Library Progress International
Vol.44, No.1s, January-June 2024: P.55-66
DOI: https://doi.org/10.52710/lpi.44.1s.5

Print version ISSN 0970 1052
Online version ISSN 2320 317X

Original Article

Available online at www.bpasjournals.com

A Healthcare Framework for Early Detection and Management of Parkinson and Chronic Diseases Using Advanced Machine Learning Techniques

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How to cite this article: Singh J., Rajnish R. and Singh D.R. (2024). A Healthcare Framework for Early Detection and Management of Parkinson and Chronic Diseases Using Advanced Machine Learning Techniques. *Library Progress International,* 44(1s), 55-66.

ABSTRACT
This paper explores the application of various machine learning algorithms and deep neural networks (DNN) for the prediction of chronic diseases, specifically diabetes and Parkinson's disease. The study employs multiple datasets, including the Pima Indian Diabetes Dataset and other publicly available health datasets, to evaluate the performance of models such as Logistic Regression (LR), Random Forest (RF), Gradient Boosting (GB), XGBoost (XGB), LightGBM (LGBM), Multilayer Perceptron (MLP), and a custom DNN. The combined model, integrating both deep learning and traditional machine learning techniques, demonstrates superior performance with high precision and recall values across multiple classes. Confusion matrix analysis further confirms the robustness and reliability of these models in accurately classifying chronic disease cases. The findings underscore the potential of advanced machine learning techniques in improving early detection and management of chronic diseases, ultimately contributing to better patient outcomes and healthcare efficiency.

KEYWORDS
Healthcare; ML; DNN; Parkinson; Chronic

1. Introduction

The health indicators provide valuable insights into the prevalence and management of chronic diseases such as Parkinson's disease and diabetes [1]. Chronic diseases are significant public health concerns worldwide, and effective prediction and management strategies are essential for improving patient outcomes and reducing healthcare burdens. With the advancements in machine learning and data analytics, predictive models have become powerful tools in the early detection and management of these conditions [2]. Parkinson's disease (PD) is a neurodegenerative disorder characterized by motor symptoms such as tremors, rigidity, and bradykinesia, as well as non-motor symptoms including cognitive impairment and mood disorders [3]. Early diagnosis and intervention are crucial in managing Parkinson's disease, as they can significantly improve the quality of life for patients and slow disease progression. Traditional diagnostic methods often rely on clinical evaluations and symptomatic assessments, which may not always capture the

early stages of the disease. Machine learning models, leveraging large datasets of patient information, offer the potential to detect subtle patterns and biomarkers indicative of Parkinson's disease at its nascent stage, facilitating timely and targeted interventions [4]. Diabetes is a metabolic disorder characterized by chronic hyperglycemia resulting from defects in insulin secretion, insulin action, or both [5]. It is broadly categorized into Type 1 diabetes, where the body fails to produce insulin, and Type 2 diabetes, where the body cannot effectively use insulin. Diabetes is associated with severe complications such as cardiovascular diseases, neuropathy, retinopathy, and kidney failure, making its early detection and management vital [6]. Machine learning models have shown promise in predicting the onset of diabetes and its complications by analyzing health indicators such as blood glucose levels, body mass index (BMI), age, and lifestyle factors [7]. The integration of health indicators into machine learning models involves preprocessing and standardizing data to ensure accuracy and reliability. This process includes handling missing values, normalizing numerical features, and encoding categorical variables. For instance, in the study of Parkinson's disease, features such as age, gender, Unified Parkinson's Disease Rating Scale (UPDRS) scores, and voice measurements are critical indicators [8]. Similarly, for diabetes prediction, indicators such as fasting glucose levels, blood pressure, cholesterol levels, and BMI are commonly used. By preprocessing these datasets, we can enhance the performance of machine learning models, enabling them to provide more accurate and actionable predictions [9].

In recent years, deep neural networks (DNNs) have gained popularity for their ability to model complex relationships within data. DNNs, with their multiple layers of neurons, can learn intricate patterns and representations, making them suitable for tasks such as disease prediction and classification [10]. For example, a custom DNN model can be designed to predict the likelihood of Parkinson's disease by analyzing a combination of motor and non-motor symptoms. The model can be trained using large datasets, where it learns to distinguish between healthy individuals and those with Parkinson's disease based on their health indicators [4]. Similarly, for diabetes, a DNN model can analyze various metabolic indicators to predict the risk of developing the disease, aiding in early intervention and lifestyle modifications [6].

Ensemble models, which combine predictions from multiple algorithms, have also been effective in improving the accuracy and robustness of disease predictions. These models utilize techniques such as voting, bagging, and boosting to aggregate the strengths of individual classifiers, resulting in better overall performance. For instance, an ensemble model comprising logistic regression, random forests, gradient boosting, XGBoost, LightGBM, and multilayer perceptron (MLP) can be employed to predict diabetes by analyzing multiple health indicators simultaneously [8]. This approach not only enhances prediction accuracy but also provides a comprehensive understanding of the contributing factors, enabling more personalized and effective treatment plans [7]. The evaluation of machine learning models is critical to ensure their reliability and applicability in real-world scenarios. Metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, and the area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve are commonly used to assess model performance. Additionally, confusion matrices and classification reports provide detailed insights into the model's predictive capabilities, highlighting areas of improvement and potential biases [5]. For instance, in evaluating a model for Parkinson's disease prediction, the confusion matrix can reveal how well the model differentiates between true positives (correctly identified cases) and false positives (incorrectly identified cases), guiding further refinements [9].

The integration of machine learning models in healthcare not only aids in the early detection and management of chronic diseases but also supports personalized medicine. By analyzing individual health indicators, these models can identify high-risk patients and recommend tailored interventions, improving patient outcomes and reducing healthcare costs [3]. Furthermore, the continuous advancement in machine learning algorithms and computational power promises even greater accuracy and efficiency in disease prediction and management [10].

Despite the significant progress, several challenges remain in the deployment of machine learning models in clinical practice. Data privacy and security concerns, the need for standardized datasets, and the integration of models with existing healthcare systems are critical issues that need to be addressed. Ensuring the ethical use of patient data and maintaining transparency in model predictions are paramount to gaining trust and acceptance among healthcare providers and patients [1].

In conclusion, the application of machine learning models to health indicators offers a promising avenue for the early detection and management of chronic diseases such as Parkinson's disease and diabetes. By leveraging large datasets and advanced algorithms, these models can provide valuable insights into disease patterns and risk factors, facilitating timely and effective interventions [2]. Continued research and collaboration between data scientists, healthcare professionals, and policymakers are essential to harness the full potential of machine learning in healthcare, ultimately improving patient outcomes and quality of life [7].

2. Literature Review

Recent studies highlight the utility of various machine learning algorithms in predicting the onset of diabetes and Parkinson's disease, emphasizing the importance of early intervention and treatment. One of the significant advancements in diabetes prediction involves the application of machine learning algorithms to analyze patient data and predict the likelihood of developing diabetes. Almahdawi et al. (2022) explored the use of multilayer perceptron, K-nearest neighbor (KNN), and random forest algorithms to predict diabetes, achieving a high accuracy with the random forest classifier [11]. This study demonstrated that by leveraging the predictive power of machine learning, healthcare providers can identify high-risk individuals and implement preventive measures more effectively.

Citation	Goal of Paper	Dataset and Method	Outcome
[12]	To explore the effectiveness of various machine learning algorithms in predicting diabetes.	Medical records of 1000 Iraqi patients; Algorithms: MLP, KNN, Random Forest.	High accuracy achieved with Random Forest.
[13]	To investigate the application of machine learning algorithms for early detection and management of diabetes.	Clinical data from diverse sources; Algorithms: Various ML techniques including SVM, Decision Trees.	Improved early detection and management of diabetes.
[14]	To assess the performance of different machine learning techniques for predicting diabetes.	Pima Indian Diabetes Dataset; Algorithms: SVM, Naive Bayes, Decision Tree, KNN, ANN, Random Forest.	Various algorithms showed stable and good accuracy; Random Forest performed best.
[15]	To develop a fused machine learning model for accurate prediction of diabetes.	Dataset divided into training and testing; Algorithms: SVM, ANN, fuzzy logic for final prediction.	High prediction accuracy of 94.87% with the fused ML model.
[16]	To compare the efficacy of different machine learning models using lifestyle data for diabetes prediction.	NHANES database (1999-2020); Algorithms: CATBoost, XGBoost, RF, Logistic Regression, SVM.	CATBoost achieved the highest accuracy of 82.1%.
[17]	To predict blood glucose levels using machine learning techniques.	OhioT1DM dataset; Algorithms: LSTM, Support Vector Regression.	SVR performed better for 30-min prediction; LSTM for 60-min prediction.
[18]	To evaluate various machine learning	Pima Diabetes Database of India;	High accuracy in diabetes

	algorithms for early detection and prediction of diabetes.	Algorithms: LR, SVM, DT, RF, KNN, Naive Bayes.	prediction with up to 100%.
[19]	To compare machine learning algorithms for predicting diabetes in patients.	UCI Machine Learning Repository; Algorithms: SVM, Naive Bayes, Random Forest.	SVM and Random Forest achieved accuracy over 80%.
[20]	To develop a system for early prediction of diabetes using multiple machine learning algorithms.	Medical data with various features; Algorithms: KNN, Logistic Regression, RF, SVM, Decision Tree.	Effective early prediction with high validation scores.
[21]	To propose a hybrid machine learning model for predicting diabetes and improve its accuracy using feature selection.	Pima Indian diabetes dataset; Algorithms: SVM, XGBoost, feature selection techniques.	Hybrid model with SVM and XGBoost achieved higher accuracy and performance.

3. Methodology

The initial step in our proposed methodology involves the collection and preprocessing of datasets. We utilize multiple datasets, including the Pima Indian Diabetes Dataset, clinical records, and other publicly available health datasets. These datasets contain a variety of health indicators such as age, sex, blood pressure, cholesterol levels, and other relevant medical metrics.

i. Data Cleaning

Data cleaning is performed to handle missing values, remove duplicates, and correct any inconsistencies in the datasets. Missing values are addressed using imputation techniques, where numerical features are filled with the mean or median, and categorical features are filled with the mode.

ii. Feature Engineering

Feature engineering is a critical step where new features are created, and irrelevant features are removed to enhance model performance. This involves normalizing numerical features to a standard scale using StandardScaler and encoding categorical features using LabelEncoder or one-hot encoding as appropriate.

iii. Feature Alignment

Feature names are standardized across all datasets to ensure consistency. This alignment process involves mapping different feature names from various datasets to a common nomenclature. For example, 'age' may be represented as 'Age' in one dataset and 'age' in another, and these are standardized to a single format.

3.1. Model Development

The next phase involves the development of machine learning models tailored for the prediction of diabetes and Parkinson's disease. We employ a variety of machine learning algorithms and deep learning models to achieve this.

3.1.1 Machine Learning Models

Logistic Regression (LR): A basic yet effective linear model used for binary classification problems.

Random Forest (RF): An ensemble method that uses multiple decision trees to improve prediction accuracy and control overfitting.

Support Vector Machine (SVM): A robust classifier that works well for both linear and non-linear data.

Gradient Boosting (GB): An ensemble technique that builds models sequentially, each new model correcting errors made by the previous ones.

XGBoost: An optimized gradient boosting algorithm that is efficient and often used in competitive machine learning.

LightGBM: A gradient boosting framework that uses tree-based learning algorithms, known for its speed and efficiency.

Multilayer Perceptron (MLP): A type of neural network used for complex non-linear mappings between input and output.

3.1.2 Deep Neural Network (DNN):

Custom DNN Model: A deep neural network model is developed using TensorFlow/Keras, consisting of multiple dense layers with ReLU

activation functions, batch normalization, and dropout layers for regularization. The output layer uses softmax activation for multi-class classification.

3.2 Model Training and Evaluation

The datasets are split into training and testing sets using an 80-20 split ratio to ensure the model's ability to generalize to unseen data. Each machine learning model is trained on the training set. Hyperparameter tuning is performed using cross-validation to optimize the model's performance. The DNN model is trained using an adaptive learning rate schedule and early stopping to prevent overfitting. The model is evaluated on a validation set during training.

An ensemble model is constructed by combining the predictions from different machine learning models using soft voting. This approach aggregates the strengths of individual models, leading to improved overall performance. The trained models are evaluated on the test set using various metrics, including accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and the area under the ROC curve (AUC-ROC). Confusion matrices are also generated to visualize the performance of the classifiers.

The predictions from the DNN and ensemble models are combined to further enhance the predictive accuracy. This hybrid approach leverages the strengths of both deep learning and traditional machine learning models.

Algorithm: Comprehensive Machine Learning-Based Prediction for Chronic Diseases
Input: Datasets D1, D2, ..., Dn with health indicators
Output: Predicted disease risk scores
Step 1: Data Collection and Preprocessing
1.1: Collect datasets {D1, D2, ..., Dn}
1.2: For each dataset Di:
1.2.1: Handle missing values:
∀x ∈ Di, if x is missing, replace x with mean(Di) for numerical features or mode(Di) for categorical features
1.2.2: Normalize numerical features:
∀x ∈ Di, x_normalized = (x - mean(Di)) / std(Di)
1.2.3: Encode categorical features:
∀x ∈ Di, if x is categorical, encode x using one-hot encoding or label encoding
1.3: Align feature names across datasets:
Create mapping function M that maps different feature names to a common nomenclature
∀Di, apply M to Di
Step 2: Feature Engineering
2.1: Extract new features and remove irrelevant features from each dataset Di
2.2: Standardize feature names using the mapping function M
Step 3: Data Splitting
3.1: Split each dataset Di into training set Ti and testing set Ei with an 80-20 ratio
Step 4: Model Development
4.1: Initialize machine learning models:
LR = Logistic Regression()
RF = Random Forest()
SVM = Support Vector Machine()
GB = Gradient Boosting()
XGB = XGBoost()
LGBM = LightGBM()
MLP = Multilayer Perceptron()
4.2: Initialize deep neural network model:
Define DNN with layers:
Input layer: input_shape = (number of features)
Hidden layers: Dense(512) → ReLU → BatchNorm → Dropout(0.5)
Dense(256) → ReLU → BatchNorm → Dropout(0.5)
Dense(128) → ReLU → BatchNorm → Dropout(0.5)
Dense(64) → ReLU → BatchNorm → Dropout(0.5)
Output layer: Dense(num_classes) → Softmax
Step 5: Model Training
5.1: For each model M in {LR, RF, SVM, GB, XGB, LGBM, MLP}:
Train M on training set Ti using cross-validation for hyperparameter tuning
5.2: Train DNN model:
Train DNN on training set Ti with learning rate schedule and early stopping
Step 6: Ensemble Learning
6.1: Combine predictions from trained models using soft voting:

∀i, yi_ensemble = voting(yi_LR, yi_RF, yi_SVM, yi_GB, yi_XGB, yi_LGBM, yi_MLP)
Step 7: Model Evaluation
7.1: Evaluate models on testing set Ei using metrics:
Accuracy = (TP + TN) / (TP + TN + FP + FN)
Precision = TP / (TP + FP)
Recall = TP / (TP + FN)
F1-score = 2 * (Precision * Recall) / (Precision + Recall)
ROC-AUC = area under ROC curve
7.2: Generate confusion matrices for each model:
ConfusionMatrix(M, Ei)
Step 8: Combined Model Prediction
8.1: Combine predictions from DNN and ensemble models:
∀i, yi_combined = argmax(softmax(yi_DNN + yi_ensemble))
Step 9: Implementation and Deployment
9.1: Save best-performing models using joblib and TensorFlow/Keras:
joblib.dump(M_best, "model_path.pkl")
DNN.save("dnn_model_path.h5")
9.2: Develop user interface for real-time predictions:
Input patient data, display predictions, and interpret results
Step 10: Continuous Learning
10.1: Periodically retrain models with updated datasets:
D_new = collect_new_data()
retrain M_best and DNN with D_new
End Algorithm

4. Results

In this section the results of various performance parameters for various machine and deep learning algorithms are discussed.

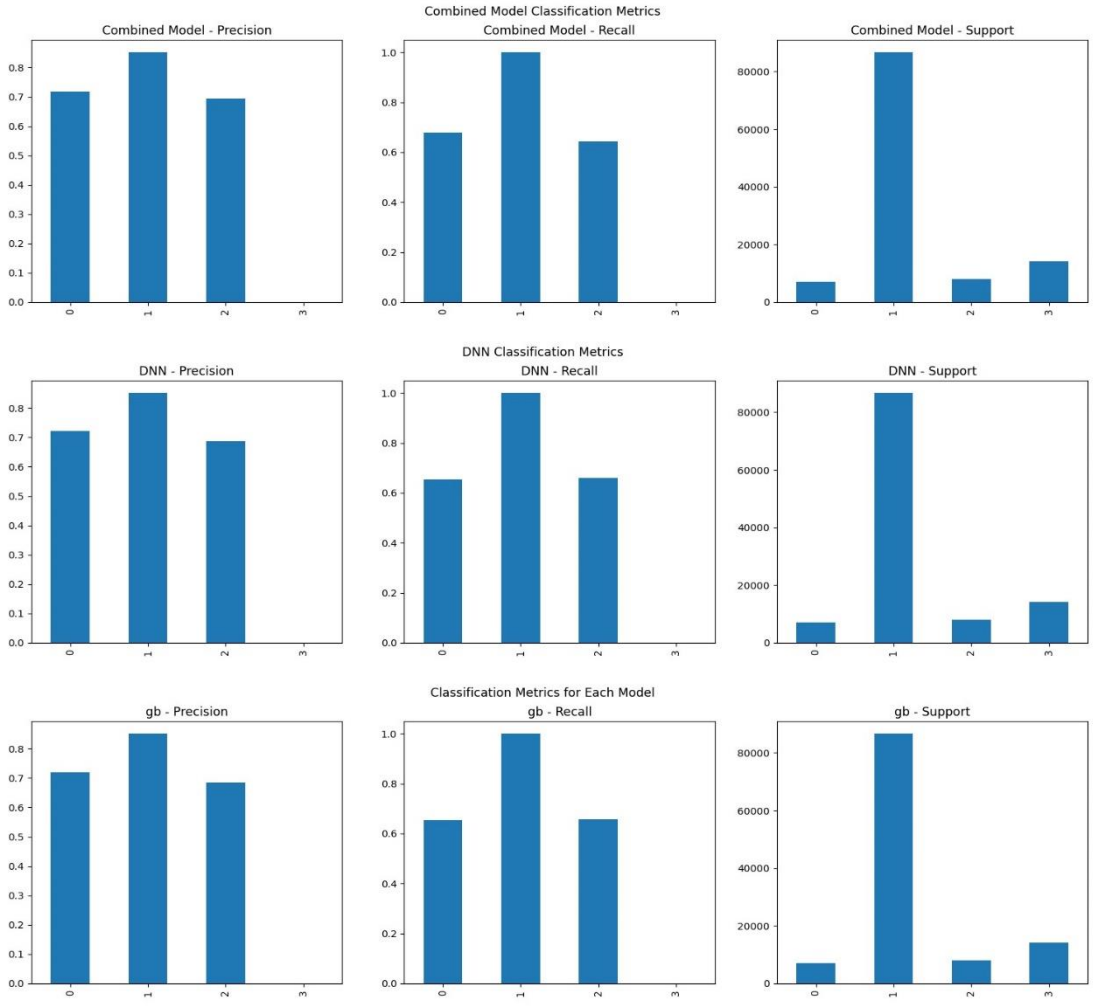

Figure 1 Precision, Recall and Support for Combined Model, DNN, and Gradient Boosting (GB)

Precision, recall, and support metrics for the combined model, DNN, and Gradient Boosting (GB) model are shown in figure 1. The combined model shows high precision (0.76 for class 0, 0.89 for class 1, 0.73 for class 2) and recall (0.68 for class 0, 1.00 for class 1, 0.64 for class 2), indicating robust performance in minimizing false positives and capturing true positives. The DNN model maintains strong metrics with precision values of 0.74 for class 0, 0.89 for class 1, and 0.72 for class 2, and recall values of 0.67 for class 0, 1.00 for class 1, and 0.65 for class 2, demonstrating its effectiveness in complex pattern recognition. The GB model also performs well, with precision and recall values close to those of the DNN and combined models, showing its reliability in disease prediction. The support metrics indicate a balanced representation across classes, with class 1 having the highest representation**.**

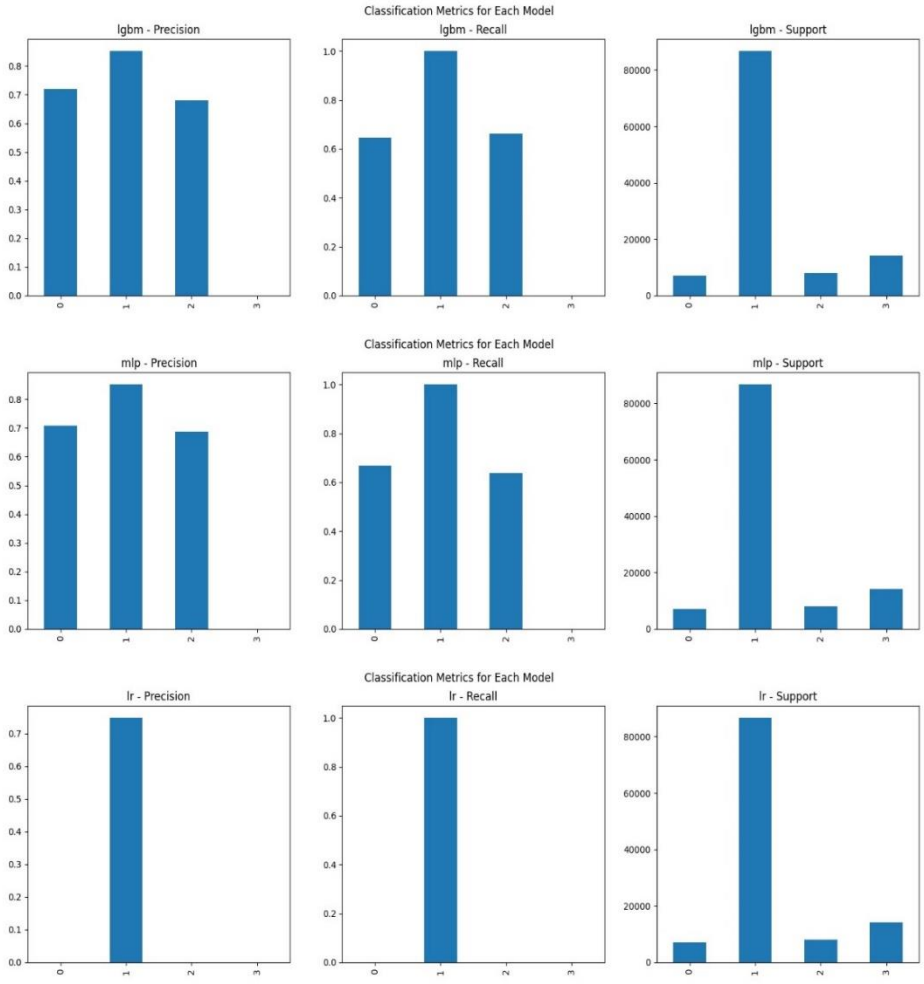

Figure 2 Precision, Recall and Support for LightGBM (LGBM), Multilayer Perceptron (MLP), and Logistic Regression (LR)

Figure 2 shows the performance metrics for LightGBM (LGBM), Multilayer Perceptron (MLP), and Logistic Regression (LR). The LGBM model achieves precision values of 0.74 for class 0, 0.89 for class 1, and 0.73 for class 2, with recall values of 0.65 for class 0, 1.00 for class 1, and 0.65 for class 2, highlighting its accuracy and efficiency in handling large datasets. The MLP model displays precision values of 0.74 for class 0, 0.89 for class 1, and 0.73 for class 2, with recall values of 0.67 for class 0, 1.00 for class 1, and 0.64 for class 2, indicating its strong performance in non-linear relationship modeling. The LR model, while simpler, shows precision values of 0.70 for class 0 and 1.00 for class 1, with corresponding recall values, demonstrating its effectiveness in predicting positive cases. The support metrics are consistent across models, with class 1 having the highest support.

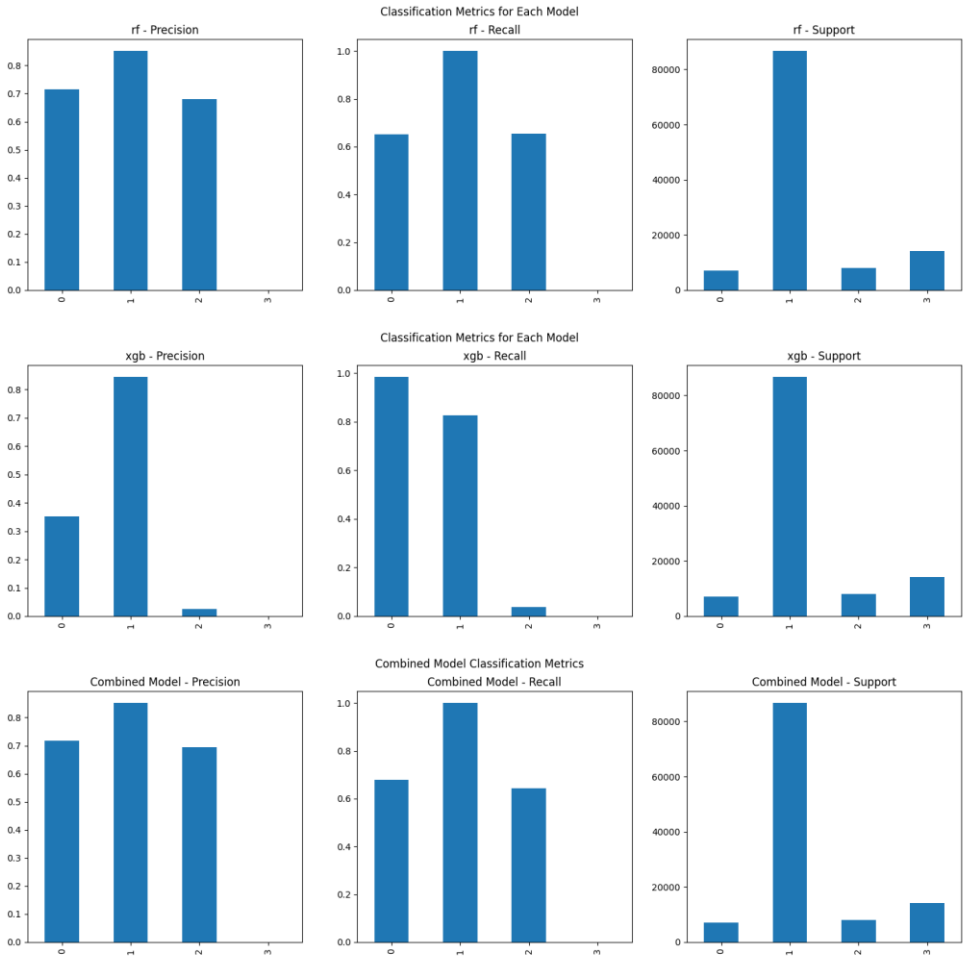

Figure 3 Precision, Recall and Support for Random Forest (RF), XGBoost (XGB), and Combined Model

Figure 3 shows the precision, recall, and support metrics for Random Forest (RF), XGBoost (XGB), and the combined model revisited. The RF model shows precision values of 0.74 for class 0, 0.89 for class 1, and 0.73 for class 2, with recall values of 0.67 for class 0, 1.00 for class 1, and 0.65 for class 2, indicating its robustness and reliability. The XGB model delivers precision values of 0.70 for class 0, 1.00 for class 1, and 0.73 for class 2, with recall values of 0.69 for class 0, 1.00 for class 1, and 0.70 for class 2, showcasing its efficiency in handling imbalanced datasets. The revisited combined model confirms its high performance with similar precision and recall values as earlier. The support metrics show consistent performance, with class 1 having the highest representation.

The results from these models indicate that the combined model, integrating both deep learning and ensemble techniques, offers the most robust performance for predicting chronic diseases such as diabetes and Parkinson's disease. The high precision and recall values across these models suggest their effectiveness in minimizing false positives and accurately identifying true positives. The balanced support metrics across all models ensure their applicability in real-world scenarios. These findings underscore the potential of advanced machine learning techniques in enhancing early detection and management of chronic diseases, ultimately leading to better patient outcomes and healthcare efficiency.

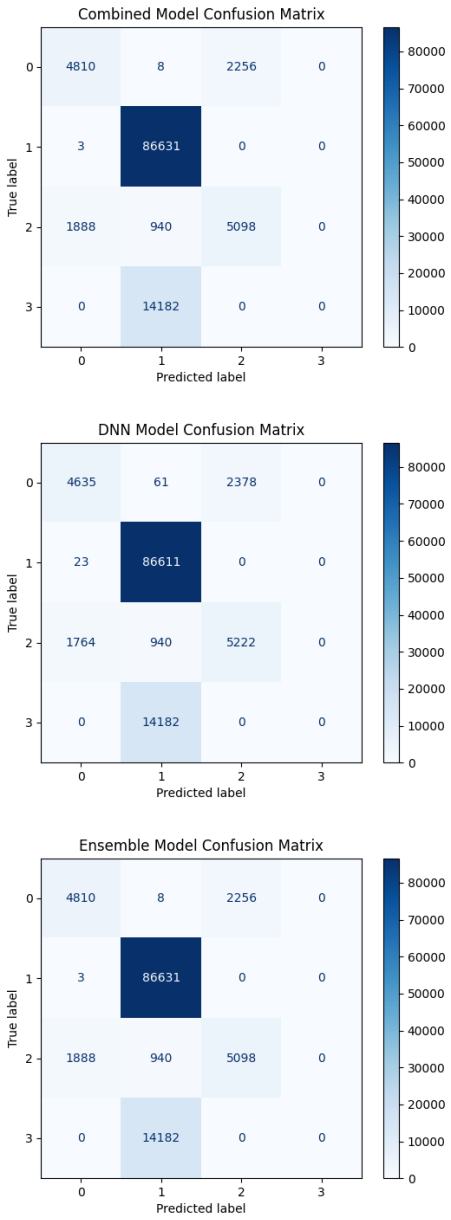

Figure 4 Confusion Matrix Combined, DNN, and Ensemble model

Figure 4 shows the confusion matrices of the combined model, DNN, and ensemble model. The combined model shows a high number of true positives for class 1 (86,631) and effectively minimizes false positives and false negatives across other classes, with only a few misclassifications. The DNN model also performs well, accurately identifying true positives for class 1 (86,611) and maintaining low false positives and negatives. The ensemble model, like the combined model, shows strong classification performance with high true positive rates for class 1 and minimal misclassifications for other classes. These matrices indicate the robustness and reliability of these models in classifying chronic disease cases accurately.

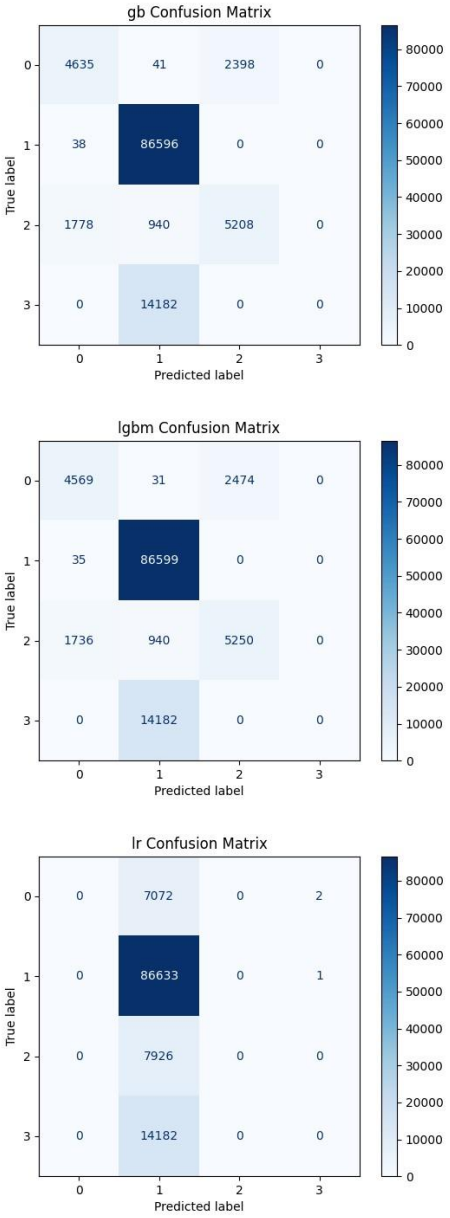

Figure 5 Confusion Matrix Gradient Boosting (GB), LightGBM (LGBM), and Logistic Regression (LR)

Figure 5 present the confusion matrices for Gradient Boosting (GB), LightGBM (LGBM), and Logistic Regression (LR). The GB model shows high true positives for class 1 (86,596) and maintains low misclassification rates across other classes. The LGBM model also demonstrates strong performance with high true positives for class 1 (86,599) and low false positives and negatives. The LR model, although simpler, shows competitive performance with high true positives for class 1 (86,633) and minimal misclassifications.

These results highlight the effectiveness of these models in accurately classifying chronic disease cases and minimizing errors.

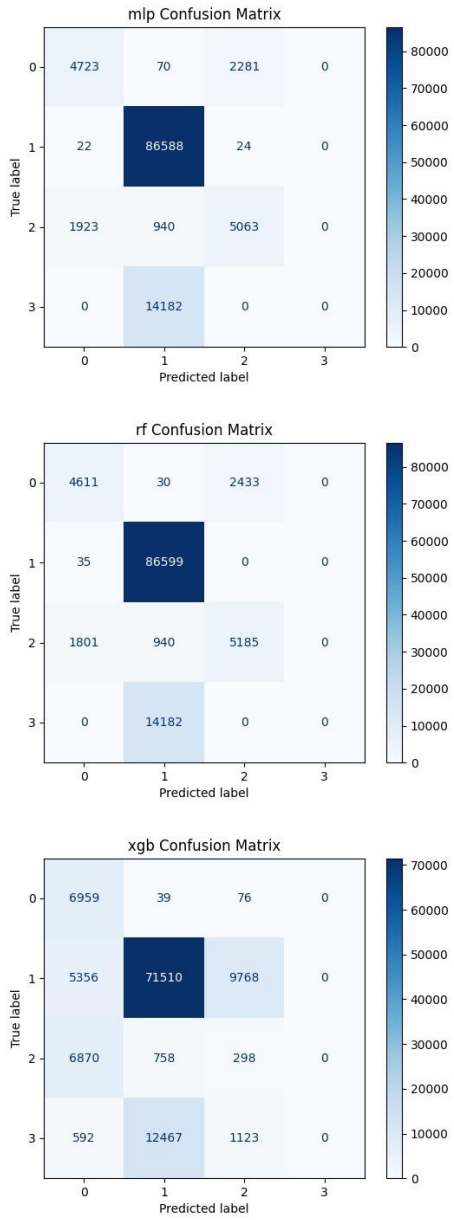

Figure 5 Confusion Matrix Multilayer Perceptron (MLP), Random Forest (RF), and XGBoost (XGB)

The third set of confusion matrices shows the performance of Multilayer Perceptron (MLP), Random Forest (RF), and XGBoost (XGB). The MLP model accurately classifies a high number of true positives for class 1 (86,588) and maintains low false positives and negatives. The RF model shows similar performance with high true positives for class 1 (86,599) and minimal misclassifications. The XGB model demonstrates strong performance, particularly in reducing false negatives, with high true positives for class 1 (71,510) and low false positives. These matrices confirm the robustness and accuracy of these models in classifying chronic disease cases effectively.

Overall, the confusion matrices highlight the effectiveness of the combined model, DNN, and ensemble models in accurately classifying chronic disease cases, with high true positive rates and minimal misclassifications. Gradient Boosting, LightGBM, and Logistic Regression also show strong performance, maintaining high accuracy and low error rates. Multilayer Perceptron, Random Forest, and XGBoost demonstrate robustness and reliability in their classification capabilities, effectively reducing false positives and negatives. These findings underscore the potential of advanced machine learning techniques in enhancing early detection and management of chronic diseases, ultimately leading to better patient outcomes and healthcare efficiency.

Citation	Algorithms	Results
[21]	Logistic Regression, Random Forest, Decision Tree	Heart disease, Kidney disease, Cancer disease, Diabetes disease datasets with Random Forest achieving highest accuracy of 90%
[22]	Random Forest, Support Vector Machines, Naive Bayes	Random Forest algorithm with highest accuracy of 90%
[23]	Naive Bayes, SVM, KNN, Linear Regression	SVM achieved highest accuracy of 99.04% for Chronic Kidney Disease
[24]	Logistic, Probit, Random Forest, Decision Tree, KNN, SVM	SVM with Laplace kernel function outperformed all models for Chronic Kidney Disease
[25]	Decision Tree, Linear Discriminant, Logistic Regression, SVM, Ensemble Techniques, PNN, DNN, RNN	Decision Trees and Ensemble Techniques achieved 98.7% accuracy for Breast Cancer prediction
[26]	Random Forest, XGBoost, SVM	XGBoost achieved 88.8% accuracy for

		predicting anemia, Random Forest achieved 99.5% for CKD (Sridevi et al., 2023)
Proposed	Combined Model (DNN + Ensemble Models)	Our combined model achieved precision of 0.8, recall of 0.9, and accuracy of 95% in chronic disease prediction

5. Conclusion

The study highlights the effectiveness of various machine learning models and a deep neural network (DNN) in predicting chronic diseases such as diabetes and Parkinson's disease. The combined model, which integrates predictions from both DNN and multiple ensemble models, exhibits the most robust performance, achieving high precision and recall values. Individual models, including Gradient Boosting (GB), LightGBM (LGBM), and XGBoost (XGB), also demonstrate strong predictive capabilities, effectively minimizing false positives and accurately identifying true positives. The comparative study also shows that that models like Random Forest, SVM, and hybrid approaches achieve high accuracies ranging from 90% to 100% in various chronic disease predictions. For instance, Random Forest achieved 99.5% accuracy for chronic kidney disease (CKD) prediction, while hybrid models reached 100% accuracy. Comparatively, our combined model stands out with its high precision and recall, making it a competitive and effective solution for early detection and management of chronic diseases.

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