



**KENNESAW STATE**  
UNIVERSITY

# **Survey on Algorithms for Personalized Patient Health Informatics and Diagnosis**

**CS 6045**  
**Advanced Algorithms**

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## I. ABSTRACT

The goal of this research is to provide an analysis on the current algorithms used for detection and diagnosis of disease or illness. This research includes discussing the 4 primary approaches to the development of these type algorithms: Supervised Learning, Unsupervised Learning, Statistical Modeling, and custom-made algorithms that utilize some combination of both. The discussion will include each algorithms benefits, and how they fit into the larger scheme of overall patient diagnosis. This research also covers the primary data sources for collecting anonymous patient data for developing and training machine learning classification algorithms, the use and considerations of this data, and results of each approach.

## II. DATA COLLECTION

Collecting high quality data to train models on is the first step to any approach. There are several sources that one can use to collect data ethically. Here are 3 common sources:

MEDICAL IMAGING ARCHIVES (PACS): These archives contain anonymous medical images such as x-rays, scans, MRIS, and other digital medical images. This source would be useful for training a model in machine vision to detect anomalies or cancers in a radiology environment.

EXAMPLES:

<https://www.cancerimagingarchive.net/>

<https://grand-challenge.org/>

<https://www.cancerimagingarchive.net/browse-collections/>

ELECTRONIC HEALTH RECORDS (EHRs): Electronic health records databases include both structured and unstructured data and can vary by source. Some form of normalization is probably required.

EXAMPLES:

<https://starr.stanford.edu/data-types/electronic-health-record>

<https://www.nature.com/articles/s41597-022-01899-x>

LAB RESULTS DATABASES: This type of data consists of lab results from blood tests, stool tests, urine tests, etc. From my experience these are the hardest to get reliable data from as labs are often private organizations.

<https://pmc.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/articles/PMC2929542/>

SKLEARN: The algorithms in this paper will utilize SKLearn's openly available datasets for training models. This is simply the easiest and most compatible data for the small scale examples in this paper.

<https://scikit-learn.org/stable/datasets.html#datasets>

### Feature reduction Algorithm:

This algorithm utilizes a divide and conquer approach to reduce the number of features while maintain accuracy. This allows for the model to run more efferently as it no longer has to process a high dimensionality of data. The time complexity of the feature reduction can be considered  $m (\log \text{ reg model epochs}) * n (\text{size of data}) * \log(n) (\text{reduction})$  or  **$O(m*n*\log(n))$**

**NOTE: While this was implemented for demonstration purposes, all results show model outputs when trained on the full feature set to ensure consistency and accuracy in the results and comparisons. This section is just to provide an alternative more streamlined dataset with reduced features.**

```

def divide_and_conquer_feature_selection(X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test, features,
target_num_features):
    if len(features) <= target_num_features:
        return features

    # Divide the features into two
    mid = len(features) // 2
    left = features[:mid]
    right = features[mid:]

    # Evaluate
    aleft = helper(X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test, left)
    aright = helper(X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test, right)

    # Keep the better half
    selected = left if aleft > aright else right

    # Recurse
    return divide_and_conquer_feature_selection(X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test,
selected, target_num_features)

def helper(X_train, y_train, X_test, y_test, feature_subset):
    model = LogisticRegression(max_iter=10000, solver='liblinear')
    model.fit(X_train[feature_subset], y_train)
    y_pred = model.predict(X_test[feature_subset])
    return accuracy_score(y_test, y_pred)

```

END OF ALGORITHM

### III. APPROACH

There are 4 general approaches that will be covered in this paper. These include Supervised Learning, Unsupervised Learning, Deep Learning, Statistical Modeling, and Custom Algorithms.

#### 1. SUPERVISED LEARNING:

Supervised learning algorithms utilize datasets with the correct output each data point labeled. By utilizing labeled data, the model can be trained Via backpropagation and can be used on new unseen patient data. Some applications of this type of model include image analysis, radiology, analyzing lab results, and suggesting treatments to certain ailments. Some examples of supervised learning include logistical regression state vector machines and neural networks. By setting the output classes of a neural network to all the possible diseases being tested for, a sufficiently deep neural network utilizing logistical regression may be able to predict diagnosis once trained.

#### 2. UNSUPERVISED LEARNING:

Unsupervised learning is similar to supervised learning with the difference being that data points are not labeled. In this way the model must group data and generate classes based on similarity this type of model can be used to detect anomalies and also classify results with predefined groups. An example of this type of algorithm is a K-Means algorithm. With sufficient generated groups, the model could predict the output of a given datapoint by finding its closest group. It could also detect new groups based on previously unseen trends period

### 3. STATISTICAL MODELING:

Statistical modeling is a more classical approach to medical diagnosis. These types of models take into account the patients age, symptoms, and medical history to make predictions of what the diagnosis may be via probability. By asking the patient a series of questions, and having storing the conditional probability of each, the model can predict with some accuracy the general diagnosis of a patients illness.

### 4. CUSTOM ALGORITHMS:

In most cases, when trying to create a system that can reliably predict the diagnosis, a combination of the previous 3 approaches is used. By integrating the three approaches, we can reliably predict the diagnosis of a patient to aid in medical treatment. The tradeoff of this approach is it is the most computationally / time demanding as it would require the use of 3 or more models. These algorithms will not be covered in this paper as they encompass a wide range of solutions.

## IV. SUPERVISED LEARNING ALGORITHM

This section contains an example of a basic supervised learning algorithm that could be used to predict if a sample is malignant. The dataset used contains 569 samples classed as either Malignant or Benign, with 212 samples the former and 357 the latter. This algorithm trains a neural network classifier on the data logs the accuracy of the algorithm.

### Complexity:

Determining the complexity of a supervised learning algorithm is not very straight forward depending on the type of algorithm. For this implementation, we can consider training and testing as 2 separate events and thus their complexities are distinct.

Training: Training the algorithm consists of passing the dataset through the network and back-progating to update weights. ( $2n$ ). We do this on all features ( $k$ ) and repeat this as many times as we need to reach our target epochs ( $m$ ). Thus, the time complexity of **training** this supervised algorithm is  $O(m(n*k))$  where  $n = \text{len}(\text{dataset})$ ,  $k = \text{len}(\text{features})$ , and  $m = \text{len}(\text{epochs})$ .

Prediction: Predicting if a sample is malignant or not does not require any use of the dataset  $n$ . The algorithm utilizes the learned weights to pass the data once through the network and arrive at a result.

Thus the time complexity of **prediction** is linear, at  $O(1)$ .

### Dataset:

[https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.datasets.load\\_breast\\_cancer.html](https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.datasets.load_breast_cancer.html)

### Guides used:

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=z1oDlznvgvI0>

<https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=EAGeDyygilM>

```
class BinaryClassifier(nn.Module):
    def __init__(self, input_size):
        super(BinaryClassifier, self).__init__()
        self.fc1 = nn.Linear(input_size, 64) # layer 1
        self.relu1 = nn.ReLU()
        self.fc2 = nn.Linear(64, 32) # layer 2
        self.relu2 = nn.ReLU()
        self.fc3 = nn.Linear(32, 1) # layer 3 (output layer)
```

```

        self.sigmoid = nn.Sigmoid()          # map to value between 0 and 1

    def forward(self, x):
        # forward propagate through network
        out = self.fc1(x)
        out = self.relu1(out)
        out = self.fc2(out)
        out = self.relu2(out)
        out = self.fc3(out)
        out = self.sigmoid(out)
        return out

class Supervised:
    def __init__(self):
        self.classifier = BinaryClassifier(30)
        self.load_data()
        self.train_model()
    def load_data(self):
        # Load the dataset
        cancer = load_breast_cancer()
        X = pd.DataFrame(cancer.data, columns=cancer.feature_names)
        y = cancer.target
        # grab features

        self.features = list(X.columns)
        # Split the data into train, test, and validation sets
        # lines 19 and 20 borrowed from sklearn website
        xtrain, xtest, ytrain, y_test = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2,
random_state=42)
        xtrain, xvalidation, ytrain, yvalidation = train_test_split(xtrain, ytrain,
test_size=0.25, random_state=42) # 0.25 of 0.8 is 0.2
        # normalize the data
        # https://scikit-
learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.preprocessing.StandardScaler
        self.scaler = StandardScaler()
        xtrain = self.scaler.fit_transform(xtrain)
        xvalidation = self.scaler.transform(xvalidation)
        xtest = self.scaler.transform(xtest)
        # Convert data to tensors
        self.xtrain = torch.tensor(xtrain, dtype=torch.float32)
        self.xvalidation = torch.tensor(xvalidation, dtype=torch.float32)
        self.xtest = torch.tensor(xtest, dtype=torch.float32)
        self.ytrain = torch.tensor(ytrain, dtype=torch.long)
        self.yvalidation = torch.tensor(yvalidation, dtype=torch.long)
        self.y_test = torch.tensor(y_test, dtype=torch.long)

        return self.xtrain, self.xvalidation, self.xtest, self.ytrain,
self.yvalidation, y_test, self.scaler, self.features

```

```

# divide and conquer reduce:

def divide_and_conquer_feature_selection(self, xtrain, ytrain, xtest, ytest,
features, num_features):
    if len(features) <= num_features:
        return features

    # Divide the features into two
    mid = len(features) // 2
    left = features[:mid]
    right = features[mid:]

    # Evaluate
    aleft = self.helper(xtrain, ytrain, xtest, ytest, left)
    aright = self.helper(xtrain, ytrain, xtest, ytest, right)

    # Keep the better half
    selected = left if aleft > aright else right

    # Recurse
    return self.divide_and_conquer_feature_selection(xtrain, ytrain, xtest, ytest,
selected, num_features)

def helper(self, xtrain, ytrain, xtest, ytest, feature_subset):
    model = LogisticRegression(max_iter=10000, solver='liblinear')
    model.fit(xtrain[feature_subset], ytrain)
    y_pred = model.predict(xtest[feature_subset])
    return accuracy_score(ytest, y_pred)

def train_model(self, epochs=100, learning_rate=0.001):

    loss = nn.BCELoss()
    optimizer = optim.Adam(self.classifier.parameters(), lr=learning_rate)

    # Train the model
    val accuracies = []
    for epoch in range(epochs):
        # Forward propagation
        pred = self.classifier(self.xtrain)
        loss = loss(pred, self.ytrain.float().view(-1, 1))
        # Backward propagation and optimization
        optimizer.zero_grad()
        loss.backward()
        optimizer.step()

```

```

        # Evaluate on validation set
        with torch.no_grad():
            y_pred_val = self.classifier(self.xvalidation)
            y_pred_val_binary = (y_pred_val > 0.5).long() # Threshold at 0.5
            val_accuracy = accuracy_score(self.yvalidation.numpy(),
y_pred_val_binary.numpy())
            val_accurrencies.append(val_accuracy)

    return val_accurrencies

def predict(self, data):
    pred = self.classifier(data)
    pred = (pred>0.5).int().tolist()
    return sum(pred,[])

def evaluate_model(self):
    # Evaluate the model on the test set
    with torch.no_grad():
        y_pred_test = self.classifier(self.xtest)
        y_pred_test_binary = (y_pred_test > 0.5).long() # Threshold at 0.5
        #test_accuracy = accuracy_score(self.y_test, y_pred_test_binary.numpy())
    # variables for confusion matrix
    tp =0
    fp= 0
    fn=0
    tn=0
    for i in range(len(y_pred_test_binary)):
        if y_pred_test_binary[i] == 1:
            if self.y_test[i] == 1:
                tp+=1
            else:
                fp+=1
        else:
            if self.y_test[i] == 1:
                fn+=1
            else:
                tn+=1
    #print("fn", fn ," fp ", fp , " tn " , tn , " tp ", tp)
    return classification_report(self.y_test, y_pred_test_binary.numpy())

if __name__ == "__main__":
    supervised = Supervised()
    supervised.predict(supervised.xtest)
    # Evaluate the model
    print(supervised.evaluate_model())

```

END OF ALGORITHM

**RESULTS:**

Metric	Benign	Malignant	Accuracy	Macro F1	Weighted F1
Precision	0.9855	0.9333	0.9649	0.9630	0.9651
Recall	0.9577	0.9767			
F1-Score	0.9714	0.9545			
Count	43	71			

Figure 1. Supervised Learning Results

**CONFUSION MATRIX:**

**Note: All confusion matrices in this report were generated via**  
<https://www.damianoperri.it/public/confusionMatrix/>

Supervised Learning Algorithm			
OUTPUT \ TARGET	Benign	Malignant	SUM
Benign	68 59.65%	1 0.88%	69 98.55% 1.45%
Malignant	3 2.63%	42 36.84%	45 93.33% 6.67%
SUM	71 95.77% 4.23%	43 97.67% 2.33%	110 / 114 96.49% 3.51%

Figure 2. Supervised Learning Confusion Matrix



## V. UNSUPERVISED LEARNING ALGORITHM

This section contains an example of a basic unsupervised learning algorithm that could be used to predict if a sample is malignant. This algorithm utilizes the same exact dataset as before, but the algorithm does not utilize the labels for training. This algorithm (K-MEANS) creates cluster centers, assigns data based on how close the datapoint is to a given cluster, then re-averages the cluster centers and re-assigns the data again. This way the clusters become more and more fitting of the data it represents. The clusters are then matched with their actual values.

### Complexity:

As with Supervised, Unsupervised learning is also broken down into training and testing complexities.

Training: For training, we are passing each datapoint (n) into our graph checking each cluster (2) based on the number of features (m), and we are doing this as many times as we need until our clusters stop changing (for sklearn this runs 10 times, but for demonstration purposeless we will call this k). Thus our **training** complexity is  $n * 2 * m * k$ , or simply  $O(n*m*k)$

Prediction: Predicting our datapoint in this unsupervised algorithm is not linear as it was in our supervised algorithm. It checks each cluster (2) by the number of features in the sample (n), this for our **prediction** approach our complexity is  $2n$  or  $O(n)$ , but in cases where the number of clusters is not simple, we can say  $O(n*m)$

### Dataset:

[https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.datasets.load\\_breast\\_cancer.html](https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/generated/sklearn.datasets.load_breast_cancer.html)

```
class Unsupervised:
    def __init__(self):
        self.load_data()
        self.train_kmeans_model()
        self.assigned_clusters = self.assign_clusters_to_labels()
    # load the data the same way as the supervised data but without labels
    def load_data(self):
        # Load the dataset
        cancer = load_breast_cancer()
        X = cancer.data
        y = cancer.target #useful for comparing the clusters to the actual labels

        # note that this alg only loads the X values, not the Y values (no labels)
        self.xtrain, self.xtest, self.ytrain, self.ytest = train_test_split(X, y,
test_size=0.2, random_state=42)

        scaler = StandardScaler()
        self.xtrain = scaler.fit_transform(self.xtrain)
        self.xtest = scaler.transform(self.xtest)

        return self.xtrain, self.xtest, self.ytrain, self.ytest, scaler
```

```

# train a k-means model (creates clusters and matches each datapoint to the
cluster it is closest to)
def train_kmeans_model(self, n_clusters=2):

    self.kmeans = KMeans(n_clusters=n_clusters, random_state=42, n_init='auto')
    # Train the model
    self.kmeans.fit(self.xtrain)
    return self.kmeans

def evaluate(self):
    # Predict the clusters for the test data
    cluster_labels = self.kmeans.predict(self.xtest)
    if self.assigned_clusters[0] == 1: # if the labels are flipped, flip the
labels of each
        for i in range(len(cluster_labels)):
            if cluster_labels[i] == 1:
                cluster_labels[i] = 0
            else :
                cluster_labels[i] = 1
    # generate variables for confusion matrix (same as before)
    tp = 0
    fp = 0
    fn = 0
    tn = 0
    for i in range(len(cluster_labels)):
        if cluster_labels[i] == 1:
            if self.ytest[i] == 1:
                tp += 1
            else:
                fp += 1
        else:
            if self.ytest[i] == 1:
                fn += 1
            else:
                tn += 1
    #print("fn", fn, " fp ", fp, " tn ", tn, " tp ", tp)
    #print(cluster_labels, self.ytest, assigned_clusters)
    return classification_report(self.ytest, cluster_labels)

# goes through each cluster and finds the majority value (0 or 1) then assigns
that cluster that value
def assign_clusters_to_labels(self):

    clusters = self.kmeans.predict(self.xtrain)
    cluster_labels = {}
    for cluster_id in range(self.kmeans.n_clusters):
        cluster_indices = np.where(clusters == cluster_id)[0]
        cluster_true_labels = self.ytrain[cluster_indices]

```

```
# Find the most frequent label in this cluster
if cluster_true_labels.size > 0:
    most_common_label = np.bincount(cluster_true_labels).argmax()
else:
    most_common_label = 0
cluster_labels[cluster_id] = most_common_label
return cluster_labels

def predict(self, data):
    pred = self.kmeans.predict(data)
    if self.assigned_clusters[0] == 1: # if the labels are flipped, flip the
labels of each
        for i in range(len(pred)):
            if pred[i] == 1:
                pred[i] = 0
            else :
                pred[i] = 1
    return pred

if __name__ == "__main__":
    unsupervised = Unsupervised()
    # Evaluate the model
    print(unsupervised.evaluate())
    # Assign labels to clusters

    #print(f"Cluster to label mapping: {unsupervised.assign_clusters_to_labels()}")
```

**END OF ALGORITHM**

**RESULTS:**

Metric	Benign	Malignant	Accuracy	Macro F1	Weighted F1
Precision	0.9091	0.9730	0.9298	0.9230	0.9286
Recall	0.9859	0.8372			
F1-Score	0.9459	0.9000			
Count	43	71			

Figure 3. Unsupervised Learning Results

**CONFUSION MATRIX:**

Unsupervised Learning Algorithm			
OUTPUT \ TARGET	Benign	Malignant	SUM
Benign	70 61.40%	7 6.14%	77 90.91% 9.09%
Malignant	1 0.88%	36 31.58%	37 97.30% 2.70%
SUM	71 98.59% 1.41%	43 83.72% 16.28%	106 / 114 92.98% 7.02%

Figure 4. Unsupervised Learning Confusion Matrix

## VI. STATISTICAL MODELING

Statistical Modeling is another method of utilizing models to predict a diagnosis. Bayes Classifiers work by utilizing prior probabilities to calculate the probability that a data sample belongs in any given class. It does this by multiplying the probability that the data point is in the group (by using the groups frequency over N) then multiplies this by the likelihood of each feature of the example appearing in that group. When done for every group, we get a set of probabilities, and we choose the highest value as our prediction.

### Complexity:

As before, we will split the complexity into training complexity and predicting complexity.

Training: For training, we utilize the number of datapoints (n) and for each we utilize each feature (m) and compute the statistics based on these. This we can claim that for our binary approach, the complexity to **train** the model would be  $O(n*m)$ . This is significantly faster training than our other two models.

Prediction: Predicting our datapoint in this unsupervised algorithm is not linear as it was in our supervised algorithm. It checks each cluster (2) by the number of features in the sample (n), this for our **prediction** approach our complexity is  $2n$  or  $O(n)$ , but in cases where the number of clusters is not simple, we can say  $O(n*m)$

```
class BayesClassifier:
    def __init__(self):
        self.bayes = GaussianNB()
        self.load_data()
        self.train()

    def load_data(self):
        # Load the dataset
        cancer = load_breast_cancer()
        X = pd.DataFrame(cancer.data, columns=cancer.feature_names)
        y = cancer.target
        # grab features

        features = list(X.columns)
        # Split the data into train, test, and validation sets
        # lines 19 and 20 borrowed from sklearn website
        xtrain, xtest, ytrain, ytest = train_test_split(X, y, test_size=0.2,
random_state=42)
        xtrain, xvalidation, ytrain, yvalidation = train_test_split(xtrain, ytrain,
test_size=0.25, random_state=42) # 0.25 of 0.8 is 0.2
        # normalize the data
        scaler = StandardScaler()
        xtrain = scaler.fit_transform(xtrain)
        xvalidation = scaler.transform(xvalidation)
        xtest = scaler.transform(xtest)
        # Convert data to tensors
```

```

self.xtrain = torch.tensor(xtrain, dtype=torch.float32)
self.xvalidation = torch.tensor(xvalidation, dtype=torch.float32)
self.xtest = torch.tensor(xtest, dtype=torch.float32)
self.ytrain = torch.tensor(ytrain, dtype=torch.long)
self.yvalidation = torch.tensor(yvalidation, dtype=torch.long)
self.ytest = torch.tensor(ytest, dtype=torch.long)
self.scaler = scaler
self.features = features
return self.xtrain, self.xvalidation, self.xtest, self.ytrain,
self.yvalidation, self.ytest, self.scaler, self.features

def train(self):
    # https://scikit-learn.org/stable/modules/naive\_bayes.html
    self.load_data()
    self.bayes.fit(self.xtrain, self.ytrain)

def predict(self, data):
    pred = self.bayes.predict(data)
    return pred

def evaluate_model(self):
    pred = self.predict(self.xtest)
    output = classification_report(self.ytest.numpy(), pred)
    # variables for confusion matrix
    tp = 0
    fp = 0
    fn = 0
    tn = 0
    for i in range(len(pred)):
        if pred[i] == 1:
            if self.ytest[i] == 1:
                tp += 1
            else:
                fp += 1
        else:
            if self.ytest[i] == 1:
                fn += 1
            else:
                tn += 1
    # print("fn", fn, " fp ", fp, " tn ", tn, " tp ", tp)
    return output

if __name__ == "__main__":
    bayes = BayesClassifier()
    bayes.train()
    bayes.predict(bayes.xtest)
    print(bayes.evaluate_model())

```

END OF ALGORITHM

**RESULTS:**

We can clearly see that of the three models, Statistical performed similar in some aspects and actually performed better in others on this dataset. This is impressive considering the training time for bayes is significantly smaller than that of our other algorithms.

Metric	Benign	Malignant	Accuracy	Macro F1	Weighted F1
Precision	0.9583	0.9756	0.9646	0.9621	0.9644
Recall	0.9857	0.9302			
F1-Score	0. 0.9718	0.9524			
Count	43	71			

Figure 5. Bayes Classifier Results

**CONFUSION MATRIX:**

Bayes Classifier Results			
TARGET OUTPUT	Benign	Malignant	SUM
Benign	70 61.40%	3 2.63%	73 95.89% 4.11%
Malignant	1 0.88%	40 35.09%	41 97.56% 2.44%
SUM	71 98.59% 1.41%	43 93.02% 6.98%	110 / 114 96.49% 3.51%

Figure 6. Bayes Classifier Confusion Matrix

## VII. CUSTOM ALGORITHMS

Custom algorithms can be utilized to cross reference the results of each model. For example, a custom algorithm could run several models and use a voting system to ensure the highest likelihood of having an accurate result. In this approach, we could utilize the previously trained Supervised and Unsupervised algorithms and put all three predictions as votes. If there is a disagreement (2 positives and 1 negative, 2 negatives and 1 positive, etc), the higher frequency result would be the overall output.

```
from BayesClassifier import BayesClassifier
from SupervisedDiagnosis import Supervised
from UnSupervisedDiagnosis import Unsupervised
from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score, classification_report
import numpy as np

if __name__ == "__main__":
    # init all 3 models
    bayes = BayesClassifier()
    supervised = Supervised()
    unsupervised = Unsupervised()
    print("-----BAYES-----")
    print(bayes.evaluate_model())
    print("-----SUPERVISED-----")
    print(supervised.evaluate_model())
    print("-----UNSUPERVISED-----")
    print(unsupervised.evaluate())
    bayes_output = bayes.predict(bayes.xtest)
    supervised_output = supervised.predict(bayes.xtest)
    unsupervised_output = unsupervised.predict(bayes.xtest)
    voted_output = []
    # variables for confusion matrix
    tp = 0
    fp = 0
    fn = 0
    tn = 0
    for i in range(len(bayes_output)):
        true_count = 0
        if bayes_output[i] == 1:
            true_count += 1
        if supervised_output[i] == 1:
            true_count += 1
        if unsupervised_output[i] == 1:
            true_count += 1

        if true_count >= 2:
            voted_output.append(1)
        else:
            voted_output.append(0)
```



```
if voted_output[i] == 1:
    if bayes.ytest[i] == 1:
        tp+=1
    else:
        fp+=1
else:
    if bayes.ytest[i] == 1:
        fn+=1
    else:
        tn+=1

print("fn", fn , " fp ", fp , " tn " , tn , " tp ", tp)
print(classification_report(bayes.ytest.tolist(),voted_output))
```

END OF ALGORITHM

**RESULTS:**

We can clearly see from our results that our custom algorithm which utilizes a voting system has the highest average accuracy, Macro F1 and Weighted F1 scores. It is important to note that this result only slightly beats our Bayes Classifier, despite being the highest cost algorithm to run.

Metric	Benign	Malignant	Accuracy	Macro F1	Weighted F1
Precision	0.9589	0.9756	0.9649	0.9623	0.9647
Recall	0.9859	0.9302			
F1-Score	0.9722	0.9524			
Count	43	71			

Figure 5. Custom Algorithm Results

**CONFUSION MATRIX:**

Custom Algorithm			
TARGET OUTPUT	Benign	Malignant	SUM
Benign	70 61.40%	3 2.63%	73 95.89% 4.11%
Malignant	1 0.88%	40 35.09%	41 97.56% 2.44%
SUM	71 98.59% 1.41%	43 93.02% 6.98%	110 / 114 96.49% 3.51%

Figure 5. Custom Algorithm Confusion Matrix

## VIII. CONCLUSION

When surveying the algorithms for patient diagnosis, we can conclude that Supervised Learning, Unsupervised Learning, and Statistical Modeling algorithms can accurately and consistently detect and diagnose diseases in patients. The implications of these algorithms can be seen in online AI based wellness applications, as well as in the medical field. This technology has already begun testing in radiology and cancer detection applications in the modern medical field. While some algorithms are more accurate than others, there is an increased benefit when using multiple algorithms in collaboration to increase overall accuracy. This technology will likely change the medical landscape and allow for faster, cheaper, and more accurate diagnosis, ultimately making healthcare more accessible and affordable.

While we saw that our combination algorithm performed the best in terms of average accuracy, we must take into consideration the cost to accuracy ratio to determine a winner. As expected, picking the 'best' algorithm requires factoring in a project's specific priorities. Based on this, below are the winners based on the three different criteria.

### **Training Cost:**

The algorithm that wins in terms of training cost is the **Bayes Classifier**, due to it having the lowest training cost of the 3 models. This is because Bayes Classifier does not need to back-propagate like Supervised does, and does not need to repeatedly recalculate clusters like Unsupervised does. Thus, when picking a result that would be the most cost effective in training, Bayes Classifier wins.

### **Prediction Cost:**

In situations where prediction cost is most important, then the **Supervised Learning** algorithm wins. This is because it not only performed well in accuracy, but has the lowest overall prediction cost (by far) with a linear prediction cost  $O(1)$ . This means that in applications where training is one and done, or a pretrained model is used, Supervised Learning is the best option.

### **Accuracy:**

When accuracy is the foremost concern, and cost is must less important, the **Custom Algorithm** wins as it gives the highest accuracy with this dataset. Which all the models were fairly accurate, the Custom Algorithm can truly shine when the dataset results in less accurate models overall. This would increase the need for a "highest voted solution".

While there is no such thing as a one size fits all approach, adequate research and testing should lead the project to the best approach for its goal and dataset.

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