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An Adaptive Deep Feature Neural Classification Algorithm for Efficient Cardiac Disease Early Risk Identification

Jagadeesan Jayaraman[1,*], Damarapati Leela Rani[2], Aruliah Selvarani[3], Mohammad Aljanabi[4], Manimaran Gopianand[5], Madhavan saravanapandian[6]

[1] Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Aarupadaiveedu Institute of Technology, Vinayaka Mission's Research Foundation, 613104, Tamil Nādu State, India
[2] Department of Electronics and Communication Engineering, School of Engineering, Mohan Babu University (erstwhile Sree Vidyanikethan Engineering College), Tirupati-517102, India
[3] Department of Electronics and Communication Engineering, Panimalar Engineering College, Poonamallee, Chennai-600123, Tamil Nadu, India
[4] Department of Computer, College of Education, Alirqia university, 9985+758, Baghdad, Iraq
[5] Department of Computer Applications, PSNA College of Engineering and Technology, Dindigul-624622, Tamil Nadu, India
[6] Department of Electronics and Communication Engineering, PSR Engineering College, Sivakasi-626140, Tamil Nadu, India

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ABSTRACT

Cloud environments can store data for the medical field with a large-scale system. Importantly, early detection of diseases using clinical data analysis is essential in medicine. Cardiovascular disease has emerged as the primary cause of sudden high-risk health-related fatalities in recent years. Analyzing time series data has become more complex and non-linear, making predictive risk analysis through feature analysis a crucial aspect of data analysis. Feature measures that are not feasible can hurt prediction accuracy and may result in misclassification. To overcome this problem, an improved clinical data analysis model using Adaptive Deep Feature Neural Classification (DFNC) method for cardiac data prediction can identify early risk stages. Time series data can be standardized from the CVD-DS dataset initially selected using a preprocessing model. Correlation with a subset of margins can be obtained using the Cardiac Deficiency Prediction Rate (CDPR). Then, the Support Frequent Scaling Feature Selection (SFSFS) model can extract the feature components based on the CDPR weights. The required features can be obtained using a deep neural classifier based on logistic neurons. The classifier is based on a Recurrent Neural Network (RNN) that deliberates each class category's feature values and Cardia Influence Rate (CIR). Classification, precision and recall can be implemented in the proposed method to provide high prediction accuracy. Additionally, early cardiovascular disease risk prediction accuracy may support early diagnosis management.

1. Introduction

Cloud computing delivers data transaction and storage processing analysis in medical healthcare data. The development of information technology is associated with various problems. I.T. development can be leveraged in many techniques by the healthcare industry. The utilization of

* *Corresponding author.*
E-mail address: jagdeesan@gmail.com

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clinical data involves multiple organizations working together as a unit. In addition, modern research can be accessed through early disease prediction models. Data analysis is a vital fragment of disease prediction through IoT-collected data. Some environments can leverage data in different geographic locations to leverage information across data servers. However, the data dimension operates in another form called big data. In addition, I.T. solutions can access data and generate insights from other sources. Big data is not just about big data; it can also be applied to architecture.

This study focuses on analysing data and developing clinical support systems that can predict heart disease in IoT environments. Although many technologies and strong support systems exist to support such analysis, achieving high disease prediction and analysis efficiency is still a challenge. Several decision models can be implemented to aid healthcare solutions. However, large amounts of big data are needed to support decision-making better. Maintaining such a large amount of data is challenging for hospital departments. However, with access to big data, bio signals from the human body can be analysed to detect and predict various diseases.

A second approach presents a highly efficient Cardiac Health Data Analysis Model (CHDAM) that preserves large volumes of information on a data server. The HCBDA phantom enables monitoring of the patient's current cardiac and anatomical status.

Features are extracted as each packet is received, and the resulting values are fed into a powerful support system. A decision support system that clusters multivariate data using clustering algorithms. In addition, the classification is processed by the Metric Support Frequent Scaling Feature Selection (SFSFS). The system assesses the impact of the disease by categorizing it and provides recommendations for physicians based on these categories.

This research aims to determine the most effective methods for predicting heart disease. By developing a model with high accuracy, we hope to reduce cardiovascular mortality rates. We use various techniques, including DFNC, CDPR, SFFSS and RNN, to achieve the goal of these sections.

We propose to predict disease features effectively with an adaptive RNN. This feature is trained with a hardened RNN. Elements are classified into labelled categories based on clinician risk assessment. Through the adaptive RNN, Diagnosis is made by predicting this category based on risk and prognosis with early treatment. The proposed system expects higher efficiency compared to other conventional methods.

Section 2 of this paper describes related work conducted by various authors using different methods and their predictions. In Section 3, we express our proposed implementation. Section 4 provides an overview of the evaluation results and considerations. Section 5 outlines the paper's conclusions, followed by the reference section.

2. Related work

This section contains various reviews, its methodologies under the healthcare data analysis, and its prediction model based on different methods and author evaluation. That described the problematic factors in assent methodologies.

A novel introduction of the Heart Failure (H.F.) model as discussed in the beginning and H.F. of two Support Vector Machine (SVM) development to assist in cardiac support detection during learning expert system model optimization. Cardiac researchers have layered using a mechanical descriptive vector machine [1]. According to the novel discussed, as the Internet continues to enable intelligent wearable devices, solutions have been developed incorporating Deep Learning to Modified Neural Network (DL-MNN) technology to monitor and predict cardiovascular disease. Unfortunately, surviving a heart attack is almost impossible [2].

These hidden layers associated with the neural networks discussed above suggest cardiac risk identified based on classifiers. If some weights are assigned to this link, the balance features of any perceptron model can be detected, and the input can be identified at other nodes, known as bias [3]. These categories offered density-based clustering methods that can assist in predicting diseases based on symptoms [4]. Based on the described report, the next step is to diagnose chronic diseases by introducing a disease prediction scheme based on Machine Learning (ML) algorithms using Rough K-Means (RKM) clustering [5] to select cluster heads in the adaptive immune system with the abbreviation C.H. It analyses data using unrelated features, which leads to accuracy. ML-mediated coronary heart disease diagnosis can use a Two-Layer Ensemble Classifier (T2EC) for disease prediction. Likewise, NL can integrate prognostic techniques of multiple illnesses, providing a hybrid approach to predicting heart disease [6]. They explained that privacy and security concerns hinder many of the vital traditional advantages of Mobile Cloud Computing (MCC) in healthcare. The most urgent attention is needed to exploit these issues fully and effectively. Health data needs to be protected globally, regionally, and locally. The necessary security procedures are vital to prevent security breaches and compromises from enjoying health care services thoroughly [7].

As a follow-up, healthcare organizations are beginning to embrace cloud computing. Because it offers many advantages over traditional infrastructure. As health data increases in volume, speed and variety, it is necessary to facilitate data exchange and large-scale analysis. Adopting cloud computing relies heavily on ensuring security, availability and disaster recovery measures [8]. Similarly, the Retrieval Storage-Based Indexing Framework (RSIF) was developed to improve collaboration between health data users and service providers accessing cloud storage. Persistent indexing provides consistency, stores repetitive information, and eliminates the need to perform timed lookups. Use DL on all storage instances to characterize data growth and update constraints. Through conditional evaluation, the learning process solves indexing and ranking approximations for storage and retrieval [9]. However, data security in the cloud is a significant concern. Block chain technology can provide CSPs with robust security for essential information by encrypting data using private and public platforms [10].

Also, adolescents and young adults prefer communication between patients and healthcare providers via Text Messaging (TM). Integration of TM with disease systems enabled early employment of health interventions and promoted positive changes in behaviour. However, costs, complicated reporting schemes, and complex communications hinder the widespread adoption of TM. A low-cost and flexible TM reporting system (REMOTES) was developed using an affordable cloud-based service with bidirectional communication, custom reporting tables and scalable and secure data storage [11].

For illustration, e-health cloud systems offer an opportunity for improvement in the efficiency of medical care and the quality of life of individuals. Unfortunately, their widespread adoption and use have hampered security and privacy. Much research has focused on protecting Electronic Health Records (EHR) data privacy. However, these works had two significant limitations. First, it only supports "black or white" access control policies. Second, it is vulnerable to inference attacks [12]. A new fuzzy rule-based medical service classifier of the array can be presented as the next step. This includes creating, retrieving and processing big data for the first cluster in a cloud environment. A fuzzy rule-based classifier can organize data in a proposed manner to efficiently process classification results. Jindal *et al*., [13] described how mobile cloud computing (MCC) technologies are widely used in various healthcare applications and what to consider when designing MCC for healthcare scenarios. Describes typical architectural and design considerations. Several factors affecting the effectiveness of MCC have been identified, with potentially disastrous consequences for health care. In an innovative research by Wang and Jin [14], they found that privacy-safe patient health data-sharing program that qualifies HSPs to enter and search PHI files vigorously and capably. They used searchable encryption techniques, including keyword scoping and multiple keyword searches. The suggested privacy-preserving equivalence-testing protocol allows various numerical comparison searches on the encrypted data. They also used searchable coding techniques such as keyword scoping and multi-key searching [15].

A privacy-preserving balance protocol that allowed various numerical comparison searches on encrypted data was suggested by Wang *et al*., [16]. Wireless connectivity can be integrated with mobile devices and cloud platforms to improve the system. As a whole, a “wearable patch mobile cloud" hybrid computing architecture was proposed. It balances the performance of embedded computing with power consumption for cross-layer optimizations. Further research by Liu *et al*.,[17] demonstrated that a clinical system architecture based on Dual Cloud Digital Health (Cloud DH) can be described. It was an innovative, general, and extensible framework. CloudDTH enables connectivity and integration between the clinical physical and virtual space. Therefore, an innovative digital twin healthcare (DTH) concept can be discussed and implemented through the proposed DTH model [17].

Zhang *et al*., [18] proposed a concept to describe Searchable Encryption (S.E.) in the context of medical applications, S.E. Use cases in medicine as four scenarios. Four speakers provided a comprehensive overview of standard S.E. technologies from Searchable Symmetric Encryption (SSE), Public Key Encryption Key Search (PEKS) and Attribute-Based Encryption Key Search (ABKS). They are required for various EHR acquisition scenarios. In a similar research, Abrar *et al*., [19] identified the critical assets of the Healthcare Information System (HIS), place the integration of security features of the cloud computing model and evaluate their impact on the HIS. The risk exposure in the cloud computing model can be assessed by conducting critical analysis research. Similarly, based on these, the novel framework suggests prioritizing and selecting test cases through design methods that demonstrate increased fault detection. First, the observer method determined test cases in sequentially accessed components. Next, prioritize your test cases according to several strategies. The proposed framework was experimentally validated and compared with other techniques [20].

In a novel research by Yang *et al*., [21], they suggested that healthcare professionals can be approached to protect patient medical information appropriately. This represents a key issue in creating an environment for reliable patient information exchange. Additionally, with Med Share, healthcare providers and administrators can control patient data. In addition, a flexible and cost-effective, cloud-based healthcare environment can be created while ensuring security and privacy. Government can provide a secure and practical framework for electronic medical record systems. Then, a multi-authority network can implement cyber text-Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (CP-ABE) and access control policies through a layered architecture to provide fine-grained access to the cyber text policy [22]. A multi-authority attribute-based signature (ABS)-based, lightweight, privacy-preserving healthcare cloud medical service access scheme called LPP-MSA can also be described based on this claim. The proposed method significantly reduces computational overhead using online/offline signatures and server-assisted proof algorithms [23].

However, compared to traditional approaches such as monoliths and service-oriented architectures (SOA) described in these sections, application design in healthcare can enhance services and improve remote access to services. They investigated the impact of scaling and so on. All departments, health system. Coordinate with each other. That is why they needed simple, easy-to-use healthcare systems that are easy to plan and develop, cheap to maintain and flexible to test [24-25]. It has been discussed that the most critical and challenging work in the medical field is accurate diabetes prediction and type classification to obtain appropriate diagnoses for patients [26].

3. Proposed methodology

In this section, cardiac disease prediction method analysis, the physical healthcare records are observed from patients through the healthcare environment. This study advocates using adaptive deep feature neural classification for early risk detection and extended clinical data analysis for cardiac data prediction. The feature selection and classification process identifies the patients' risk from the cardiac rate. Spectral mapping support can often be used to improve the output of RNN according to the sigmoid manipulation function and classify the results based on it.

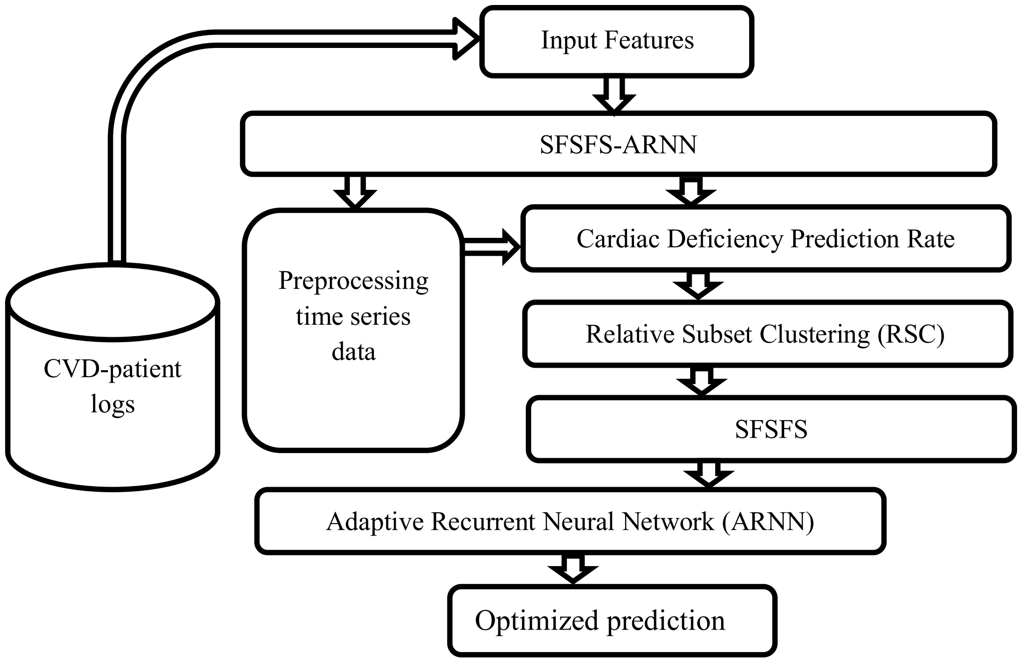

Fig. 1. Proposed Architecture Illustration (SFSFS-ARNN)

In this category, a pre-processing method can be implemented to optimize the standardization of time series data obtained from the CVD-DS dataset, as shown in Figure 1. This process the invalid data, empty fill, and range of medical margin to check the data projection. A feature estimation RSC method can estimate CDPR and identify features associated with subset nodes. Then, their components can be extracted based on the CDPr weights using a cross-scale feature selection model. Next, a logistic neuron-based deep neural classifier can obtain the selected attributes. These can construct a feed-forward feature value RNN classifier for each class and predict the CIR.

3.1 Cardiac Deficiency Prediction Rate (CDPR)

In this step, pre-processed data can be extrapolated from hazard ratios to estimate CVD attribute outcome ratios from time-series data. The system can retrieve information related to the level of risk and determine the average maximum clinical marginal risk value associated with the disease-missing factor for each entry.

Algorithm
Start
Step 1: Import the composed cardiac dataset C_d

Step 2: Read the dataset C_d
Step 3: For i=1 to N, do // N is the number of features fromC_d, and i is the iterative
Calculate the feature weight factor (F_w) for every feature from C_d
$F_w = -\sum_{i=1}^{N} p(\ C_{di}) ln_2 \left(p(\ C_{di})\right)$ //p is the probability
Sort the dataset
End For
Step 4: Compute the disease relation feature F_r
$F_r = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{(F_{wi}-E_{fi})^2}{E_{fi}}$
Step 5: Calculate the conceptual feature links CF_l
$CF_l = \sum_{i=1}^{N} |C(F_r)|^2$
Update feature set
Stop

The above algorithm stages can select the cardiac margin value using the most significant CDPr. The first stage is to calculate every feature weight and then compute the relation feature s based on feature weight F_{wi} and expected feature E_f of I features. It measures the inadequacy of patient values and compares these diseases with borderline clinical risk factors. Impact factors must be averaged to obtain the absolute mean and predicted heart rates. Here let us assume $C(F_r)$ is the maximum confidence of the features.

3.2 Relative Subset Clustering (RSC)

We have implemented a feature-depth similarity clustering method that effectively manages these tasks to accomplish this. This method measures the similarity of features at multiple levels, and the process RSC can be calculated as the number of samples in a class near resemblance and the total number of models in any category. Also, the number of features available will be almost the same. Additionally, samples are assigned to individual disease classes and grouped into clusters. Then, the RSC metric is calculated to evaluate the clustering method.

Algorithm:
Input: Data Set Bds
Output: Cluster Set Cs
Start
Read Data Set Bds.
Initialize number of clusters Nc = $\sum \text{Disease Classes}$
For each disease class n
Assign random samples.
C.S. (n) = $\sum \text{Random Sample (Bds)}$
End
For each sample s
For each cluster c
For each cluster sample cls
Compute Feature Deficiency FDR = $\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{size(S)} S(i).value == Cls(i).value}{size(S)}$
End for
Compute cumulative feature depth similarity CFDS.

CFDS = $\sum_{i=1}^{size(c)} C(i).FDR \Big/ size(C)$

End for

Cluster c = Select the cluster with maximum CFDS.

Index the data point to the selected cluster.

End

Stop

The preceding techniques demonstrate how big data is clustered according to feature similarities. Comparison can be measured concerning the depth of feature similarity between data points through different clusters. Depth can be calculated based on feature similarity values to select distinct clusters and index data points.

3.3 Support Frequent Scaling Feature Selection Model (SFSFS)

In this category, the maximum output can be estimated with the scaled weights to adjust the feature weights. The scaling factors evaluate the feature dependencies to combine the trained and threshold margins, creating the desired prediction level. These results are repeated until the cross-over decision tree makes the feature decision nodes which return the desired result. This optimization feature selects the most important and closest components to select input processing. The search formulation minimizes this overall error by matching standard features of neural networks with conventional weighted sum discrimination.

Algorithm

Input: All scaling cluster Scl1

Output: Selected features SFSFS.

Step 1: compute the initialization CDPR and RSC

Step 2: Compute the capable feature Q_i from Frs ←Scl1

Identify the ruled upper bound from the nearest moving average period.

Q_i←Fs (Selective term)

Add the cluster set Cs = ∑Cs (Ai) + Frs

Step 3: Estimating thresholds for multiple individual features

For each selected features

Assessment of the centroid cluster depth value From Qi.

Evaluate Absolute mean (A_m)= $\frac{\sum \mathrm{Frs(Ws(Qi)}}{\mathrm{average{=}Frs}}$

End for

Calculate the closest relative characteristic weight from the max weight.

Obtain class (Ai)

Step 4: Divide the class weight feature Cri

Compute disease-prone factor DPF.

PDF = $\sum_{i=1}^{Size(C(dc))} Features(C((\quad)DCI) \equiv Features(s) \Big/ size(C(dc))$

Choose class C with maximum DPF.

For each treatment for class C

Compute success rate S.R. = $\sum_{i=1}^{size(C)} C(i).State == Success \Big/ size(C)$

End
Recommendation = Sort the treatment according to success rate.
Step 5Evaluate R as a cluster group in relation.
Step 6: Qi+→Frs (m) +Cri
Step 7: Entire attribute cluster group

This algorithm chooses the optimal factors by attaining the feature based on Cardiac Disease Infection Rate (CDIR). The features have limited margins based on the infection rate. All the threshold margins are recursively verified to predict the margins depending on the standard rate. The neural input layers take the input feature weights and train them into hidden layers by comparing the relevant class to predict exact margins based on the course. The scaling actors are defined by the success rates expected by the risk factors of associated weight.

3.4 Adaptive Recurrent Neural Network (ARNN)

This stage of adaptive deep neural using RNN was intended; the classifier establishes the effects of the patient's clinical references and the risk of that classified class based on the sigmoid activation procedure. The process of distributing weights to the hidden layers of a cluster is initiated by differential weight control, which utilizes activation functions for this purpose. The activation function trains neurons and adjusts the resulting clusters to a mean depth value. There are neurological algorithms that work with synthetic neurons that activate functions, including hidden layers, for binary classification problems.

Algorithm
Initialize the weight dependency factor of Rn
If check every input neuron {
For each Rn in a neuron, get6 can provide sigmoidal functions. {
Each input neuron is masked, activated and tuned, z {
Oz=Jz
The neuron can supply all latencies except the sigmoid, i {
$J_i = \sum_j S_{ji} O_j + O_i$
$O_i = \frac{1}{1+e^{-J_i}}$
For each unit in the output layer i
$Err_i = O_i(1 - O_i)(R_i - O_i)$
After each transfer, the next hidden layer forms a layer and transfers the actual weights.
$Err_i = o_i\,(1 - O_i) \sum_l Err_l\, s_{il}$
For every weight s_{ji} in M {
$\Delta s_{ji} = (l) Err_j o_j$
$s_{ji} = s_{ji} + \Delta s_{ji}\}$
For every bias θ_i in M {
$\Delta\theta_i = (k) Err_i$
Return class by weights based on the risk factor Cls←Min (CV), Hrisk (CV)

For each nerve, perceptron uses activating activity. Therefore, the recurrent neurons distribute weights close to the properties of the cluster groups, forming optimal classes based on the neural architecture. The activation function layers can be divided by assigning varying weights to the perceptron's to provide weighted inputs to each neuron. Heart types are classified based on their cognitive types, which are relative weights assigned to each classification to each classification.

4. Results and Discussion

In this section, the accuracy of the performance of different classifiers can be achieved using the UCI database found in the test system. The effectiveness of the training and testing methods can be learned by following the rules of the confusion matrix. The values for the execution considerations are listed in Table 2. Furthermore, the proposed methods can be implemented under different parameters to perform performance evaluation on cardiac datasets from health monitoring data. This approach evaluates the ability of different characteristics and their corresponding values to predict the occurrence of a disease. The assessment results are analysed in combination with the evaluation of other methods.

Table 1
Processed with Environmental and Analysis

Analysis	Assessment
Dataset name	Cardiac CVD-DS
Surroundings Cloud	Amazon web service
Conformation	Txlarge core2
Implement and Language	Jupiter notebook, Python.
No feature count	30

This section shows that the performance of various techniques can be evaluated using Table 1. Therefore, this approach can be obtained with multiple constraints to calibrate the performance. This section outlines the specific results that were obtained.

Table 2
Performance of Sensitivity and Specificity

Sensitivity and Specificity in %						
No Registers/ Techniques	50 Register		100 Register		200 Register	
	Sensitivity	Specificity	Sensitivity	Specificity	Sensitivity	Specificity
SVM	67.6	65.3	72.8	74.2	78.5	83.3
DL-MNN	71.3	99.6	75.2	79.6	86.4	86.5
T2EC	76.8	77.9	81.3	83.8	88.8	88.9
SFSFS-ARNN	84.7	85.8	87.5	88.9	92.8	95.6

As shown in Table 2, the performance was measured in terms of sensitivity and Specificity by the different methods. The SFSFS-ARNN algorithm proposed here exhibits better accuracy and recall performance than other techniques.

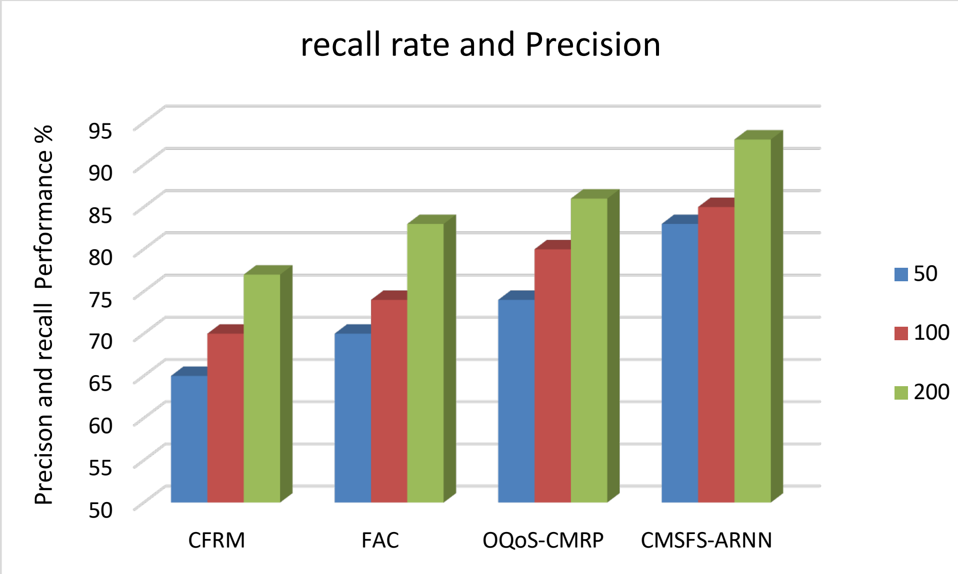

Fig. 2. Performance of Precision and recall rate

Figure 2 illustrates the precision and recall performance of the different approaches. SFSFS-ARNN outperforms other methods regarding the accuracy and recalls across all proposed conditions.

Table 3
Performance of Precision in Clustering

Cluster Precision vs No of Patients			
Num of Register/techniques	60 Register	130 Register	210 Register
SVM	79.4	82.5	87.9
DL-MNN	81.5	84.9	92.8
T2EC	85.3	89.6	94.5
SFSFS-ARNN	88.6	92.3	97.2

In this section, clustering accuracy can be achieved to obtain data for predicting diseases, as stated in Table 3. Here, the proposed SFSFS-ARNN method can achieve higher accuracy than other methods.

The performance of clusters generated via various methods is depicted in Figure 3. The SFSFS-ARNN method proposed has been shown to achieve high accuracy in clustering for various other illnesses.

As presented in Table 4, the disease prediction performance and accuracy can be measured considering different disease classes, and better results can be obtained.

Table 4
Performance of Disease Prediction

Disease Prediction vs Num of Diseases			
Num of Proceedings /techniques	60 Proceedings	120 Proceedings	230 Proceedings
SVM	62.3	71.7	77.8
DL-MNN	66.7	74.3	79.3
T2EC	69.6	77.4	81.4
SFSFS-ARNN	72.2	79.9	83.6

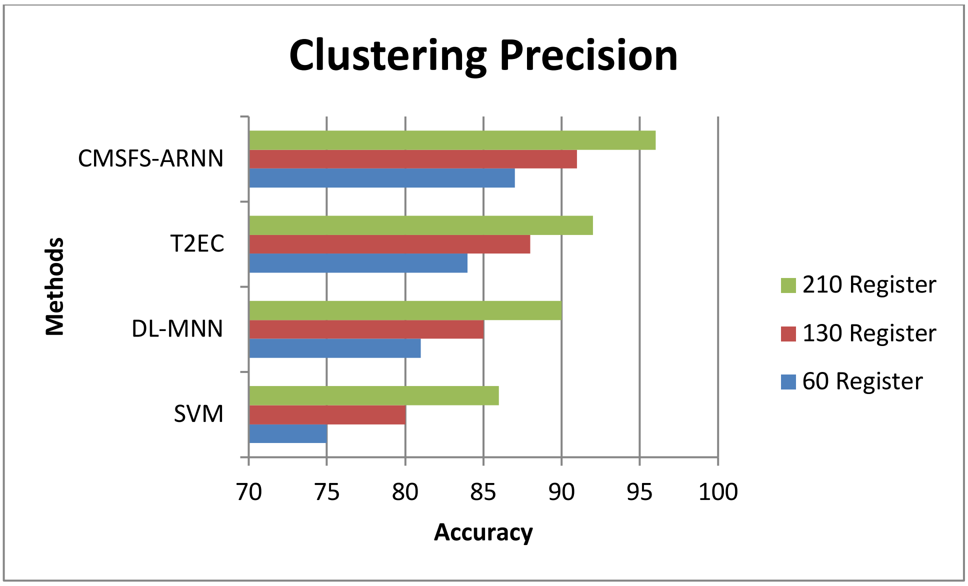

Fig. 3. Performance of Accuracy in Clustering

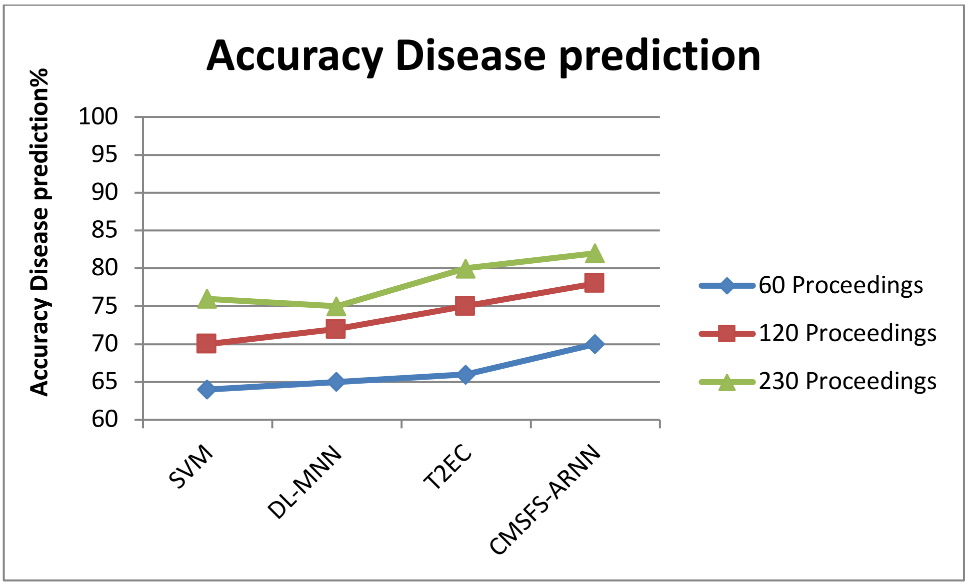

Fig. 4. Presentation of disease prediction accuracy

As shown in Figure 4, the prediction accuracy generated by different methods was measured. In each category, the proposed hybrid approach outperforms other methods in terms of disease prediction.

Table 5
Performance of False Rate

False Classification FR vs No of Diseases			
Number of Archives /techniques	50 Archives	100 Archives	200 Archives
SVM	30.2	24.6	19.6
DL-MNN	34.1	26.2	21.5
T2EC	30.3	23.1	17.6
SFSFS-ARNN	27.4	19.2	14.4

Table 5 presents the measured percentage of misclassification for the various methods. The proposed SFSFS-ARNON method's accuracy could be higher than other methods.

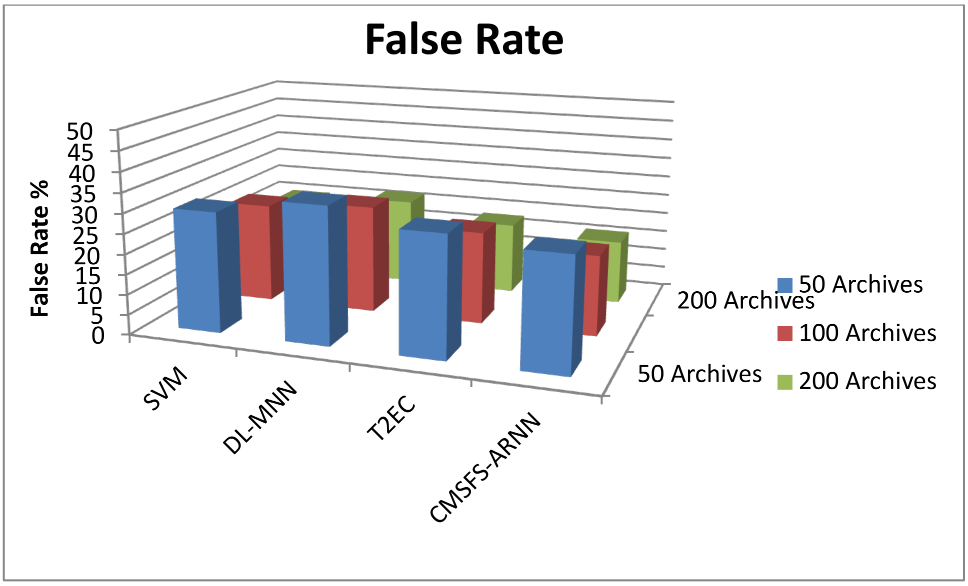

Fig. 5. Performance of False Classification Rate

As shown in Figure 5, the predictive accuracy of diseases generated by different methods can be measured. These have higher disease predictions than other procedures of the proposed SFSFS-ARNN method.

5. Conclusion

The proposed system can determine cardiac types by collecting physiological data from observed individuals. Improved cardiac data predictions for early risk identification can be addressed using adaptive deep feature neural classification for clinical data analysis. Testing can be done using a classifier model trained from a relational database of cardiac databases. Trained against cardiac databases and tested against real-time databases used for classification, the sampled data can be analyzed with different classification algorithms for further accuracy and precision. Based on the findings, the suggested DL model displays higher classification performance accuracy than SVM and other techniques. Implementing the proposed SFSFS-ARNN deep neural-based data analysis proves the efficient result and accuracy in precision, recall, clustering, and prediction rate. This archives higher prediction as well compared to the other system.

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