Data and text mining

Maximal conditional chi-square importance in random forests

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ABSTRACT

Motivation: High-dimensional data are frequently generated in genome-wide association studies (GWAS) and other studies. It is important to identify features such as single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in GWAS that are associated with a disease. Random forests represent a very useful approach for this purpose, using a variable importance score. This importance score has several shortcomings. We propose an alternative importance measure to overcome those shortcomings.

Results: We characterized the effect of multiple SNPs under various models using our proposed importance measure in random forests, which uses maximal conditional chi-square (MCC) as a measure of association between a SNP and the trait conditional on other SNPs. Based on this importance measure, we employed a permutation test to estimate empirical P-values of SNPs. Our method was compared to a univariate test and the permutation test using the Gini and permutation importance. In simulation, the proposed method performed consistently superior to the other methods in identifying of risk SNPs. In a GWAS of age-related macular degeneration, the proposed method confirmed two significant SNPs (at the genomewide adjusted level of 0.05). Further analysis showed that these two SNPs conformed with a heterogeneity model. Compared with the existing importance measures, the MCC importance measure is more sensitive to complex effects of risk SNPs by utilizing conditional information on different SNPs. The permutation test with the MCC importance measure provides an efficient way to identify candidate SNPs in GWAS and facilitates the understanding of the etiology between genetic variants and complex diseases.

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1 INTRODUCTION

Successes of genome-wide association studies (GWAS) have demonstrated that single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) can be used to identify genetic variants underlying complex diseases, such as age-related macular degeneration (AMD) and coronary artery disease (CAD) (Edwards *et al.*, 2005; Haines *et al.*, 2005; Helgadottir *et al.*, 2007; Klein *et al.*, 2005; McPherson *et al.*, 2007; Samani *et al.*, 2007). GWAS has emerged as the most effective study design for identifying candidate genes in the scenario of 'common disease, common variant' (CD–CV). With the advance of genotyping technology, the number of available SNPs in one assay has soared from hundreds of thousand to more than 1 million in the past few years, leading to an outburst of high-dimensional data.

On the contrary, statistical methods available for GWAS remain limited. Single marker univariate tests such as the chi-square test or likelihood ratio test are commonly used. While simple, the univariate tests have produced many successes in identifying genetic variants for complex diseases (Klein et al., 2005; Li et al., 2006), which some may regard as 'low hanging fruits'. In reality, biological systems are more complex than single variants acting independently, and most likely, multiple genes may work together in a complex system. For example, in the case of CD-CV, multiple loci and environment factors may be involved, and the individual effects may not be large enough to be detectable with thousands of study subjects. Some approaches have been proposed for GWAS to consider the effects of multiple SNPs (Li et al., 2006; Zhang et al., 2008). But, there are practical limitations in those approaches. For example, SNPs interactions can be examined only under very limited configurations. Moreover, genetic variants may manifest different effects such as multiplicative and heterogeneity effects (Meng et al., 2009; Risch, 1990a, b), further complicating the analysis.

To meet the growing computational demand of the analytic methods, machine-learning approaches have attracted more attention in detecting significant SNPs in GWAS. For example, classification trees and forest-based methods (Breiman, 2001; Breiman et al., 1984; Zhang and Ye, 2008; Zhang et al., 2003) are powerful tools for identifying complex relationships between a trait and a large number of predictors, and these methods also have been found useful in the analysis of gene expression data (Bureau et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2007; Diaz-Uriarte and Alvarez de Andres, 2006; Ye et al., 2005; Zhang and Bonney, 2000). A random forest consists of many classification trees, and at each node of the trees, a small subset of randomly selected predictors, instead all predictors, are considered to split on the node. Within a random forest, the effect of a predictor is measured by either the permutation importance or Gini importance (Breiman, 2001). The Gini importance of a specific predictor directly sums the improvement of weighted Gini index when this variable is used for splitting a node among all trees in the forest (Friedman, 2001). The permutation importance of a predictor calculates the increase of the out-of-bag errors as a result of permuting the values of the predictor (Breiman, 2001), because the permutation destroys any potential predictive power of the predictor on the trait. Previous studies (Jiang et al., 2009; Wang et al., 2009) have demonstrated that the random forest-based approach is feasible and efficient for GWAS, although two major issues hamper further applications of random forests. Firstly, although large importance

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scores are often indicative of SNPs associated with the trait, it is usually not clear how large is large, and the importance score is not coupled with the rigorous statistical significance of the investigated SNPs. Secondly, both the permutation and Gini importance scores measure the 'average' effect of a predictor in a random forest, and can be easily altered by the presence of the other SNPs.

To overcome the problems stated above, we introduce an alternative importance score using maximal conditional chi-square (MCC) statistic to assess the conditional significance of SNPs in GWAS. For example, with two SNPs (A and B), if SNP B confounds the effect of SNP A on the trait, failure to control the effects of SNP B may lead to inefficient tests for SNP A. Like the Mantel–Haenszel test, a test by stratifying by SNP B is an effective approach to adjusting for the confounding effect of SNP B.

We make use of the hierarchical tree structure to assess the effect of SNP A through stratification of the SNPs that precede SNP A in splitting the nodes in a tree. A conditional chi-square statistic for SNP A can be calculated whenever it is used to split a node of any tree in a random forest. The maximal value among all these chisquares calculated for SNP A is obtained after the construction of the random forest. This maximum indicates the relationship between the trait and the SNP given its preceding SNPs in the random forest, and can serve as an importance measure. The reason we select the largest chi-square statistic, instead of the average as used in the Gini and permutation importance, is that disease-associated SNPs are usually very rare in the data, and therefore, most of the conditional chi-square statistics come from the SNPs that are not associated with the trait. Thus averaging all chi-square values limits the sensitivity of the permutation test.

Based on the MCC importance score, we developed a permutation procedure to estimate the significance of each SNP. Simulated data sets based on various multiplicative and heterogeneity genetic models were generated to evaluate the performance of the proposed approach. We compared the results among Gini, permutation, and MCC importance scores. Finally, the proposed method was applied to a real data set for GWAS.

2 METHODS

2.1 Definition of MCC importance

Let L_i^j be the list of SNPs that precede SNP *i* in its split of the *j*-th node of a tree. Let X_i^j be the chi-square statistic resulting from the split of the *j*-th node from SNP *i*. Define set S_i as:

$$S_i = \{X_i^j | L_i^j, j = 1, ..., n_i\}$$
 $i = 1, ..., M$ (1)

where M is the number of SNPs and n_i is the number of nodes split by SNP i in the forest.

The MCC importance of SNP *i* is then defined as:

$$MCC_i = \max(x, x \in S_i).$$
(2)

Let m_i be the node at which MCC_i is reached. If it is not unique, we select the first one by starting from the root node and left to right. Let

$$L_i^{\text{MCC}} = L_i^{m_i}.$$
(3)

We should note that when the node size is small, the chi-square statistic is not reliable. Thus we used the corrected chi-square statistic. In addition, we imposed a reasonable minimum size (5) on a node for splitting as typically done.

2.2 Random forest construction

Computing importance scores through permutation for the whole genome is theoretically possible but practically unrealistic. To overcome this computational issue, SNPs are screened using a single-marker analysis before being used in the construction of a random forest. Obviously, we need to choose a threshold for the screening. Because the concern is computational, the threshold can be relatively flexible based on the number of SNPs and computing capacity. Whenever feasible, we should try to be inclusive. For this report, we chose the threshold corresponding to the false discovery rate (FDR) below 0.75, which is a high threshold with a low chance of missing any important SNPs while enough to reduce the computational burden due to the much fewer number of SNPs considered. In each random forest, 1000 trees were generated, and the number of SNPs to be considered for splitting a node was set to be the square root of the total number of the post screening SNPs (Breiman, 2002).

2.3 Permutation test

Theoretical understanding of tree and forest based methods is known to be very difficult if not impossible. As a result, permutation procedures are commonly adopted to assess the significance level of a test (Chen et al., 2007; Rodenburg et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2009). In this study, we also applied permutation to estimate empirical P-values for MCC, Gini and permutation importance scores in random forests. After a random forest was built from the original data, the trait values were permuted randomly. Then, a new random forest was built and the importance values were recalculated for the permuted data set. The maximum importance value over all the SNPs in every permutation was recorded and thereby an empirical distribution of the maximum importance was estimated. We used this estimate to further assess the significance of each SNP in the data. To balance the heavy computational burden and the size of the probability to be estimated, we performed 1000 replications that seemed large enough to estimate the empirical P-value at significance levels of 0.01 and 0.05 in simulation studies. Others have taken similar strategies in related simulations (McDonough et al., 2009; Sohn et al., 2009). In a real analysis, more permutations could be carried out if necessary.

2.4 Genetic models for simulation

To reflect complex diseases under the CD–CV assumption, we adopted the genetic models studied by Lunetta *et al.* (2004) and Meng *et al.* (2009), which incorporate both genetic heterogeneity and multiplicative interactions in terms of penetrance factors defined by Risch (1990a and b). For example, in a simple two-locus model, denote the genotypes of the two SNPs (namely *A* and *B*) by A_i , i=0, 1, 2, and B_j , j=0, 1, 2, respectively, where *i* and *j* denotes the number of risk alleles, and $p=(p_0,p_1,p_2)$ and $q=(q_0,q_1,q_2)$ are penetrance factors for SNPs *A* and *B*, respectively. Then, for a multiplicative model, the penetrance of genotype A_iB_j is $w_{ij} = p_iq_j$; for a heterogeneity model, $w_{ij} = 1 - (1-p_i)(1-q_j) = p_i + q_j - p_iq_j$ (Meng *et al.*, 2009; Risch, 1990a, b).

For clarity, the penetrance factors for 0, 1 and 2 risk alleles are set the same at each risk SNP in each simulation model, namely $q = (q_0, q_1, q_2)$. Furthermore, in a combined heterogeneity and multiplicative model, define a multi-locus genotype as $G = (g_{11}, g_{12}, \dots, g_{HM})$, where *H* denotes the number of heterogeneous model, *M* denotes the number of multiplicatively acting loci in each model, and *g* is denoting the number of risk alleles at each locus. Then the penetrance for genotype *G* is calculated as:

$$w_G = 1 - \prod_{h=1}^{H} \left(1 - \prod_{m=1}^{M} q_{g_{hm}} \right)$$
(4)

According to the notation in Lunetta *et al.* (2004) and Meng *et al.* (2009), each model is abbreviated as 'HhMm', where h is the number of heterogeneous groups and m is the number of multiplicatively acting loci in each group. These groups are sometimes referred to as genetic networks or systems. For example, the genetic model

 Table 1. Genetic models used to simulate GWAS data

Model	Risk alle	eles	Penetrance factor				
	Total number		Multipli- cative alleles	Allele frequency	0	1	2
H4M2	8	6	2	0.160	3.8E-4	0.5	1
H4M4	16	12	4	0.282	1.2E-8	0.79	1

H4M4 means that the model contains four heterogeneous groups each with four multiplicative risk SNPs (Table 1). As in real data, noise SNPs in linkage equilibrium with allele frequencies distributed uniformly (0.01, 0.99) were generated. For each simulated data set, 200 cases and 200 controls were generated with a total of either 100 or 1000 SNPs. See Table 1 for more details.

3 RESULTS

3.1 Performance evaluation

As a starting point, we analyzed the data generated by models H4M2 and H4M4 to show whether the MCC importance is a preferable statistic in association studies. Scatter plots of raw MCC importance scores and P-values from univariate tests (uncorrected for multiple comparisons) were calculated for these genetic models, as shown in Figure 1. The agreement between uncorrected single marker P-values and MCC importance scores for risk SNPs is apparent in Figure 1. While for most of the noise SNPs with single marker P-value ranging from 0.01 to 1, the corresponding MCC importance scores are 0, indicating that the MCC importance is robust to the abundant, non-informative SNPs in the data. At the same time, with the increase of complexity in the genetic models and decrease of the signal-to-noise ratio in data, the overlap in MCC between risk and noise SNPs is expected. As indicated by the vertical and horizontal lines, if we try to distinguish risk SNPs from noise SNPs, the MCC importance is far more effective than the single marker P-values (see Fig. 1). Thus, our results suggest that the MCC importance has gained discriminant power by incorporating conditional information in multiple SNPs.

Next, we compared the empirical P-values obtained from the permutation test using different kinds of importance measures in random forests. Figure 2 illustrates the estimated genome-wide significance levels for all risk SNPs in the simulation data sets. For genetic model H4M2, both the MCC and permutation importance scores performed well in terms of identifying risk factors under the genome-wide 0.05 significance level (indicated by the horizontal line), although the MCC revealed much stronger evidence. The Gini importance, however, failed to identify seven out of eight risk SNPs with a genome-wide significance level of 0.05 when a total of 100 SNPs are tested. When a total of 1000 SNPs are included, none of the risk SNPs were identified. For the data sets generated from model H4M4 with more interactions, the MCC importance score consistently produced the best results. Moreover, we replicated the simulation 50 times and calculated the average of sensitivity and specificity under two thresholds, genome-wide significance levels of 0.05 and 0.01, based on the empirical P-values from the permutation test using different importance measures and univariate test (after

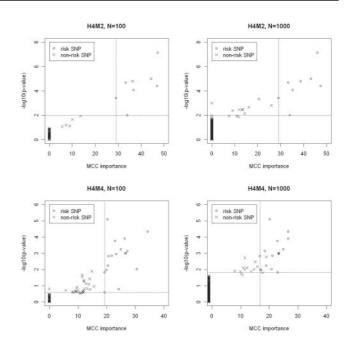


Fig. 1. Scatter plots of raw MCC importance scores and *P*-values from single-SNP tests in models H4M2 and H4M4.

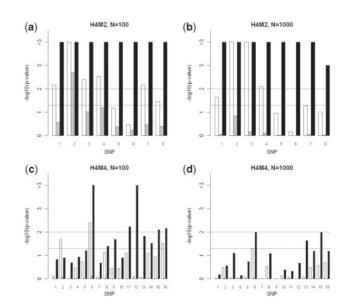


Fig. 2. Empirical *P*-values of risk SNPs in models H4M2 and H4M4. White, grey and black bars represent the permutation importance, Gini importance and MCC importance scores, respectively. Two dash lines represent the genome-wide significance level of 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

Bonferroni correction for multiple comparisons) (shown in Table 2). All four methods investigated in this study have 100% specificity throughout all tests. This is a critical feature for GWAS as there are usually more than 100 k SNPs in one assay and most of them are non-informative. For the sensitivity, the permutation test using the Gini importance has the highest missing rate in all tests, even worse than the simple univariate test. The permutation test using the MCC importance is significantly ($P < 10^{-4}$) superior to the other three

		H4M2				H4M4			
		N=100	N=1000		N=100			N=1000	
		sn (%)	sp (%)	sn (%)	sp (%)	sn (%)	sp (%)	sn (%)	sp (%)
Significant level 0.01	MCC RF	95.2***	100	68.0***	100	38.9***	100	9.4*	100
	Permutation RF	69.5	100	28.5	100	12.2	100	2.2	100
	Gini RF	27.2	100	13.0	100	3.0	100	2.0	100
	Univariate	55.0	100	27.5	100	7.6	100	2.8	100
Significant level 0.05	MCC RF	98.0**	100	78.0***	100	53.1***	100	15.8**	100
	Permutation RF	85.0	100	47.2	100	21.9	100	5.2	100
	Gini RF	36.2	100	21.0	100	8.8	100	4.8	100
	Univariate	67.0	100	43.8	100	15.9	100	6.5	100

Table 2. Comparison of prediction performance of different methods with different significance levels using models H4M2 and H4M4

sn: sensitivity; sp: specificity; N: number of SNPs.

Significance of paired t-test between MCC RF and the best among other three methods: *: < 1E-2, **: < 1E-5, ***: < 1E-10.

tests, and for instance, increases the sensitivity by a range of 6-40% relative to the univariate test. These results underscore the usefulness of the MCC importance in identifying SNPs for complex diseases. We also performed a limited number of simulations using larger sample sizes. The results are shown in Supplementary Figure S1 and Supplementary Table S1, and confirm that the MCC importance is consistently better than other methods.

3.2 Effect of linkage disequilibrium (LD)

We should note that LD may reduce the importance scores of risk SNPs in random forests due to the strong correlation among them. Also, it is possible that some of the risk SNPs are not genotyped. To assess the impact of LD and ungenotyped risk SNPs on the performance of the MCC importance, we followed the approach in Lunetta et al. (2004) and Meng et al. (2009). Let K represent the number of genotyped risk SNPs, S the number of genotyped SNPs within each multiplicative model, and LD the number of SNPs in LD with a risk SNP. The SNPs in LD with a risk SNP but without functional effect on the trait were treated equally as the risk SNP, since they identify the correct region of the genome associated with the trait. We selected four risk SNPs in models H4M2 (SNPs 1-4 of the first two heterogeneity groups in Fig. 2a and b) and H4M4 (SNPs 5-8 of the second heterogeneity group in Fig. 2c and d), and added four extra SNPs in LD with each genotyped risk SNP. To indicate the genetic models, for example, H4M2K4S2LD4 means that two heterogeneous groups are genotyped out of all four groups, and four additional SNPs are in LD for each risk SNP. Following Lunetta et al. (2004) and Meng et al. (2009), all LD levels were simulated using $r^2 = 1$. The empirical genome-wide P-values are shown in Figure 3. The performance of the permutation test using the MCC importance is largely unaffected by LD. In model H4M2K4S2LD4 with 100 SNPs (Fig. 3a), all four risk SNPs and the SNPs in LD with them show similar significance levels as they did in the unmodified model H4M2 (Fig. 3a). Also the significant risk SNP in the selected heterogeneity group (SNP 6) of H4M4 with 100 SNPs still can be distinguished in the more complicated new model (Figs 2c and 3c). There is one risk SNP with reduced significance in each model. For example, the first risk

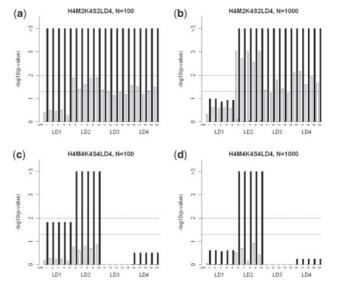


Fig. 3. Empirical *P*-values of risk SNPs and SNPs in LD with them in models H4M2K2S2LD4 and H4M4K4S2LD4. White, grey and black bars represent the permutation importance, Gini importance, and MCC importance scores, respectively. Two dash lines represents the genome-wide significance level of 0.05 and 0.01, respectively.

SNP in H4M2K4S2LD4 with 1000 SNPs (Fig. 2b) has genomewide *P*-value <0.01; however, the corresponding LD region 1 in the modified model is no longer significant (Fig. 3b), probably due to missing information of other risk SNPs. At the same time, the permutation test using Gini or permutation importance become less powerful in both models.

We further compared performance of different methods on these modified models based on 50 replications (see in Table 3), and the results show that the permutation test using the MCC importance achieves the best performance and it is significantly ($P < 10^{-5}$) better than the next runner-up in all scenarios. For example, compared to the other methods, at least 25% improvement in sensitivity can be observed by using the MCC importance in models H4M4K4S4LD4 with 1000 SNPs at genome-wide significance

		H4M2K2S2LD4				H4M4K4S4LD4				
		N=100		N=1000		N=100		N=1000		
		sn (%)	sp (%)	sn (%)	sp (%)	sn (%)	sp (%)	sn (%)	sp (%)	
Significant level 0.01	MCC RF	76.6**	100	54.2**	100	45.0***	100	11.0**	100	
	Permutation RF	18.6	100	12.8	100	2.3	100	1.2	100	
	Gini RF	0	100	4.4	100	0	100	0.3	100	
	Univariate	56.0	100	29.5	100	7.0	100	1.0	100	
Significant level 0.05	MCC RF	89.6**	100	66.5**	100	58.6***	100	17.3***	100	
	Permutation RF	45.9	100	26.9	100	10.9	100	2.9	100	
	Gini RF	0	100	10.2	100	0	100	1.2	100	
	Univariate	72.0	100	42.0	100	18.5	100	4.0	100	

Table 3. Comparison of prediction performance of different methods with different significance levels using models H4M2K2S2LD4 and H4M4K4S4LD4

sn: sensitivity; sp: specificity; N: number of SNPs.

Significance of paired t-test between MCC RF and the best among other three methods: *: <1E-2, **: <1E-5, ***: <1E-10.

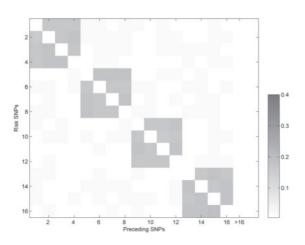


Fig. 4. Probability of SNPs in L^{MCC} of risk SNPs in model H4M4. 1–16: risk SNPs, >16: noise SNPs.

level of 0.01. Without exceptions, the permutation tests using the other importance measures perform worse than the univariate test. We also performed a limited number of simulations using larger sample sizes. The results are shown in Supplementary Figure S2 and Supplementary Table S2.

3.3 Inference on SNP interactions

We have demonstrated the use of the MCC importance in random forests. Another important question remains: can we identify risk SNPs and their interactions beyond chance from the list of preceding SNPs during the course of computing the MCC importance? To answer this question, we investigated the relationship between a risk SNP and its preceding SNPs. First let us define *Pa* to be the probability that the specific SNP appears in L^{MCC} . *Pa* was then estimated from a random forest with 1000 replications from the H4M4 model (see Fig. 4). The 16×16 grids with grayscale represent *Pa* for all 16 risk SNPs in the data, the column '>16' represents the average *Pa* for all noise SNPs. We can easily identify four 4×4 blocks in Figure 4, which represent four heterogeneity groups.

Within these blocks, *Pa* scores in the diagonal are zero, because a SNP can not be in L^{MCC} of itself. The averaged *Pa* of multiplicative interacting SNPs is 0.18, ~10 times of the averaged probability of the risk SNPs outside the corresponding group. At the same time, the results in Figure 4 also indicate that noise SNPs have a much lower chance to be included in L^{MCC} , and the averaged *Pa* for noise SNPs is as low as 2.6×10^{-3} . Moreover, also let us define *Pn* to be the probability that for a specific SNP, none of risk SNPs to include only noise SNPs: the averaged *Pn* of all risk SNPs is 1.4×10^{-2} , suggesting that the MCC importance for the risk SNPs is indeed dependent on the other risk SNPs, beyond chance. These results suggest that using the MCC importance random forests makes it feasible to identify multiple risk SNPs.

3.4 Application in GWAS

We applied the proposed method to a GWAS of AMD (Klein et al., 2005). AMD is the most common cause of vision loss in the elderly. Many researchers have studied the genetic mechanism of this complex disease (Daiger, 2005; Marx, 2006). This dataset contains 116 212 SNPs in 96 cases and 50 controls, and we removed SNPs that had more than 5% missing ratio or <5% minor allele frequency. Two significant SNPs: rs1329428 and rs10272438 were successfully identified under genome-wide significance level of 0.05, which have been previously reported by different studies of AMD (Chen et al., 2007; Klein et al., 2005; Ng et al., 2008). We then investigated the L^{MCC} of these two SNPs and showed detailed information in Figure 5. It turns out that they cooperate in a scenario that both SNPs have the strongest association with the disease when they are dependant on each other. For example, in the 94 patients with AMD and 36 healthy people which have at least one 'T' allele in rs10272438, genotype 'GG' in rs1329428 was identified in 67 patients while only seven in the control group (Fig. 5a), resulting in a maximal chi-square score 28.52. For rs10272438, a maximal Chi-square score 28.87 was achieved with the same SNPs and genotype splitting criteria (Fig. 5b). Furthermore, we performed a logistic regression using both rs10272438 and rs1329428, and the coefficient of the interaction term is -0.1234with an insignificant P-value of 0.84, suggesting that these two

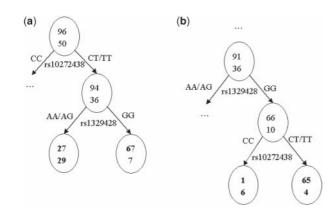


Fig. 5. Illustration of L^{MCC} for two significant SNPs identified: rs10272438 and rs1329428.

SNPs belong to a heterogeneity genetic model involved in AMD. It is noteworthy that Figure 5 is presented to illustrate the tree structures in the random forest and how the selected SNPs may interact. However, in the context of random forest, we are not aimed in comparing the performance of one tree against another in the forest.

4 DISCUSSION

Random forests, as a powerful machine learning method, has been successfully applied in many classification problems, especially with a large number of predictors. The permutation and Gini importance scores are commonly computed for random forests to evaluate the overall contribution of a predictor in classification. The reason for the reduced power they exhibited in identification of risk SNPs in GWAS is probably that the risk SNPs are extremely sparse in the data and they usually cooperate as a complex system associated with the phenotype; therefore averaging over all scores may significantly reduce its sensitivity in the permutation test. Moreover, there are other practical issues with the permutation importance. For example, highly correlated SNPs due to link age disequilibrium act as surrogates to each other, causing an underestimation of the permutation importance when they appear in one tree. During the calculation of permutation importance, the permutation of one SNP will break its intrinsic relationship with other SNPs which leads to inaccurate estimation of permutation importance. Some approaches (Amaratunga et al., 2008; Jiang et al., 2009; Meng et al., 2009) have been proposed to address these issues, but they are too computationally intensive for ultra high throughput data. Therefore, a powerful and yet simple statistic is very important to detect subtle effects between casual SNPs.

In this article, we proposed and studied the maximal chi-square statistic as a new importance measurement in random forests and its application in the permutation test for GWAS. We first evaluated the performance of the MCC importance in detecting risk SNPs using empirical *P*-values under null hypothesis and discovered that there is no association between SNPs and a trait. We also compared this method with the permutation tests using different importance scores in random forests and single marker analysis. We further modified the genetic models in simulation by including LD, reflecting real data in GWAS. The results indicated that the

permutation test using the MCC importance was consistently the best. Moreover, we showed that it is possible to make inference on risk SNPs from the preceding list of SNPs while deriving the MCC importance. Finally we applied this method to a GWAS data for AMD. Two AMD-related SNPs: rs10272438 and rs1329428 were successfully identified with the genome-wide significance level 0.05. Our analysis suggested that these two SNPs belong to a heterogeneity model involved in etiology.

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