

RELATIVE CONTRIBUTION OF DIABETIC RISK FACTORS AMONG WOMEN TO THE INCIDENCE AND PROGRESSION OF DIABETES: NEURAL NETWORK ANALYSIS AS A MODE OF PREDICTION

Ahed J Alkhatib^{1, 2}, Ghormallah Abdullah Al Ghamdi³, Nawaf Abduallah Mohammad Alrakaf⁴

¹ Department of Legal Medicine, Toxicology and Forensic Medicine, Jordan University of Science & Technology, Jordan

² International Mariinskaya Academy, Department of Medicine and Critical care, Department of Philosophy, Academician secretary of department of Sociology.

³ Ministry of Health, Health- Affairs of Tabuk, KSA

⁴ MOH, Saudi Arabia

ABSTRACT:

Neural network analysis is used to establish predicting models of disease including diabetes to identify risk factors. The objectives of this study were to identify risk factors leading to diabetes and to determine their relative contribution using artificial intelligence as a mode of prediction. The current investigation was led by breaking down dataset as depicted beneath. We chose a dataset posted at Kaggle. The dataset was about diabetes from India. It comprises of 763 female members, of whom 497 had no diabetes, and 266 with type 2 diabetes. We utilized neural network analysis to build mathematical models and to show the arrangement of diabetic risk factors. The importance was considered at α <0.05. The results of the present study showed that the risk factors were ranked according to their relative importance in the following order: Diabetes Pedigree Function, age, glucose, skin thickness, blood pressure, BMI, insulin, and number of pregnancies. Taken together, neural network analysis is effective in establishing mathematical models that can predict risk factors of the diseases.

KEYWORDS: neural network analysis, artificial analysis, diabetes, risk factors, Kaggle.

Corresponding Author: Ahed J Alkhatib

E mail: ahed.alkhatib64@yahoo.com

Indian Research Journal of Pharmacy and Science; 29(2021)2538-2548; Journal Home Page: https://<u>www.irips.in</u> DOI: 10.21276/irjps.2021.8.3.2

INTRODUCTION

Type 2 diabetes mellitus (T2DM) is a noninfectious and ongoing illness ^[1]. T2DM can cause numerous different sicknesses, for example, cardiovascular illness^[2], stroke^[3], visual impairment ^[4], and loss of renal capacity^[5]. The pervasiveness of diabetes is expanding. Around the world, 285 million individuals had diabetes in 2010, contrasted with 422 million out of 2014 [6] and this number is projected to increment to 438 million in 2030^[7] and 592 million out of 2035^[8]. The pervasiveness of diabetes in lowpay or moderate-pay nations is higher than in top level salary nations^[7], and it represents an enormous portion of the mortality and incapacity rate in such networks ^[6]. One reason for the high pervasiveness of diabetes in low-pay nations might be low degrees of information and mindfulness about diabetes [9]

The anticipation of diabetes mellitus is of high significance in all networks. The initial phase in the avoidance of T2DM is to distinguish its danger factors. Reviewing literature showed that variables, for example, age ^[10,11], sex ^[10,12], family background of diabetes ^[11, 13], hypertension ^[14], stoutness ^[10,15], stomach weight ^[16], stress in the working environment or home ^[17,18], a

stationary way of life ^[19,20], smoking ^[21], inadequate leafy foods utilization ^[22], and active work ^[23,24] are hazard factors related with T2DM.

The Diabetes Pedigree Function, pedi, was a particularly intriguing feature used in the study. It included information on diabetes mellitus in relatives as well as the genetic link between those relatives and the patient. This genetic influence measurement gives us an understanding of the hereditary risk of developing diabetes mellitus. It's uncertain how effectively this function predicts the beginning of diabetes, based on the findings in the preceding section ^[25].

Study objectives:

The main objectives of the present study were to identify risk factors leading to diabetes and to determine their relative contribution using artificial intelligence as a mode of prediction.

METHODS:

The current investigation was led by breaking down dataset as depicted beneath. We chose a dataset posted at Kaggle. The dataset was about diabetes from India. It comprises of 763 female members, of whom 497 had no diabetes, and 266 with type 2 diabetes. We utilized neural network analysis to build mathematical models and to show the arrangement of diabetic risk factors. The importance was considered at $\alpha < 0.05$.

The dataset zeroed in on a few danger factors among which is the insulin. Neural network analysis infers deciding forecasts of risk factors, autonomous factors, or covariates on the result, the diabetes. This cycle included three layers, input layer (covariates), stowed away layers, and yield layer (subordinate variable). This cycle varies from conventional measurements in giving expectations that can have effects on the reliant factors.

RESULTS

As shown in table (1), a case processing summary was provided. A total of 540 (89.3%) of cases were included in training, while a total of 65 (10.7%) of cases were included in testing. Valid cases were 605 (100%) cases.

| Table 1: Case Processing Summary | | | |
|----------------------------------|----------|-----|---------|
| | | Ν | Percent |
| Sample | Training | 540 | 89.3% |
| | Testing | 65 | 10.7% |
| Valid | | 605 | 100.0% |
| Excluded | | 163 | |
| Total | | 768 | |

Network information

As illustrated in table (2), the model included three layers. The first layer (input layer) included 8 risk factors: No of pregnancies, glucose, blood pressure, skin thickness, insulin, BMI, diabetes pedigree function, and age. The second layer(s) represented hidden layers as follows: number of hidden layers (1), number of units in hidden layer (10), and the activation function was hyperbolic tangent. The output layer included one dependent variable (the outcome, diabetes), number of units (2), the activation function was soft max, and error function was expressed as a cross-entropy.

| | Table 2: | Network Informatio | n | |
|--------------------|-------------------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|--|
| Input Layer | Factors | 1 | Pregnancies | |
| | | 2 | Glucose | |
| | | 3 | Blood Pressure | |
| | | 4 | Skin thickness | |
| | | 5 | Insulin | |
| | | 6 | BMI | |
| | | 7 | Diabetes Pedigree Function | |
| | | 8 | Age | |
| | Number of Units ^a | 1 | 1069 | |
| Hidden Layer(s) | Number of Hidden Layers | | 1 | |
| | Number of Units i | n Hidden Layer 1 ^a | 10 | |
| | Activation Function | | Hyperbolic tangent | |
| Output Layer | Dependent Variab | oles 1 | outcome | |
| | Number of Units Activation Function | | 2 | |
| | | | Softmax | |
| | Error Function | | Cross-entropy | |
| a. Excluding the b | ias unit | | 1 | |

Model Summary

As illustrated in table (3), model summary

was provided. About 31% was the incorrect

prediction of diabetes in training part. In testing part, the percent incorrect prediction was 29.2%.

| Table 3: Model Summary | | | |
|------------------------|-----------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------|--|
| Training | Cross Entropy Error | 316.633 | |
| | Percent Incorrect Predictions | 31.3% | |
| | Stopping Rule Used | 1 consecutive step(s) with no decrease in error ^a | |
| | Training Time | 0:00:16.59 | |
| Testing | Cross Entropy Error | 30.760 | |
| | Percent Incorrect Predictions | 29.2% | |
| Dependent V | ariable: outcome | · · · · · | |
| a. Error com | putations are based on the testing samp | le. | |

Classification

68.7%, while the overall percent of prediction of diabetes was 70.85 in testing part.

As seen in table (4), in training part, the overall percent for prediction of diabetes

| Sample | Observed | Predicted | | |
|----------|-----------------|-----------|-------|-----------------|
| | | .00 | 1.00 | Percent Correct |
| Training | .00 | 325 | 24 | 93.1% |
| | 1.00 | 145 | 46 | 24.1% |
| | Overall Percent | 87.0% | 13.0% | 68.7% |
| Testing | .00 | 43 | 4 | 91.5% |
| | 1.00 | 15 | 3 | 16.7% |
| | Overall Percent | 89.2% | 10.8% | 70.8% |

Independent Variable Importance

As seen in table (5) and figure (1), the order of risk factors according to the importance came in the following order: Diabetes Pedigree Function (100%), age (92.6%), glucose (89.6%), skin thickness (87.7%), blood pressure (84.4%), BMI (83.3%), insulin (82.7%), and number of pregnancies (81.7%).

| Table 5: Independent Variable Importance | | |
|------------------------------------------|------------|------------|
| | Importance | Normalized |
| | | Importance |
| Diabetes Pedigree Function | .142 | 100.0% |
| Age | .132 | 92.6% |
| Glucose | .128 | 89.6% |
| Skin thickness | .125 | 87.7% |
| Blood Pressure | .120 | 84.4% |
| BMI | .119 | 83.3% |
| Insulin | .118 | 82.7% |
| No of Pregnancies | .116 | 81.7% |

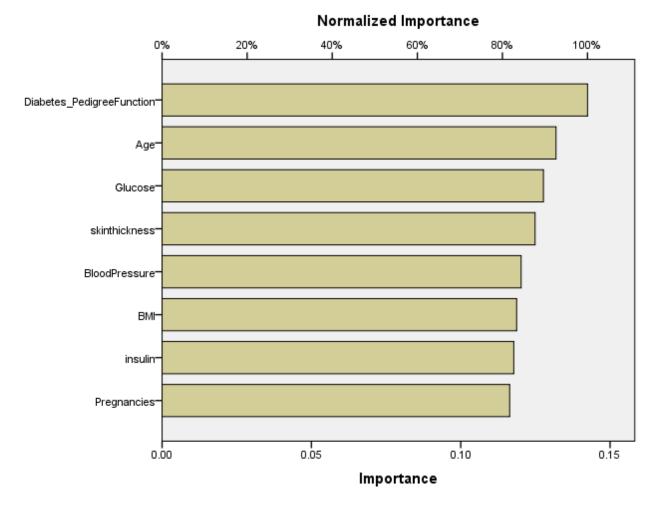


Figure 1: The importance of risk factors for diabetes

DISCUSSION:

The results of this study showed that the most important risk factor for developing diabetes is the Diabetes Pedigree Function. This implies that genetic predisposition is highly affecting the occurrence of diabetes. This was also reported by other studies in which the Diabetes Pedigree Function was one of the main causative agents for diabetes^[26].

Age was shown to be the second important risk factor for diabetes. This is also in agreement with previous studies ^[26]. As the

age increases, diabetes is likely to occur ^{[26,} 27]

The results of this study showed that the glucoselevelwas the third important risk factor for diabetes. Diabetes is measured by glucose and defined by its levels. Glucose level has been reported by other datasets as an important predicting risk factor for diabetes [26-29].

Skin thickness followed the level of glucose regarding the importance of diabetic risk factors. Skin thickness (the contact between

the epidermis and the dermis), which is mostly determined by collagen content, is more evident in DM patients who have been diabetic for more than ten years ^[30]. This could be due to increased collagen crosslinking and lower collage turnover [31, 32]. Jain., et al. ^[33] undertook a study to assess skin and subcutaneous tissue thickness in type 2 diabetic patients, with the hope that this information would be useful during the insulin infusion procedure. Their findings revealed that in people with a BMI of less than 23 kg/m2, the mean skin thickness was higher in males than females at the arm and thigh (P 0.05). Males with a BMI of 19 to 23 kg/m2 had thicker skin around the middle ^[34]. The results showed that blood pressure predicted the occurrence of diabetes. This result confirmed previous studies in which blood pressure could be a risk factor to diabetes ^[26, 35]. T2D may cause hypertension, however the association between T2D and hypertension is unlikely to be causal. These findings highlight the need of maintaining a healthy glycemic profile in the general population, as well as BP screening and monitoring, particularly systolic BP, in T2D patients ^[36].

The results of the present study showed that BMI is one of the important risk factors of diabetes. It has been recently reported that the pre-diagnosis BMI was positively related with microvascular problems in patients with incident type 2 diabetes, although weight loss was associated with a lower risk when compared to stable weight. The links to macrovascular disease were less obvious ^[37].

The level of insulin was shown to be an important predicting factor for diabetes. We have previously shown that the level of insulin increases as the diabetes is progressed [38, 39].

The results of this study showed that number of pregnancies is the least important predicting risk factor of diabetes. It has been reported that pregnancy may lead to gestational diabetes ^[40].

CONCLUSIONS:

The present study showed that several important risk factors were associated with diabetes using neural network analysis. These risk factors were ranked according to their relative importance in the following order: Diabetes Pedigree Function, age, glucose, skin thickness, blood pressure, BMI, insulin, and number of pregnancies.

REFERENCES:

1. Adeyemo AB, Akinwonmi AE. On the diagnosis of diabetes mellitus using artificial neural network model artificial neural network models. Afr J Comput Ict 2011;4:1-8.

2. Tripolt NJ, Narath SH, Eder M, Pieber TR, Wascher TC, Sourij H. Multiple risk factor intervention reduces carotid atherosclerosis in patients with type 2 diabetes. Cardiovasc Diabetol 2014;13:95.

3. Tuttolomondo A, Maida C, Maugeri R, Iacopino G, Pinto A. Relationship between diabetes and ischemic stroke: analysis of diabetes-related risk factors for stroke and of specific patterns of stroke associated with diabetes mellitus. J Diabetes Metab 2015;6:544.

4. World Health Organization. Prevention of blindness from diabetes mellitus: report of a WHO consultation in Geneva, Switzerland,
9-11 November 2005; 2006 [cited 2018 Mar 26]. Available from: http://apps.who.int/iris/handle/10665/43576.

5. Nasri H, Rafiean-Kopaei M. Diabetes mellitus and renal failure: prevention and managment. J Res Med Sci 2015;20:1112-1120.

6. World Health Organization. Global report on diabetes; 2016 [cited 2018 Mar 26]. Available from: http://apps.who.int/iris/bitstre am/10665/204871/1/9789241565257_eng.pdf.

 Rawal LB, Tapp RJ, Williams ED, Chan
 Yasin S, Oldenburg B. Prevention of type
 diabetes and its complications in developing countries: a review. Int J Behav
 Med 2012;19:121-133. 8. Olaniyi EO, Adnan K. Onset diabetes diagnosis using artificial neural network. Int J Sci Eng Res 2014;5:754-759.

9. Soltanian AR, Borzouei S, Afkhami-Ardekan M. Design, developing and validation a questionnaire to assess general population awareness about type II diabetes disease and its complications. Diabetes Metab Syndr 2017;11 Suppl 1:S39-S43.

10. Adhikary M, Chellaiyan VG, Chowdhury R, Daral S, Taneja N, Kumar Das T. Association of risk factors of type 2 diabetes mellitus and fasting blood glucose levels among residents of rural area of Delhi: a cross sectional study. Int J Community Med Public Health 2017;4:1005-1010.

11. Binh TQ, Nhung BT. Prevalence and risk factors of type 2 diabetes in middle-aged women in Northern Vietnam. Int J Diabetes Dev Ctries 2016;36:150-157.

12. Lee YH, Shin MH, Nam HS, Park KS, Choi SW, Ryu SY, et al. Effect of family history of diabetes on hemoglobin A1c levels among individuals with and without diabetes: the dong-gu study. Yonsei Med J 2018;59:92-100.

13. van Zon SK, Snieder H, Bültmann U, Reijneveld SA. The interaction of socioeconomic position and type 2 diabetes mellitus family history: a cross-sectional analysis of the Lifelines Cohort and Biobank Study. BMJ Open 2017;7:e015275.

14. Zhang N, Yang X, Zhu X, Zhao B, Huang T, Ji Q. Type 2 diabetes mellitus unawareness, prevalence, trends and risk factors: National Health and Nutrition Examination Survey (NHANES) 19992010. J Int Med Res 2017;45:594-609.

15. Suhail Khan M, Kumar Singh A, Bihari Gupta S, Saxena S, Maheshwari S. Assessment of risk factors of type 2 diabetes mellitus in an urban population of district bareilly. Indian J Forensic Community Med 2016;3:5-9.

16. Mi SQ, Yin P, Hu N, Li JH, Chen XR, Chen B, et al. BMI, WC, WHtR, VFI and BFI: which indictor is the most efficient screening index on type 2 diabetes in Chinese community population. Biomed Environ Sci 2013;26:485-491.

17. Hackett RA, Steptoe A. Type 2 diabetes mellitus and psychological stress: a modifiable risk factor. Nat Rev Endocrinol 2017;13: 547-560.

18. Pan KY, Xu W, Mangialasche F, Fratiglioni L, Wang HX. Workrelated psychosocial stress and the risk of type 2 diabetes in later life. J Intern Med 2017;281:601-610.

19. Bertoglia MP, Gormaz JG, Libuy M, Sanhueza D, Gajardo A, Srur A, et al. The population impact of obesity, sedentary lifestyle, and tobacco and alcohol consumption on the prevalence of type2 diabetes: analysis of a health population survey in Chile, 2010. PLoS One 2017;12:e0178092.

20. Gao Y, Xie X, Wang SX, Li H, Tang HZ, Zhang J, et al. Effects of sedentary occupations on type 2 diabetes and hypertension in different ethnic groups in North West China. Diab Vasc Dis Res 2017;14:372-375.

21. Maddatu J, Anderson-Baucum E, Evans-Molina C. Smoking and the risk of type 2 diabetes. Transl Res 2017;184:101-107.

22. Beidokhti MN, Jäger AK. Review of antidiabetic fruits, vegetables, beverages, oils and spices commonly consumed in the diet. J Ethnopharmacol 2017;201:26-41.

23. Joseph JJ, Echouffo-Tcheugui JB, Golden SH, Chen H, Jenny NS, Carnethon MR, et al. Physical activity, sedentary behaviors and the incidence of type 2 diabetes mellitus: the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis (MESA). BMJ Open Diabetes Res Care 2016;4: e000185.

24. Smith AD, Crippa A, Woodcock J, Brage S. Physical activity and incident type 2 diabetes mellitus: a systematic review and doseresponse meta-analysis of prospective cohort studies. Diabetologia 2016;59:2527-2545.

<u>https://machinelearningmastery.com/case-study-predicting-the-onset-of-diabetes-within-five-years-part-1-of-3</u>, retrieved in 17-9-2021.
 Rabindra Nath Das. Determinants of Diabetes Mellitus in the Pima Indian Mothers and Indian Medical Students. The Open Diabetes Journal, 2014, 7, 5-13.

27. Knowler WC, Nelson RG, Saad MF, Bennett PH, Pettitt DJ. Determinants of diabetes mellitus in the Pima Indians. Diabetes Care, 1993; 16: 216-27.

28. Dort A, Ballintine EJ, Bennett PH, Miller M. Retinopathy in Pima Indians relationships to glucose level duration of diabetes age at diagnosis of diabetes and age at examination a population with a higher prevalence of diabetes mellitus. Diabetes 1976; 25: 554-60.

29. Pettitt DJ, Knowler WC, Lisse JR, Bennett PH. Development of retinopathy and proteinuria in relation to plasmaglucose concentrations in Pima Indians. Lancet 1980; 4: 1050-2.

30. Collier A., et al. Change in skin thickness associated with cheiroarthropathy in insulindependent diabetes mellitus. British Medical 292 (1986): 936.

31. Brownlee M., et al. Non-enzymatic glycosylation and the pathogenesis of diabetic

complications. Annals of Internal Medicine 101 (1984): 527-537.

32. Kennedy L and Baynes JW. Nonenzymatic glycosylation and the chronic complications of diabetes: an overview. Diabetologia 26 (1984): 93-98.

33. Jain SM., et al. Evaluation of skin and subcutaneous tissue thickness at insulin injection sites in Indian, insulin naïve, type-2 diabetic adult population. Indian Journal of Endocrinology and Metabolism 17 (2013): 864-870.

34. Ahed J Alkhatib., et al. "Skin Thickness can Predict the Progress of Diabetes Type 2: A New Medical Hypothesis". EC Diabetes and Metabolic Research 4.8 (2020): 08-12.

35. Lee Y, Nelder JA, Pawitan Y. Generalized Linear Models with Random Effects (Unified Analysis via H-likelihood). London: Chapman & Hall 2006.

36. Sun D, Zhou T, Heianza Y, Li X, Fan M,
Fonseca VA, Qi L. Type 2 Diabetes and
Hypertension. Circ Res. 2019 Mar
15;124(6):930-937. doi:
10.1161/CIRCRESAHA.118.314487. PMID:

30646822; PMCID: PMC6417940.

37. Polemiti, E., Baudry, J., Kuxhaus, O. *et al.* BMI and BMI change following incident type 2 diabetes and risk of microvascular and macrovascular complications: the EPIC-Potsdam study. *Diabetologia* **64**, 814–825

(2021). <u>https://doi.org/10.1007/s00125-020-</u>05362-7.

38. Alkhatib AJ. Insulin as a predictor of diabetes type 2: a new medical hypothesis. *Adv Obes Weight Manag Control*.
2021;11(1):1-3.

DOI: 10.15406/aowmc.2021.11.00328.

39. Ahed J Alkhatib, New Insights of Diabetes: is it Rational to Initiate Insulin Treatment for Diabetes Type 2 Patients J

Diabetes and Islet Biology 2(1) Doi: 10.31579/ 2641-8975/013.

40. Mdoe MB, Kibusi SM, Munyogwa MJ, et al. Prevalence and predictors of gestational diabetes mellitus among pregnant women attending antenatal clinic in Dodoma region, Tanzania: an analytical cross- sectional study. BMJ Nutrition, Prevention & Health 2021;0. doi:10.1136/ bmjnph-2020-000149

CONFLICT OF INTEREST REPORTED: NIL;

SOURCE OF FUNDING: NONE REPORTED