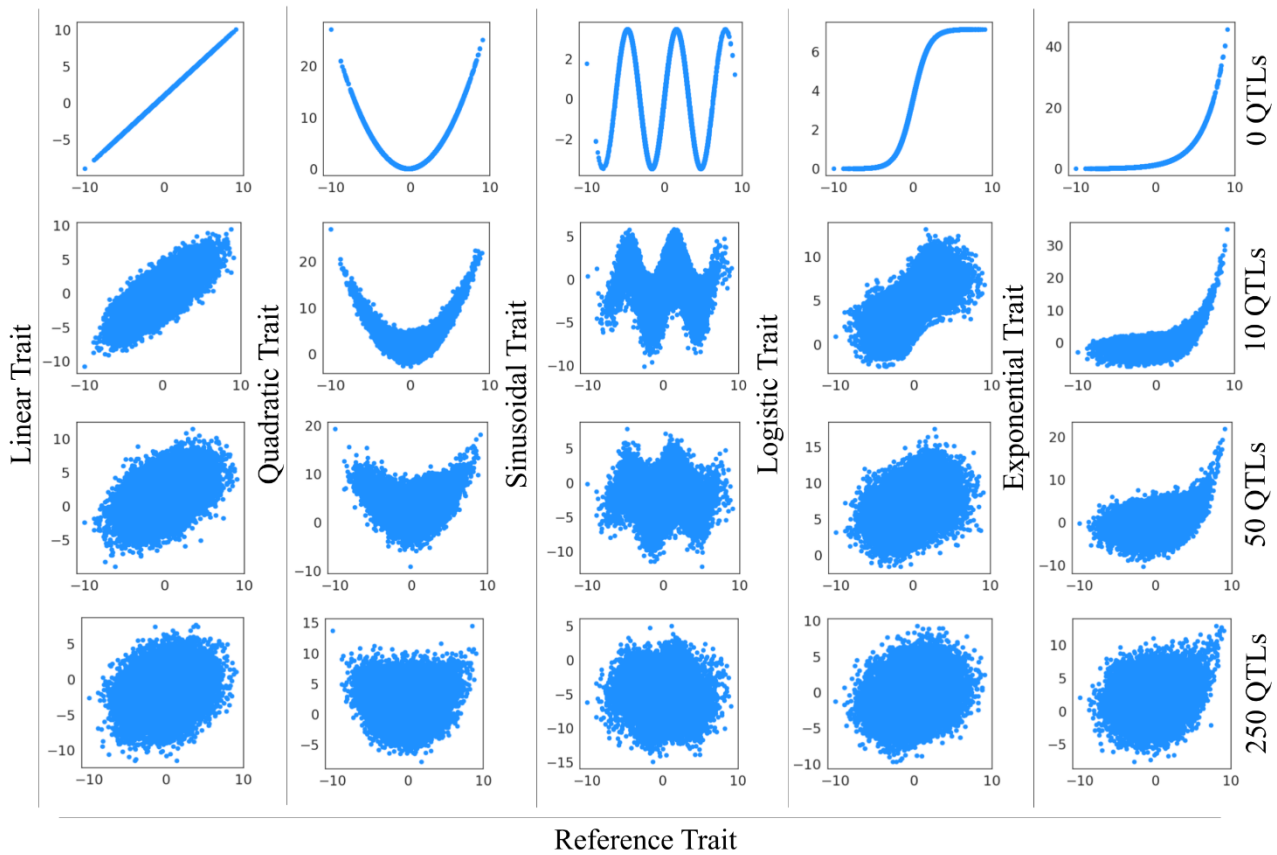
338 **Figure 3: Comparison plots of predicted genetic relationship between traits with different**
 339 **prediction model.** The reference trait is represented on the x-axis and all dependent traits on the y-
 340 axes. The colored points represent the PGV of GBLUP (red), DL (yellow) and DLGBLUP (green)
 341 and the TGV (blue) of a population. In black the mean relationship between traits as obtained from
 342 MeanTrait2Trait module. The prediction was made using genomic data with just QTL, h^2 equal 0.3
 343 and 50 specific QTLs.

344

345 *Effect of Heritability, number of specific QTL, and level of Genetic Relationship*

346 Heritability directly influences the quality of GV predictions from additive effects. The higher the
 347 heritability, the higher the prediction accuracy of GBLUP, as well as the prediction accuracy made

348 by the Trait2Trait part and its improvement in comparison to GBLUP, for the nonlinear traits,
349 reaching 0.17 for the quadratic traits with heritability of 0.6. Moreover, there was an effect of the
350 number of specific QTL that control the genetic relationship (Figure 4).



351

352 **Figure 4: Comparison plots of true genetic relationship between traits with different number**
353 **of specific QTLs.** The reference trait is represented in x-axis and all dependent traits in y-axes. The
354 blue points represent the True GV of a population.

355

356 The higher the number of specific QTL the less clear the relationship between traits. A higher
357 genetic relationship -a lower number of specific QTL in our case- intensifies the nonlinear effects,
358 reducing GBLUP's prediction accuracy while simultaneously increasing the potential for
359 improvement via the Trait2Trait component, as shown in Table 1.

360 **Table 1:** Prediction accuracy comparison of different prediction models with different heritability
 361 and number of specific QTL.

| Heritability | QTLs | Model | Traits | | | | | |
|--------------|------|---------|-----------|--------|-----------|------------|----------|-------------|
| | | | Reference | Linear | Quadratic | Sinusoidal | Logistic | Exponential |
| 0.05 | | GBLUP | 0.83 | 0.8 | 0.8 | 0.82 | 0.84 | 0.83 |
| | | DL | 0.72 | 0.67 | 0.7 | 0.72 | 0.74 | 0.76 |
| | | DLGBLUP | 0.82 | 0.79 | 0.8 | 0.81 | 0.83 | 0.83 |
| 0.15 | 50 | GBLUP | 0.93 | 0.94 | 0.82 | 0.87 | 0.93 | 0.91 |
| | | DL | 0.88 | 0.89 | 0.81 | 0.83 | 0.89 | 0.87 |
| | | DLGBLUP | 0.93 | 0.93 | 0.87 | 0.87 | 0.92 | 0.92 |
| | | GBLUP | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.84 | 0.83 | 0.96 | 0.92 |
| | | DL | 0.95 | 0.95 | 0.91 | 0.85 | 0.94 | 0.92 |
| | | DLGBLUP | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.94 | 0.89 | 0.95 | 0.94 |
| 0.3 | 0 | GBLUP | 0.99 | 0.99 | 0.13 | 0.15 | 0.94 | 0.79 |
| | | DL | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.85 | 0.28 | 0.93 | 0.88 |
| | | DLGBLUP | 0.99 | 0.99 | 0.95 | 0.89 | 0.97 | 0.93 |
| | 10 | GBLUP | 0.98 | 0.98 | 0.42 | 0.6 | 0.95 | 0.86 |
| | | DL | 0.96 | 0.96 | 0.82 | 0.6 | 0.94 | 0.9 |
| | | DLGBLUP | 0.98 | 0.97 | 0.9 | 0.84 | 0.96 | 0.94 |
| | 250 | GBLUP | 0.92 | 0.93 | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.93 | 0.92 |
| | | DL | 0.89 | 0.89 | 0.86 | 0.86 | 0.89 | 0.88 |
| | | DLGBLUP | 0.92 | 0.92 | 0.91 | 0.9 | 0.93 | 0.92 |
| 0.6 | 50 | GBLUP | 0.99 | 0.99 | 0.79 | 0.81 | 0.96 | 0.93 |
| | | DL | 0.98 | 0.98 | 0.96 | 0.86 | 0.97 | 0.96 |
| | | DLGBLUP | 0.99 | 0.99 | 0.96 | 0.88 | 0.98 | 0.97 |

362

363 **Effect of Non-QTL SNPs**

364 Table 2 presents the effect on the model's performances of incorporating SNPs that were not QTL in
 365 the genomic data used. The most accurate predictions were achieved when the input data comprised
 366 exclusively all the QTLs implicated in the TGV of a trait, as expected, with DLGBLUP achieving the
 367 best predictions. When excluding half of the QTLs, or when adding non-causative SNPs to the input
 368 genotypes the prediction accuracy decreased. The decrease in prediction accuracy when non-
 369 causative SNPs were introduced was progressive as more and more SNPs were included to the
 370 genomic data, which results in a decrease in the advantage of DLGBLUP. Excluding all QTL, and

371 keeping only non-causative SNPs in LD with the QTL, resulted in PGV with accuracies ranging from
 372 0.55 to 0.7, and an improvement made by DLGBLUP ranging from 0.01 to 0.03.

373 **Table 2:** Prediction accuracy comparison of different prediction models using genomic data with
 374 different numbers of SNPs, a h^2 of 0.3 and 50 specific QTLs.

| | | Traits | | | | | |
|----------|---------|-----------|--------|-----------|----------|------------|-------------|
| | Method | Reference | Linear | Quadratic | Logistic | Sinusoidal | Exponential |
| Half QTL | DL | 0.82 | 0.75 | 0.72 | 0.77 | 0.63 | 0.65 |
| | GBLUP | 0.82 | 0.76 | 0.66 | 0.78 | 0.61 | 0.64 |
| | DLGBLUP | 0.81 | 0.74 | 0.72 | 0.77 | 0.63 | 0.65 |
| Just QTL | DL | 0.95 | 0.95 | 0.91 | 0.94 | 0.85 | 0.92 |
| | GBLUP | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.84 | 0.96 | 0.83 | 0.92 |
| | DLGBLUP | 0.97 | 0.97 | 0.94 | 0.96 | 0.89 | 0.94 |
| 10% SNPs | DL | 0.94 | 0.94 | 0.9 | 0.94 | 0.86 | 0.92 |
| | GBLUP | 0.95 | 0.95 | 0.8 | 0.95 | 0.81 | 0.91 |
| | DLGBLUP | 0.94 | 0.94 | 0.91 | 0.94 | 0.87 | 0.93 |
| 25% SNPs | DL | 0.87 | 0.89 | 0.82 | 0.88 | 0.76 | 0.86 |
| | GBLUP | 0.91 | 0.87 | 0.75 | 0.9 | 0.76 | 0.87 |
| | DLGBLUP | 0.9 | 0.9 | 0.84 | 0.89 | 0.8 | 0.88 |
| 50% SNPs | DL | 0.82 | 0.83 | 0.74 | 0.82 | 0.68 | 0.8 |
| | GBLUP | 0.86 | 0.86 | 0.7 | 0.86 | 0.7 | 0.82 |
| | DLGBLUP | 0.85 | 0.85 | 0.78 | 0.85 | 0.73 | 0.83 |
| 75% SNPs | DL | 0.78 | 0.79 | 0.71 | 0.79 | 0.66 | 0.77 |
| | GBLUP | 0.84 | 0.84 | 0.68 | 0.84 | 0.69 | 0.79 |
| | DLGBLUP | 0.82 | 0.83 | 0.75 | 0.82 | 0.7 | 0.8 |
| All SNPs | DL | 0.76 | 0.77 | 0.69 | 0.78 | 0.65 | 0.75 |
| | GBLUP | 0.82 | 0.82 | 0.67 | 0.82 | 0.68 | 0.78 |
| | DLGBLUP | 0.8 | 0.81 | 0.73 | 0.81 | 0.69 | 0.78 |
| NO QTL | DL | 0.61 | 0.64 | 0.57 | 0.67 | 0.55 | 0.64 |
| | GBLUP | 0.63 | 0.67 | 0.56 | 0.7 | 0.57 | 0.65 |
| | DLGBLUP | 0.63 | 0.67 | 0.59 | 0.69 | 0.58 | 0.66 |

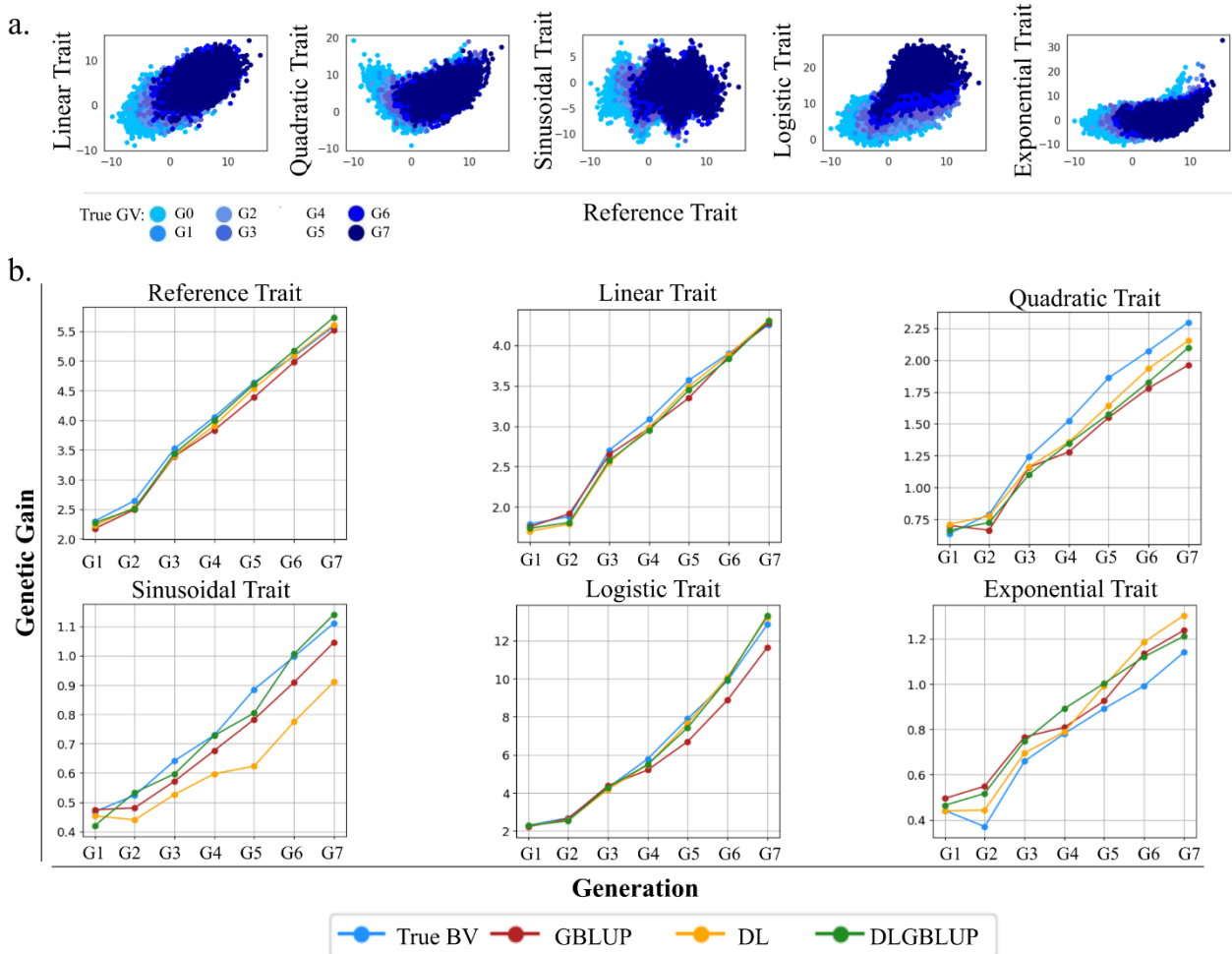
375

376 Genomic Selection

377 *Genetic relationship across generations*

378 Figure 5a shows the evolution of the genetic relationships between the TGV of the traits over the
 379 seven generations, under a multi-trait selection using the linear SI based on the additive GV obtained
 380 with pure DL. As expected, the relationship between the reference trait and the linear trait remained

381 linear over all the generations under selection. In contrast, the relationship between the reference trait
 382 and the quadratic trait evolved from nonlinear to linear very quickly, with its nonlinearity being
 383 almost imperceptible from G1. The remaining three traits that were simulated with a nonlinear
 384 relationship with the reference trait (sinusoidal, logistic, and exponential) preserved their nonlinear
 385 characteristics. However, while the shape of the relationship of the sinusoidal and exponential traits
 386 remained the same, the latter trait had its relationship attenuated, and the shape of the relationship of
 387 the logistic trait changed completely with respect to the original one in G0. These trends of
 388 transformations (or not) of the shape of the relationships persisted whether selection was based on
 389 any of the predicted additive GV [See Additional file 1, Figure S1].



390

391 **Figure 5: Comparative analysis of traits progression across generations.** (a) Plots of relationship
392 between the TGV of reference trait (x-axis) and dependent traits (y-axis) over 8 generations based on
393 DL predictions. (b) Comparison between the Genetic Gain of 7 generations with 15% male selection
394 using the true and the predicted additive GV with GBLUP, DL, and DLGBLUP for all traits.

395

396 *Genetic Gain*

397 Genetic gain was achieved for all the traits, following the selection of the top 10% males (Figure 5b),
398 based on the SI combined with any of the additive GV. The magnitude of this gain varied depending
399 on the form of relationship, with the most substantial gains observed for the logistic trait. For both
400 reference and linear traits, the progress based on the SI using the additive GV from all models were
401 equivalent. Conversely, for each of the nonlinear traits, the genetic progress achieved based on the SI
402 using the additive GV from either DL or DLGBLUP, or both for some traits, was greater than the
403 genetic progress achieved using the additive GV from GBLUP.

404 **Discussion**

405 In this study, we proposed a novel hybrid model, DLGBLUP, which integrates DL and statistical
406 methods to perform a multi-trait prediction of nonlinearly related genetic values. Such nonlinear
407 genetic relationships between traits have not been greatly explored in GP, due to the difficulty in
408 addressing such nonlinearity using the classical statistical methods. Although DL methods have been
409 widely explored in the recent years as an alternative for the statistical methods in GP, the results
410 obtained with DL in real data sets have not yet significantly overcome those from GBLUP [6].
411 Moreover, in spite of DL's capacity to model nonlinear patterns, these methods have not been greatly
412 explored to model between-traits relationships.

413 One possible reason why DL did not achieve higher performance in GP compared to GBLUP,
414 may be the fact that in GP, the objective falls in predicting the individuals GV, which are not

415 observed. While most studies implemented models that have been previously applied in different
416 domains, in GP these models have to operate on the genotype-phenotype relationships - built-up in
417 the hidden layers of DL rather than present in the target- to predict the GV. Some studies incorporated
418 a biological interpretation into their models, which performed better than those DL models that
419 maintained the same assumptions as GBLUP. GenNet [25] used layers embedded with prior
420 biological knowledge, such as gene and chromosome annotation. DeepGBLUP [15], on the other
421 hand, considered that a phenotype is the sum of additive, dominance, and epistasis effects (computed
422 using GBLUP) in addition to an initial GV predicted from adjacent markers' effects extracted using
423 a locally connected layer. In this study, we proposed DLGBLUP model that can predict a GV by
424 learning GBLUP's predictions and then adjusting the predictions according to the relationships
425 between traits.

426 Genomic selection in livestock or plant breeding programs consists of integrating the
427 information of various traits into a SI, to select individuals that ensure genetic progress for traits of
428 commercial interest, while not adversely impacting other traits that may be correlated to the targeted
429 ones. To achieve this progress, two conditions are required: 1) A precise prediction of the individuals'
430 GV and 2) A good understanding of the relationships between traits. If one of these conditions is
431 unavailable, accurately selecting animals for multiple traits may be challenging. Until now, statistical
432 methods – and particularly GBLUP – have been the leading choice of breeders for performing genetic
433 evaluations. On the prediction level, these statistical methods showed a competitive performance
434 regarding their accuracy of prediction and current computational resources required. These methods
435 are, however, restricted to the assumption of linearity for the relationships between traits. While this
436 assumption may not affect the ranking of individuals on an intra-trait perspective, in the case of
437 nonlinearity in the relationships between traits, the assumption of linearity may have an effect on the
438 inter-trait level, when performing a genetic evaluation.

439 Indeed, we have shown in our study that the pure DL and DLGBLUP models, which are flexible
440 to the possibility of nonlinear relationships between traits, outperformed GBLUP on the simulated
441 nonlinear traits, successfully capturing the shape of the relationship, especially if the provided input
442 is more accurate. In addition, we demonstrated the critical role of an accurate SNPs selection step in
443 minimizing input noise without eliminating important information, to enhance prediction accuracy.
444 A significant advantage of DLGBLUP is that it can be complementary to any other single or multi-
445 trait statistical methods, enabling it to achieve superior results, when compared to using DL alone.

446 While research on the applications of DL for genomic prediction has become more and more
447 widespread in the recent years, works that apply DL for multitrait prediction models was less popular.
448 Nevertheless, a previous study considered that relationships between the elements of the output layer
449 could be learned and captured automatically by a neural network with shared neurons and weights
450 [18]. However, this study did not explore whether these trait relationships are linear or nonlinear. In
451 contrast, our study reveals that the SNP2Trait module for the DL model was unable to detect nonlinear
452 relationships. Instead, the DL model required a proper and exclusive network to map one trait (input)
453 to another (output), in order to capture nonlinearity.

454 Our results were obtained on simulated data, for which the dependent traits were partially
455 conditioned on the GV of a reference trait directly simulated from the genomic data. Although the
456 application to real data of the DL models proposed by us would be a natural extension of this work,
457 this practical approach is a complete study in itself, which would derive from the main scope of this
458 work: introducing DL methods capable to identify nonlinear relationships between traits. Beyond the
459 DL model developed and presented here, a number of extra factors must be considered for a real data
460 application: First, the types of phenotypic records are diverse, for example often binary for
461 reproductive traits and sometimes continuous traits deviate from the assumption of normality, such
462 as some of the health traits. Second, some traits have more than one record measure per animal,

463 requiring a permanent effect included into the model, a lengthy extension to the already complex DL
464 models by us presented. Third, real genomic data usually contain more non-causative SNPs than the
465 true QTL, a scenario in which we demonstrated that the models are more sensitive when it comes to
466 predicting nonlinear relationships between traits. Last, but not least, genetic evaluation models must
467 deal with all effects, genetic and non-genetic (e.g. the permanent environment, contemporary group,
468 potential heterogenous variances). As previously mentioned, contemplating all these effects with the
469 DL models would be a lengthy extension of the complex novel models developed and here presented,
470 meriting a study in itself. Moreover, a preliminary attempt to operate the DL models on yield
471 deviations (which synthetize only the genetic and independent residual effects for each individual)
472 obtained from a previous evaluation accounting for all the genetic and non-genetic effects showed to
473 be an unsuccessful approach. This approach failed to capture nonlinear relationships between traits,
474 not due a failure from the DL models, but because the BLUP pre-processing to obtain the yield
475 deviations forced a linearized output due to the model's nature, thus erasing completely any form of
476 nonlinearity. Therefore, further work is required to extend our approach to real data.

477 Better understanding how multiple traits involved in a breeding program are related is sure to
478 improve the genetic progress obtained by artificial selection. Here, we maintained the use of a linear
479 SI to select individuals, however considered the additive GV obtained with the different models
480 (GBLUP, pure DL, and DLGBLUP) for comparison, and showed that for all traits after seven
481 generations, genetic gains from SI based on the additive GV from either pure DL or DLGBLUP were
482 equal or superior to the gains from SI based on the additive GV from GBLUP.

483 **Conclusions**

484 In this study, we proposed a pure DL model and a hybrid variation, DLGBLUP, two framework that
485 account for nonlinear genetic relationships between traits to predict their GV. From input SNP data
486 and initial GBLUP predictions, that excel on predicting additive effects, the hybrid DL model can

487 learn to predict GBLUP outputs and then readjusts the prediction for potential nonlinear relationships
488 between traits, when pertinent. Applied to simulated data, DLGBLUP was successful in improving
489 the accuracy of the predicted GV in scenarios where nonlinear relationships between traits was
490 present, in comparison to GBLUP. This greater prediction accuracy of the nonlinearly related traits
491 was due to the ability of DLGBLUP in correctly identifying the mean patterns of such relationships.
492 Moreover, we showed that selection using a SI built based on the additive PGV from either pure DL
493 or DLGBLUP achieved greater genetic gain than selection using a SI built based on the additive PGV
494 from the traditional GBLUP.

495 **Declarations**

496 **Ethics approval and consent to participate**

497 Not applicable

498 **Consent for publication**

499 Not applicable

500 **Competing interests**

501 The authors declare that they have no competing interests

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506 **Authors' contributions**

507 FS designed the deep learning models and the data simulation method, performed all the analysis,
508 and did the main writing of the manuscript. PC participated in the conceptualization of the study, in

509 the discussion and interpretation of the results, and in revising the manuscript. HG participated in the
510 design of the deep learning models, and in revising the manuscript. RS participated in the discussion
511 and interpretation of the results. TT contributed to the interpretation of preliminary results, leading to
512 relevant decisions in the conception of the study. TMH participated in designing the data simulation
513 method, in the design of the deep learning models, and in revising the manuscript. BCDC participated
514 in the conceptualization of the study, in designing the data simulation method, in the discussion and
515 interpretation of the results, and contributed to the writing of the manuscript. All authors read and
516 approved the final manuscript.

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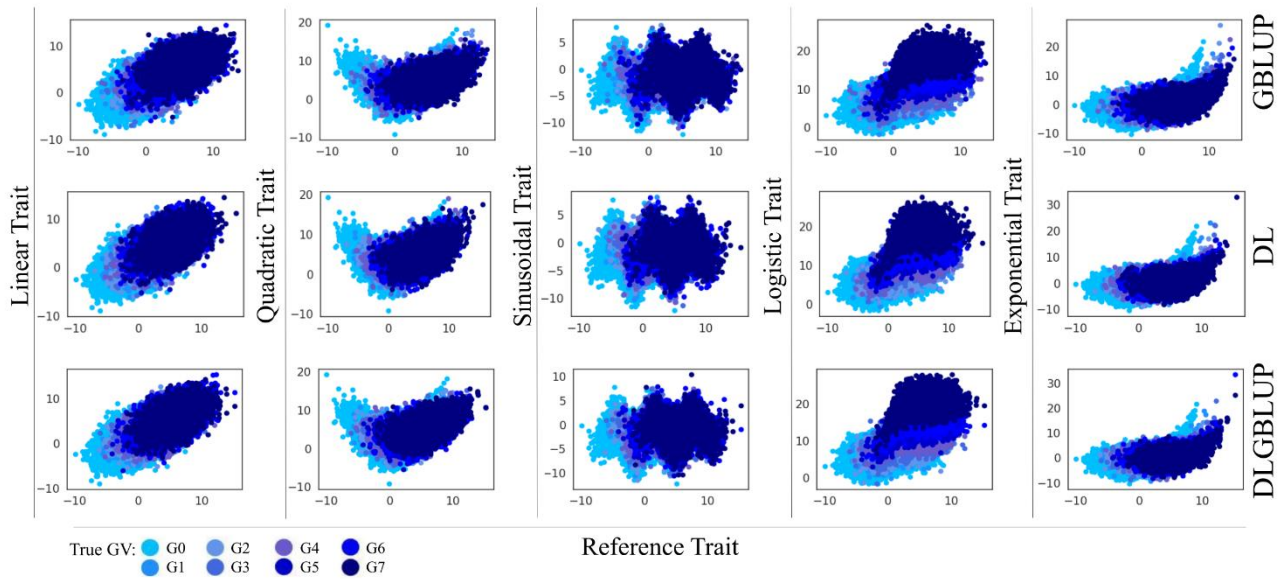
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583 **Additional files**

584 **Additional file 1 Figure S1**



585

586 **Title: Comparative plots of traits progression across 8 generations under selection.**

587 Description: Plots of relationship between the TGV of reference trait (x-axis) and dependent traits
588 (y-axis) over 8 generations based on additive PGV of GBLUP, DL and DLGBLUP.

589

590

591