

Local post-hoc interpretable machine learning model for prediction of dementia in young adults

Vandana Sharma^{1,2}, Divya Midhunchakkaravarthy¹

¹Department of Computer Science and Multimedia, Lincoln University College, Petaling Jaya, Malaysia

²Computer Science Department, CHRIST (Deemed to be University), Delhi-NCR Campus, India

Article Info

Article history:

Received Jan 20, 2023

Revised Jul 8, 2023

Accepted Sep 1, 2023

Keywords:

Artificial intelligence

Brain diseases

Convolutional neural network

Classification model first

Image segmentation techniques

U-net structure

ABSTRACT

Dementia is still the prevailing brain disease with late diagnosis. There is a large increase in dementia disease among young adults. The major reason is over indulgence of young adults on social media resulting in denial of disease and delayed clinical diagnosis. Dementia is preventable and curable if diagnosed at an early stage, however, no attempts are being made to mitigate dementia in young adults. Today artificial intelligence (AI) based advanced technology with real-life consultations in clinical or remote setups are proved beneficial and is used to detect dementia. Most AI-based test is dependent on computer-aided diagnosis (CAD) tools and uses non-invasive imaging technology such as magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) data for disease diagnosis. In this paper, a local post-hoc interpretable machine learning (LPIML) model for prediction of dementia in young adults is proposed. The performance parameters are computed and compared based on accuracy, specificity, precision, F1 score and recall. The proposed work yields 98.87% training accuracy on original images and 99.31% training accuracy on morphologically enhanced images. The performance results are intrinsic and intuitive in learning the prediction results of individual case. The adoption of the proposed work will accelerate the diagnosis process in the era of digital healthcare.

This is an open access article under the [CC BY-SA](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by-sa/4.0/) license.



Corresponding Author:

Vandana Sharma

Department of Computer Science and Multimedia, Lincoln University College

Petaling Jaya, Selangor, Malaysia

Email: vandana.juyal@gmail.com, vandana.sharma@christuniversity.in

1. INTRODUCTION

Strategic Market Research LLP [1] ongoing brain research it is projected to have a market share of 8 billion by 2028 with an approximate growth rate of 7.20%. The amount of money invested in brain research is growing exponentially which is nearly 8 billion US dollars in 2028. There are various factors affecting the human brain and its related diseases. At present several use cases related to memory loss can be seen. According to the world health organisation more than 55 million people are diagnosed with dementia, with a projection of a 10 million increase every year. Dementia, one of the most prevalent disease, is such that it has the potential to drain out the psychological space, social well-being, emotional outbursts and economical strain on the immediate family of the diseased. Dementia is a disease leading to the slow death of brain cells, eventually leading to memory loss. In the absence of awareness for the diseased, its early measurement tools, regulated policies, and lack of knowledge, sensitivity and awareness of caretaker, the number of people affected from dementia is expected to rise exponentially. The quantum of patients to be affected by 2050 with dementia is nearly 131 million. The measurement tools to diagnose population subjected to dementia is yet to be regulated and validated [2]. Motor impairment is one of the early symptoms for the diagnoses of dementia. Mikuła [3]

the association between the cognitive function of a subject including grip strength is identified as a common and one of the early symptoms for dementia. Currently most of the AI based techniques to predict dementia is based on biomarkers. Bansal *et al.* [4] recent studies it has been observed that dementia is prevailing in young adults. The average onset period of the disease is 20 years resulting in the diminishing cognitive ability of the subject to perform their daily task and routines. Venugopalan *et al.* [5] there are broad 3 categories of patients leading to dementia mentioned. The first one is hereditary. The second is of type mild cognitive impairment (MCI). This stage is an early onset of Alzheimer's disease. The third is type dysfunction of the brain due to accident, trauma or frequent consumption of alcohol leading to dementia. Other nominal and prevailing symptoms adding to the onset of the disease are uneven gait movement, speech impairment and gradual deformation of handwriting. Currently, young adults commonly experience symptoms associated with constant engagement in the virtual world, including a decrease in attention span, difficulty retaining information, and suffering from depression due to self-isolation and resentment caused by social media engagements. These factors are often overlooked despite their significant impact on this demographic.

The global dementia observatory is platform for creating global action plans on dementia, it accumulates data from 35 key dementia indicators such as action plan at regional, national and global level. The global societal cost of dementia is 1.3 trillion US dollars. At present people living with dementia related disease such as mild, moderate or severe are 55.2 million and this figure is expected to increase three folds by 2030. Dementia is the ranked 7th as most leading cause of death and the major observation states that 65% of patients dying of dementia related diseases are women.

In a recent report a blood test is developed to measure the tau protein associated with brain changes due to Alzheimer. These tests are costlier and requires specialised labs. The sample of more than 400 patient were collected. The study found the Alzheimer with healthy pateints suffering from other type of neudegenerative disease. Futher, on going research are made to detect Alzheimer with cost effective blood test. At present some of the methods in [6]–[9] detect dementia based on the clinical history of patients, psychological and neurological examinations and neuroimaging. The methods and systems at present are based on magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) clinical studies and are subject to the presence of the patient in the hospital. In the past, it is observed that early onset of symptoms similar to Alzheimer's disease (AD), vascular dementia (VaD), lewy body, frontotemporal dementia (FTD), Parkinson's disease and alcohol-related dementia eventually led to dementia are detected at a later stage that cannot be reversed.

The primary objective of the proposed work is to augment LPIML model using MRI for result interpretation of the medical images to accurately diagnose progression and classification of dementia. The organization of paper is as: section 2 is dedicated towards the related work in the field of brian disease. Section 3 elaborates the material and methods used for the study. Section 4 describes the proposed model and working algorithm. Section 5 contains the details of evaluating parameters and datasets along with the experimental observations and result analysis. Section 6 concludes the work.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The objective of study is to represent the AI based solution present in early diagnosis of the brain disease. Carós *et al.* [9] and Raj *et al.* [10] the reminiscence therapy is automated for the classification of dementia patient, a chatbot namely Elisabot interacts with patient and enquire about their past experiences. The chatbot uses visual question generator (VQG) which tries to make the dialogue more engaging allowing for targets to improve communication skills and stimulate memory. It uses convolutional neural network (CNN) and long short-term memory (LSTM) based question generators shown to the patient. The system is tested on limited dataset. Battineni *et al.* [11] describes the machine learning based model using regression-based prediction on automated facial expression for disease prediction, but it is still prone to human error. In a survey [12] a systematic review and meta-analysis on the onset of dementia is discussed, pointing that the most common type of dementia among world population are Alzheimer and vascular dementia, while AI-based detection techniques are having accuracy ranging from 73% to 89%, and further the techniques are facing limitation of limited search term base with static databases.

Aggarwal and Sharma [13] namely, mini-mental state examination (MMSE) is described. In this, three different cognitive tests such as addenbrooke's cognitive examination-revised (ACE-R), montreal cognitive assessment (MoCA), and clock drawing test using pen and paper method is conducted, followed by clinical diagnosis. The sensitivity rate of these tests ranges from 79% to 87% where specificity ranges between 82% to 90%. The process of diagnosis using MMSE is time consuming and requires expert's supervision and conduct. Termine *et al.* [14], a CAD based MONAI and clinica frameworks to detect frontotemporal dementia (FTD) is proposed to classify and benchmark prediction methods. The framework for FTD classification demonstrates 0.80 accuracy, 95% confidence with intervals of 0.64, 0.91, 1 sensitivity, 0.6 specificities, 0.83 F1-score, and 0.86 area under the curve (AUC). The framework lacks a standardized pipeline for detection and adoption

classification method for demented patients. The classification method in [15] uses weight maps with 10-fold CV SVM for prediction of dementia. The studies show major differentiation between FTD and classification on late onset AD with an accuracy of 72%. Although the studies need improvement in radiology method and clinical routine. Sun *et al.* [16] states the use of oculometric biomarkers for the detection of demented people. The method uses tracking of eye movement to detect dementia. The model uses to improve the efficiency of eye-tracking methods to detect dementia. The simulation results show 88% accuracy in detection of mild cognitive impairment. The quality of the dataset collected determines the result accuracy and affects the efficiency of implementation.

Zheng *et al.* [17] discusses a language-based classifier for detecting dementia. The application uses three different models for detection of patient's affected from dementia using classification approach of stop words, context words and part-of-speech (PoS) sequences. The model shows an accuracy of 76.16%, 70.00% and 81.54% respectively. Small language parsers may be induced on the larger dataset. Khan *et al.* [18] shows implementation of video-based computer vision algorithm detecting violent behaviour in dementia-diagnosed people, having an accuracy of 75.4%. The detection of violence is detected using single camera view that classify violence. The comparison result shows improved performance efficiency when compared with non-dementia-diagnosed patient. Kim *et al.* [19] deploys passive infrared (PIR) based sensor enabled monitoring system for predicting dementia. An accuracy of 63.38% was achieved using deep neural network (DNN) with principal component analysis (PCA) method with standard scaler intervention. Here a step count method is used to monitor and predict dementia and observation is based on a very small dataset of 18 patients only.

Khan *et al.* [20] uses stacked deep dense neural network (SDDNN) model for text classification and prediction of demented and non demented patient. The accuracy achieved by this model is improved to 93.31%. The SDDNN model is tested for accuracy using 10-fold cross-validation approach. This method faces limitation of not including multiclass classification of large dataset to claim the improved efficiency. Minamisawa *et al.* [21] classifies dementia scale score. The maximum accuracy achieved in this method is 87.1% with a linear support vector machine (SVM) model. The result lacks inclusion of larger location and sleep datasets to identify the dementia scale score. Hadiyoso *et al.* [22] Alzheimer's disease detection network (ADD-Net) defines various stages of AD. The ADD-Net achieved the following values for evaluation metrics: 98.63%, 99.76%, 98.61%, 98.63%, 98.58%, and 0.0549% accuracy, AUC, F1-score, precision, recall, and loss, respectively. The results achieved are based on network devices and parameters achieved. Finetuning and deployment of federated learning models is needed to improve the results achieved in real time environment.

The results claimed in the previous studies are based on preassumptions on a smaller dataset. The results so achieved are biased and can be validated if a supporting post analysis of result is obtained. Further, the results so obtained must correlate with the clinical diagnosis.

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

In this paper, LPIML model is proposed for prediction of dementia in young adults. The dataset derived from github for the experimentation purpose. Google Colab is used to evaluate the performance of the dataset.

3.1. Tools and libraries

In the proposed work, Keras and Tensorflow libraries are used. Both the libraries are extensively used for open platform devices to build CNN models. The performance evaluation of the collective dataset is executed using Tensorboard tool. In this, segmentation is applied to fraction different portions of the image in various categories related to object classification. Each pixel in an image is classified. Segmentation of the image based on pixel classifies the image and draws useful insights from the image. Further, it helps in the understanding of region of interest from the boundary of the image.

In most cases, image segmentation is based on areas of study for the medical fraternity. In general, image segmentation is classified into major categories like manual segmentation, semi-automatic segmentation and full segmentation. Manual segmentation is considered the gold standard for minutely detecting the disease and analysing the deterioration or improvement of the patient. The semi-automatic segmentation uses three points of user interaction defining the region of interest, its evaluation and feedback. It is classified as segmentation based on a threshold value, edge detection, cluster-based and region based. The result of the semi-automatic segmentation is user-dependent. Similar work on identification of images is referred in [23], [24]. Another method of segmentation is based on clustering, in this clustering is done based on pixels. This is also considered unsupervised learning from the finite set of image pixels. Segmentation based on thresholding is different as compared to the other segmentation process discussed before. Here the image is set against a global threshold value in which it is a constant for the entire image whereas in the local thresholding the image is subdivided into sub-images in which the local threshold value is set for each sub-part of the image. In segmentation based on region, the segmentation is done based on sub-regions while splitting the region of interest and then merging the image into unconnected regions with similar characteristics of interest. In

segmentation based on edge detection, the image classification having sharp intensity adjustment. The only limitation of this technique is that it loses its accuracy over discontinued image boundaries. Edge detection is used where a sharp adjustment in intensity at boundaries is required. Regions that have an extreme transition in intensity can be extracted through this method. This method is generally used in images where the boundaries and edges define the region of interest like in satellite images, and traffic images, with the only limitation being that segmentation can reduce its accuracy at the discontinuities of a boundary. Canny edge detector and Laplacian edge detector algorithms are used for edge detection [25]. Fully automatic segmentation method does not require user interaction for every step, rather it works on the concept of training and testing with the help of some prior knowledge and artificial intelligence. The objective is to classify the image with dementia and to segment the image to detect the area of dementia [26]. The basic challenge in fully-automatic segmentation [27], [28] is to identify dementia with accurate edge detection and position, but still at the time of testing and validation the greatest challenge is to classify the disease correctly [29]. Fully automatic segmentation models [30] are divided as discriminative [31] and generative models. Discriminative methods which focus on learning based on the relationship between an input image and ground truth, while generative methods focus on probabilistic models having some prior knowledge like spatial context and location.

Although many architectures like Resnet, Alexnet, and Vgnet are implemented for image segmentation, U-net gives the highest accuracy in the case of medical image segmentation. For the implementation U-net is taken for experimentation here. This is known as the supervised method since it requires manually segmented training data at an initial step to automatically segment the new data. It works on the concept of identifying the nearest neighbour with the closest intensity. K-nearest neighbour classifier is a common classifier used for nonparametric segmentation. Another frequently used nonparametric segmentation classifier is the Parzen window, where classification depends on a predefined window of the features space centered at the unlabelled pixel intensity [32]. Alexnet is a deep convolutional network consisting of five convolutional layers, first is max-pooling, second is rectified linear units (ReLUs), three fully connected layers and dropout [33]. Visual geometry group (VGG)-16 is a CNN model having 16 weight layers. High accuracy up to 92.7% can be achieved by using this model. The number of repetitive layers leads to more non-linearity and less parameter-dependent, which in turn makes the decision function more discriminative and easier to train. In Googlenet, a CNN network contains 22 layers and an inception module, which can be arranged in any customizable structure. The basic architecture contains a network of a network, a large-sized convolution layer and a small-sized convolution layer with a pooling operation. All the layers are computed and executed in parallel with 1×1 convolution operation to reduce the dimensionality and requirement of a large number of parameters. In U-net, CNN model is prominently used in bio-medical image semantic segmentation. CNN model performs localization to find out the pixel location of a single class and classify the localized pixels. The shape of architecture is U, consisting of a downslope (contracting path), an upslope (expansive path) and a skip connection. During the contracting path, the network learns to classify the objects and processes the input MRI image, while during the expansive path, the network learns to localize the pixels and produces the labelled output. In U-net total of sixteen convolutional layers are present and spread over four convolution blocks and four de-convolution blocks. Each block contains 2 convolutional layers, one dropout layer and one max pooling layer. The input image size taken for U-net is 256×256 , it is fragmented up to 32×32 during the downslope and again restructured to the size 256×256 during the up-sample path. Total 662,385 parameters are used.

4. SYSTEM MODEL AND PROPOSED METHOD

In this section, the system model and proposed methodology are introduced for LPIML. The basic methodology starts with the acquisition of online dataset on github taken for training, testing and evaluation. Figure 1 illustrates the three observation cycles in which DACP is used for evaluation and validation purposes. The training is done in two stages, one for original images and the other for morphologically enhanced images. The testing is conducted to observe the changes in parameters. It is trained on original and morphologically enhanced images and trained on original images to compare the performance and accuracy.

Considering a patient individual data where each MRI is collected as a repository of patient on each visit as RP. Each MRI scan is a set of multiple N images denoted as SC, where each patient scan is belonging to a P as a collection $sc_1, \dots, sc_k, \dots, sc_n$. RP is structured and stored for connecting the MRI for P patients within one diagnostic centre as DC, where each P belonging to a DC. There are maximum of N DC, each denoted by $dc_1, \dots, dc_i, \dots, dc_n$. A post hoc model is selected to analyse the SC of P. MS is a set constructed of masking of images. All the acronym and its abbreviation defined for LPIML is listed in Table 1.

The working of the Algorithm 1 is divided into two stages namely LPIML initialization and modelling phase. In the initialization phase, for all the scanned images, resize the images to obtain morphologically enhanced images and then LPIML model is applied. In this, for each scanned image SC X_i point is taken on MRI for plotting labels to predict the instances around point X_i by adding gaussian noise to DACP. INS is

generated and weighed to obtain distance of each point to assign simple linear model. This phase helps in identifying progression of dementia. Algorithm 2 defines the steps to train and test the DACP using LPIML model on morphologically altered images and evaluating the results by applying LPIML model to create confusion matrix.

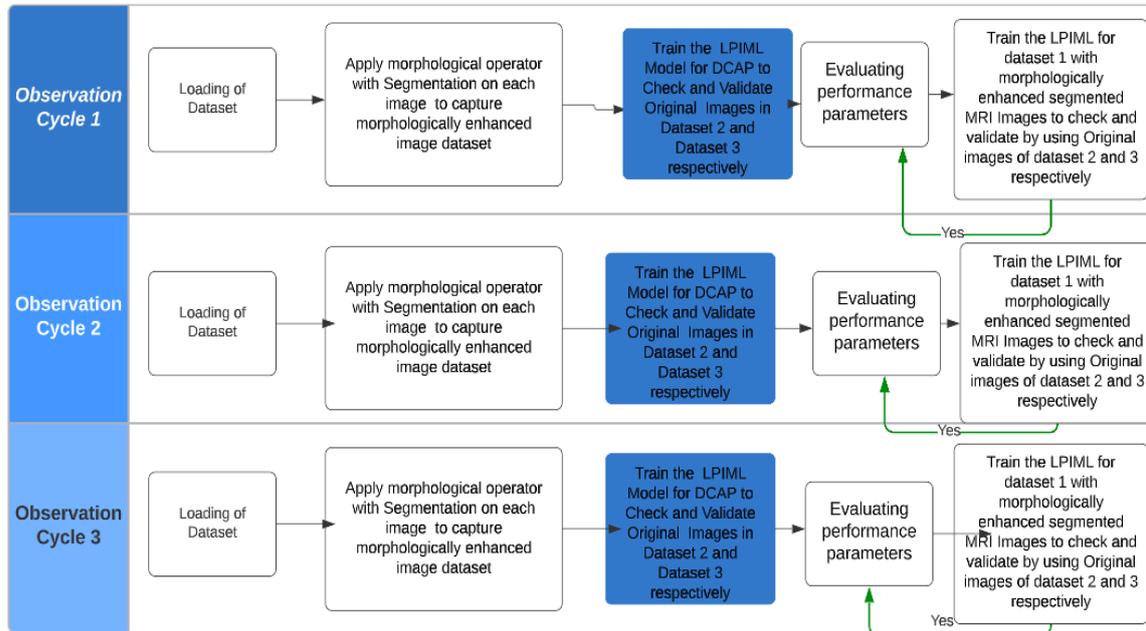


Figure 1. Three-step observation cycle of LPIML

Algorithm 1. LPIML initialization

Input: RP, SC, DC

Phase I: Initialization

1. Set $SC(1)$ as the initial data, $P(1) = 0$,
2. Resize of $[P(MSi)], \forall i = 1$ to n
3. Obtain morphologically enhanced dataset $M[DACP]$
4. Applying LPIML Model
5. Repeat step 2 to 4, to import the DACP

Phase II: LPIML Model

1. For each $i \in SC$ take a point X_i on MRI
2. Plot labels using LPIML
3. Predict instances around point X_i by adding random gaussian noise to DACP
4. Generate INS
5. Weigh INS to $dist(X_i)$
6. Assign simple linear model on weighted INS

Output: Detect dementia progression on linear model

Algorithm 2. Training and testing the DACP for LPIML model

Input: DACP Original and Morphologically Altered Dataset

Phase I: Observation Cycle 1:

1. Train the model for DACP
2. Test the model $\forall M[DACP]$
3. Evaluate the results by applying LPIML
4. Creating confusion matrix
5. $tn=res[1][1]; tp=res[0][0]; fn=res[1][0]; fp=res[0][1]$
6. $Sensitivity=(tp)/(tp+fn); Specificity=(tn)/(tn+fp)$
7. $Precision=(tp)/(tp+fp); Recall=(tp)/(tp+fn)$
8. $Dice=(2*tp)/((2*tp)+fp+fn)$
9. Evaluate training model by using $model.evaluate(X_train, Y_train)$
10. Evaluate testing model by using $model.evaluate(X_test, Y_test)$
11. Saving the model
12. Repeat the step 1 to 10 for execution of observation cycle 2 and 3

Table 1. List of notation and its abbreviation defined for LPIML

| Notation | Abbreviation |
|--------------|--|
| DACP dataset | Dementia Alzheimer classification prediction dataset |
| P | Patient |
| RP | Patient repository |
| SC | Scanned MRI images |
| DC | Diagnostic centre |
| INS | Instance |
| Dist | Distance |
| tn | True negative |
| TP | True positive |
| Fn | False negative |
| Fp | False positive |
| M[DACP] | Morphologically enhanced DACP |

5. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The online available dementia dataset is taken for experimentation and analysis of image classification. The basic details of datasets are discussed in Table 2. DACP is consisting of 1,279 images comprising of 179 subjects diagnosed with mild dementia, 12 with moderate dementia, 448 with very mild dementia and 640 subjects with non demented stage. The unique values of subjects aged from 18 to 96 years. Each subject has been scanned more than twice in a gap of one year resulting in a total of 1,279 images. The dataset includes both men and women all are right-handed. Out of 150 subjects, 72 were identified as non-demented, 64 were suffering from dementia at the time of their initial visits and remained for subsequent scans including 51 individuals with mild to moderate Alzheimer's disease. Some 14 subjects were diagnosed with dementia later in the visits.

Table 2. Dataset used for analysis and experimentation for image classification

| Dataset | Subject with mild dementia | Subject with moderate dementia | Subject with very mild dementia | Subject non dementia |
|-------------------|----------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|----------------------|
| DACP dataset [34] | 179 | 12 | 448 | 640 |

All the images in the dataset are comprised of dementia patients. The main target of the system is to segment dementia-affected subjects from the scanned images. DACP is split into 80:20 ratio for training and validation. The effectiveness of the proposed LPIML is validated by evaluating the performance parameters at each observation cycle. The performance parameters used for the quantitative analysis of the proposed technique are dice, recall, precision, sensitivity, specificity and F1 measure. The mathematical extension of these parameters is as:

$$\text{Sensitivity} = (TP) / (TP + FN) \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Specificity} = (TN) / (TN + FP) \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Precision} = (TP) / (TP + FP) \quad (3)$$

$$\text{Recall} = (TP) / (TP + FN) \quad (4)$$

$$F1 = 2 * (\text{Precision} * \text{Recall}) / (\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}) \quad (5)$$

$$\text{Dice} = (2 * TP) / ((2 * TP) + FP + FN) \quad (6)$$

The training of the model is conducted in two phases to judge the difference in the observation of performance parameters. When a system is trained on normal images, it performs the testing of normal images of the other two datasets. Figures 2 to 5 showing sample brain MRI images of patient not suffering from dementia, suffering from very mild dementia, mild dementia and moderate dementia. The qualitative and quantitative analysis is discussed.

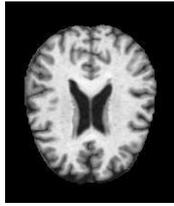


Figure 2. MRI of subject not suffering from dementia

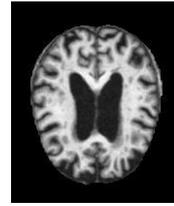


Figure 3. MRI of subject suffering from very mild dementia

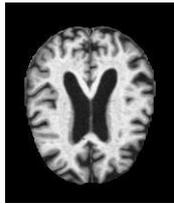


Figure 4. MRI of subject suffering from mild dementia



Figure 5. MRI of subject suffering from moderate dementia

The testing images taken for validation of the model trained on original and morphologically enhanced images of DACP. Each testing image contains a demented area of different dimensions and shapes. The LPIML is capable of classifying the dementia area from any test image. Table 3 shows the observed values for all performance parameters for 3 cycles of training and testing. The observation is taken in 3 cycles having 2 phases each. For cycle 1, the first phase consists of training of model with original images of dataset 1 and testing for dataset 2 and 3 respectively. For cycle 2, the first phase consists of training of model with original images of dataset 2 and testing for dataset 1 and 3 respectively. For cycle 3, the first phase consists of training of model with original images of dataset 3 and testing for dataset 2 and 1 respectively. The performance analysis is evaluated based on the values for sensitivity, specificity, precision, recall, F1-measure and dice similarity observed during the simulation.

Table 3. Observations of model trained and tested on different datasets

| | | | Sensitivity | Specificity | Precision | Recall | F1 Measure | Dice |
|---------------------|--|--------------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|--------|------------|--------|
| Observation cycle 1 | Model trained on dataset 1(original images) | Dementia dataset 1 | 0.935 | 0.671 | 0.82 | 0.935 | 0.677 | 0.67 |
| | | Dementia dataset 3 | 0.9223 | 0.2392 | 0.6723 | 0.9223 | 0.7775 | 0.745 |
| | Model trained on dataset 1 (morphological enhanced images) | Dementia dataset 2 | 0.9972 | 1 | 1 | 0.9972 | 0.9935 | 0.9935 |
| | | Dementia dataset 3 | 0.95587 | 0.2404 | 0.746 | 0.9658 | 0.7827 | 0.7827 |
| Observation cycle 2 | Model trained on dataset 2 (original images) | Dementia dataset 1 | 0.871 | 0.851325 | 0.8213 | 0.84 | 0.801 | 0.8101 |
| | | Dementia dataset 3 | 0.811 | 0.1747 | 0.5822 | 0.8911 | 0.7043 | 0.7043 |
| | Model trained on dataset 2 (morphological enhanced images) | Dementia dataset 1 | 0.8906 | 0.8347 | 0.8633 | 0.9406 | 0.8369 | 0.8369 |
| | | Dementia dataset 3 | 0.8909 | 0.1842 | 0.7404 | 0.8909 | 0.7451 | 0.7451 |
| Observation cycle 3 | Model trained on dataset 3 (original images) | Dementia dataset 1 | 0.7694 | 0.623 | 0.4806 | 0.7694 | 0.5917 | 0.5917 |
| | | Dementia dataset 2 | 0.8522 | 0.5051 | 0.4838 | 0.8522 | 0.6172 | 0.6172 |
| | Model trained on dataset 3 (morphological enhanced images) | Dementia dataset 1 | 0.8912 | 0.6772 | 0.5253 | 0.912 | 0.7969 | 0.7969 |
| | | Dementia dataset 2 | 0.871 | 0.583 | 0.5161 | 0.861 | 0.6825 | 0.6425 |

In Table 3, the observed values of performance parameters for all three observation cycles are discussed. Figure 6 showing the comparative analysis of observed values for LPIML Model trained on original images and morphologically enhanced images. Figures 6(a) to 6(e) provides a visual result of all the performance parameters namely sensitivity, specificity, recall, precision, F1 measure and dice coefficient respectively. It is observed that improved results are seen in every observation cycle. The performance parameter and it's accuracy is calculated for a model trained on morphologically enhanced images and it is compared with the accuracy of original images. The comparison of training and the testing accuracy is shown in Table 4.

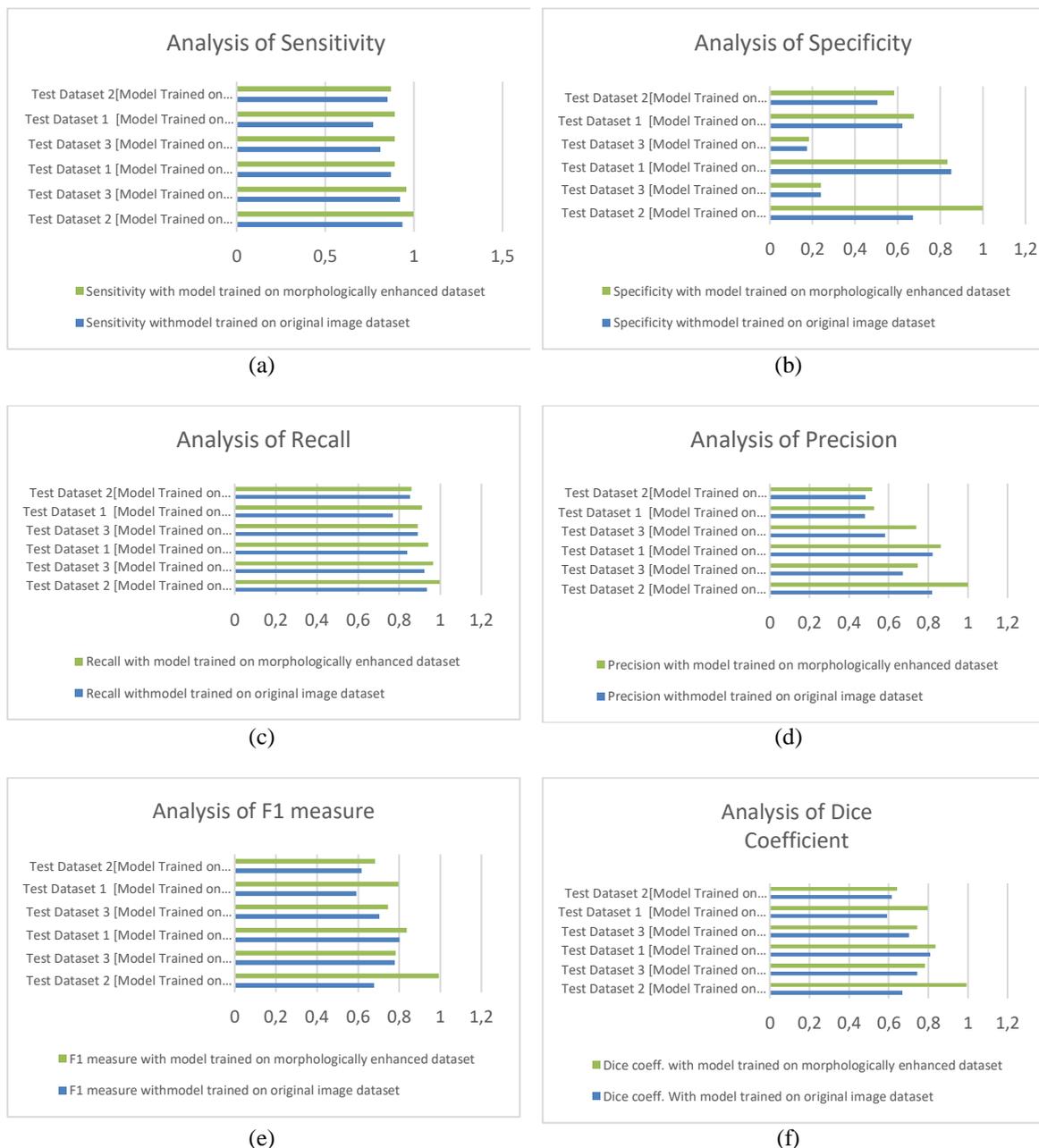


Figure 6. Comparative analysis of observed values for LPIML model trained on original images and morphologically enhanced images; (a) analysis of sensitivity, (b) analysis of specificity, (c) analysis of recall, (d) analysis of precision, (e) analysis of f1 measure, and (f) analysis of dice coefficient

The accuracy of the proposed model obtained in Table 4 shows that the images enhanced using morphological operators give improved results than without applying morphological operators. To further compare the results obtained from the hybrid hidden Markov model it is compared with the existing work. Table 5 represents a comparison of the proposed model with other existing models based on different performance parameters.

Table 4. Model accuracy

| Model | Training accuracy | Validation accuracy |
|--|-------------------|---------------------|
| LPIML model trained on original images | 98.87% | 97.66% |
| LPIML model trained on morphologically enhanced images | 99.31% | 98.41% |

Table 5. Comparison of the hybrid hidden Markov model with other existing models

| Paper | Year | Framework used | Dice coefficient | Precision | Specificity | Sensitivity | Recall | F1 Score |
|--------------------------------|------|---|------------------|-----------|-------------|-------------|--------|----------|
| Tejas and Padma [35] | 2016 | Region growing and threshold segmentation | 0.9707 | 0.9860 | - | - | 0.9987 | 0.9797 |
| Salehi <i>et al.</i> [36] | 2017 | 3D fully CNN | 56.42 | - | - | 65.57 | - | 57.32 |
| Hashemi <i>et al.</i> [37] | 2018 | 3D fully convolutional deep neural networks | 65.74 | - | - | 66.77 | - | - |
| Sajid <i>et al.</i> [38] | 2019 | 2 path CNN model | 0.86 | - | 0.91 | 0.86 | - | - |
| Ravikumar and Shivaprasad [39] | 2021 | bidirectional convolutional LSTM XNet | - | 0.91 | 0.98 | 0.91 | - | 0.88 |
| Srinivas and Rao [40] | 2020 | U-Net and VGG-Net | 0.96702 | - | - | - | - | - |
| Proposed work | 2023 | LPIML | 0.9935 | 1 | 1 | 0.9972 | 0.9972 | 0.9935 |

Note: *Missing values are denoted as “-”

In Table 5, the LPIML Model is compared with the existing systems like region growing and threshold segmentation, 3D fully convolutional network, 3D fully convolutional deep neural networks, U-net with VGG net, 2 path CNN model and bidirectional Xnet for six parameters like dice coefficient, precision, specificity, sensitivity, recall and F1 score. The comparative analysis shows that the LPIML Model performs better than the existing system in terms of observed values of performance parameters. The observations state that LPIML model provides enhanced accuracy and results thereof as compared to the other existing models.

6. CONCLUSION

The result analysis of the LPIML Model is presented for detecting dementia by using a morphological operator. DACP datasets are used for the evaluation and testing of the designed model for brain MRI image classification and segmentation. The proposed model is trained for a total number of 1,279 images in two stages and testing is conducted. The methodology is constructed of three observation cycles. Observation cycle I consist of the implementation of the original image of dataset 1 to train the model and testing with original images of the other two datasets in its first stage. In the second stage, the model is trained with morphologically enhanced images of dataset 1 which were further used to train the model and it is tested for the other two datasets with their original images. Similarly, observation cycle 2 for dataset 2 and observation cycle 3 for dataset 3 is conducted and analysed in the same manner. The average dice similarity of 0.707 for dataset 1, 0.7575 for dataset 2 and 0.6063 for dataset 3 is being observed respectively for the first stage of three cycles. The average dice similarity observed in the second stage is 0.888 for morphological enhanced dataset 1, 0.791 for morphological enhanced dataset 2 and 0.7197 for morphological enhanced dataset 3. The proposed work yields 98.87% training accuracy on original images and 99.31% training accuracy on morphologically enhanced images. The proposed model is compared with the other existing systems and found to be more efficient for MRI image classification and segmentation for accurate detection of prevailing dementia. The future scope of the study will involve complex AI-based environment for dementia affected people. The implementation of an automated environment specially for a dementia-affected person needs accuracy, privacy and cost-effectiveness. In future, smart environments having combinations of indoor positioning systems and smart wearable will be exciting research areas in dementia.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The author thanks the Department of Computer Science and Multimedia, Lincoln University College, Malaysia for providing a research environment.

Local post-hoc interpretable machine learning model for prediction of dementia in ... (Vandana Sharma)

REFERENCES

- [1] Strategic Market Research LLP, "Strategic market research elucidated that the brain," *GlobeNewswire*, 2022. <https://www.globenewswire.com/en/news-release/2022/05/19/2447146/0/en/Strategic-Market-Research-elucidated-that-the-Brain-Monitoring-Market-is-likely-to-account-for-up-to-8-Billion-by-2028-with-a-CAGR-of-7-20-Below-are-the-some-pivotal-statistics-on-.html> (accessed Sep. 20, 2023).
- [2] M. Leitão, A. Saúde, R. Bouça-Machado, and J. J. Ferreira, "Assessment tools to evaluate motor function in people with dementia: A systematic review," *Journal of Alzheimer's Disease*, vol. 89, no. 1, pp. 13–24, Aug. 2022, doi: 10.3233/JAD-220151.
- [3] E. Mikula, "Recent advancements in electrochemical biosensors for alzheimer's disease biomarkers detection," *Current Medicinal Chemistry*, vol. 28, no. 20, pp. 4049–4073, Jul. 2020, doi: 10.2174/092986732766620111141341.
- [4] D. Bansal, K. Khanna, R. Chhikara, R. K. Dua, and R. Malhotra, "A systematic literature review of deep learning for detecting dementia," in *Lecture Notes in Networks and Systems*, vol. 166, 2021, pp. 61–68, doi: 10.1007/978-981-15-9689-6_7.
- [5] J. Venugopalan, L. Tong, H. R. Hassanzadeh, and M. D. Wang, "Multimodal deep learning models for early detection of Alzheimer's disease stage," *Scientific Reports*, vol. 11, no. 1, p. 3254, Feb. 2021, doi: 10.1038/s41598-020-74399-w.
- [6] L. Gao, H. Pan, F. Liu, X. Xie, Z. Zhang, and J. Han, "Brain disease diagnosis using deep learning features from longitudinal MR images," in *Lecture Notes in Computer Science (including subseries Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence and Lecture Notes in Bioinformatics)*, vol. 10987 LNCS, 2018, pp. 327–339, doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-96890-2_27.
- [7] J. Islam and Y. Zhang, "Brain MRI analysis for Alzheimer's disease diagnosis using an ensemble system of deep convolutional neural networks," *Brain Informatics*, vol. 5, no. 2, p. 2, Dec. 2018, doi: 10.1186/s40708-018-0080-3.
- [8] M. Liu, J. Zhang, D. Nie, P. T. Yap, and D. Shen, "Anatomical landmark based deep feature representation for MR images in brain disease diagnosis," *IEEE Journal of Biomedical and Health Informatics*, vol. 22, no. 5, pp. 1476–1485, Sep. 2018, doi: 10.1109/JBHI.2018.2791863.
- [9] M. Carós, M. Garolera, P. Radeva, and X. Giro-I-Nieto, "Automatic reminiscence therapy for dementia," in *ICMR 2020 - Proceedings of the 2020 International Conference on Multimedia Retrieval*, Jun. 2020, pp. 383–387, doi: 10.1145/3372278.3391927.
- [10] A. Raj, A. Kumar, V. Sharma, S. Rani, A. K. Shanu, and H. K. Bhardwaj, "Decipherable for artificial intelligence in medicare: a review," in *4th International Conference on Intelligent Engineering and Management, ICIEM 2023*, May 2023, pp. 1–6, doi: 10.1109/ICIEM59379.2023.10165690.
- [11] G. Battineni *et al.*, "Artificial intelligence models in the diagnosis of adult-onset dementia disorders: a review," *Bioengineering*, vol. 9, no. 8, p. 370, Aug. 2022, doi: 10.3390/bioengineering9080370.
- [12] S. Hanke *et al.*, "AI-based predictive modelling of the onset and progression of dementia," *Smart Cities*, vol. 5, no. 2, pp. 700–714, May 2022, doi: 10.3390/smartcities5020036.
- [13] S. Aggarwal and V. Sharma, "Dementia identification using machine learning algorithms: comparative analysis," in *4th International Conference on Intelligent Engineering and Management, ICIEM 2023*, May 2023, pp. 1–5, doi: 10.1109/ICIEM59379.2023.10165739.
- [14] A. Termine, C. Fabrizio, C. Caltagirone, and L. Petrosini, "A reproducible deep-learning-based computer-aided diagnosis tool for frontotemporal dementia using MONAI and clinica frameworks," *Life*, vol. 12, no. 7, p. 947, Jun. 2022, doi: 10.3390/life12070947.
- [15] P. Chagué *et al.*, "Radiological classification of dementia from anatomical MRI assisted by machine learning-derived maps," *Journal of Neuroradiology*, vol. 48, no. 6, pp. 412–418, Nov. 2021, doi: 10.1016/j.neurad.2020.04.004.
- [16] J. Sun, Y. Liu, H. Wu, P. Jing, and Y. Ji, "A novel deep learning approach for diagnosing Alzheimer's disease based on eye-tracking data," *Frontiers in Human Neuroscience*, vol. 16, Sep. 2022, doi: 10.3389/fnhum.2022.972773.
- [17] C. Zheng, M. Bouazizi, and T. Ohtsuki, "An evaluation on information composition in dementia detection based on speech," *IEEE Access*, vol. 10, pp. 92294–92306, 2022, doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2022.3203068.
- [18] S. S. Khan *et al.*, "Unsupervised deep learning to detect agitation from videos in people with dementia," *IEEE Access*, vol. 10, pp. 10349–10358, 2022, doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2022.3143990.
- [19] J. Kim, S. Cheon, and J. Lim, "IoT-based unobtrusive physical activity monitoring system for predicting dementia," *IEEE Access*, vol. 10, pp. 26078–26089, 2022, doi: c.
- [20] Y. F. Khan, B. Kaushik, M. K. I. Rahmani, and M. E. Ahmed, "Stacked deep dense neural network model to predict Alzheimer's dementia using audio transcript data," *IEEE Access*, vol. 10, pp. 32750–32765, 2022, doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2022.3161749.
- [21] A. Minamisawa, S. Okada, K. Inoue, and M. Noguchi, "Dementia scale score classification based on daily activities using multiple sensors," *IEEE Access*, vol. 10, pp. 38931–38943, 2022, doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2022.3165208.
- [22] S. Hadiyoso, H. Zakaria, P. A. Ong, and T. L. E. Rajab, "Multi modal feature extraction for classification of vascular dementia in post-stroke patients based on EEG signal," *Sensors*, vol. 23, no. 4, p. 1900, Feb. 2023, doi: 10.3390/s23041900.
- [23] S. Basheer, K. U. Singh, V. Sharma, S. Bhatia, N. Pande, and A. Kumar, "A robust NIFTI image authentication framework to ensure reliable and safe diagnosis," *PeerJ Computer Science*, vol. 9, p. e1323, Apr. 2023, doi: 10.7717/PEERJ-CS.1323.
- [24] P. Ajmani, V. Sharma, P. Samuel, K. Somasundaram, and V. Vidhya, "Patient behaviour analysis and social health predictions through IoMT," in *2022 10th International Conference on Reliability, Infocom Technologies and Optimization (Trends and Future Directions), ICRITO 2022*, Oct. 2022, pp. 1–6, doi: 10.1109/ICRITO56286.2022.9964846.
- [25] D. Nie, L. Wang, Y. Gao, and D. Sken, "Fully convolutional networks for multi-modality iso-intense infant brain image segmentation," in *Proceedings - International Symposium on Biomedical Imaging*, Apr. 2016, vol. 2016-June, pp. 1342–1345, doi: 10.1109/ISBI.2016.7493515.
- [26] G. Wang, W. Li, M. Aertsen, J. Deprest, S. Ourselin, and T. Vercauteren, "Aleatoric uncertainty estimation with test-time augmentation for medical image segmentation with convolutional neural networks," *Neurocomputing*, vol. 338, pp. 34–45, Apr. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.neucom.2019.01.103.
- [27] J. Bernal *et al.*, "Deep convolutional neural networks for brain image analysis on magnetic resonance imaging: a review," *Artificial Intelligence in Medicine*, vol. 95, pp. 64–81, Apr. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.artmed.2018.08.008.
- [28] M. D. Zeiler, G. W. Taylor, and R. Fergus, "Adaptive deconvolutional networks for mid and high level feature learning," in *Proceedings of the IEEE International Conference on Computer Vision*, Nov. 2011, pp. 2018–2025, doi: 10.1109/ICCV.2011.6126474.
- [29] M. Aggarwal, A. K. Tiwari, M. P. Sarathi, and A. Bijalwan, "An early detection and segmentation of Brain tumor using deep neural network," *BMC Medical Informatics and Decision Making*, vol. 23, no. 1, p. 78, Apr. 2023, doi: 10.1186/s12911-023-02174-8.
- [30] J. Chang *et al.*, "A mix-pooling CNN architecture with FCRF for brain tumor segmentation," *Journal of Visual Communication and Image Representation*, vol. 58, pp. 316–322, Jan. 2019, doi: 10.1016/j.jvcir.2018.11.047.
- [31] D. Puri, S. Nalbalwar, A. Nandgaonkar, and A. Wagh, "Alzheimer's disease detection from optimal electroencephalogram channels and tunable Q-wavelet transform," *Indonesian Journal of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science (IJECS)*, vol. 25, no. 3, pp. 1420–1428, Mar. 2022, doi: 10.11591/ijeecs.v25.i3.pp1420-1428.

- [32] A. Garcia-Garcia, S. Orts-Escolano, S. Oprea, V. Villena-Martinez, P. Martinez-Gonzalez, and J. Garcia-Rodriguez, "A survey on deep learning techniques for image and video semantic segmentation," *Applied Soft Computing Journal*, vol. 70, pp. 41–65, Sep. 2018, doi: 10.1016/j.asoc.2018.05.018.
- [33] B. Jabir and N. Falih, "Dropout, a basic and effective regularization method for a deep learning model: a case study," *Indonesian Journal of Electrical Engineering and Computer Science (IJECS)*, vol. 24, no. 2, pp. 1009–1016, Nov. 2021, doi: 10.11591/ijeecs.v24.i2.pp1009-1016.
- [34] "GitHub - jvandana23/DACP: Dementia alzheimer classification prediction detection," *github*, 2023. <https://github.com/jvandana23/DACP> (accessed Sep. 20, 2023).
- [35] P. Tejas and S. K. Padma, "A hybrid segmentation technique for brain tumor detection in MRI images," in *Lecture Notes in Networks and Systems*, vol. 300 LNNS, 2022, pp. 334–342, doi: 10.1007/978-3-030-84760-9_29.
- [36] S. S. M. Salehi, D. Erdogmus, and A. Gholipour, "Tversky loss function for image segmentation using 3D fully convolutional deep networks," in *Lecture Notes in Computer Science (including subseries Lecture Notes in Artificial Intelligence and Lecture Notes in Bioinformatics)*, vol. 10541 LNCS, 2017, pp. 379–387, doi: 10.1007/978-3-319-67389-9_44.
- [37] S. R. Hashemi, S. S. M. Salehi, D. Erdogmus, S. P. Prabhu, S. K. Warfield, and A. Gholipour, "Asymmetric loss functions and deep densely-connected networks for highly-imbalanced medical image segmentation: application to multiple sclerosis lesion detection," *IEEE Access*, vol. 7, pp. 1721–1735, 2019, doi: 10.1109/ACCESS.2018.2886371.
- [38] S. Sajid, S. Hussain, and A. Sarwar, "Brain tumor detection and segmentation in MR images using deep learning," *Arabian Journal for Science and Engineering*, vol. 44, no. 11, pp. 9249–9261, Nov. 2019, doi: 10.1007/s13369-019-03967-8.
- [39] M. Ravikumar and B. J. Shivaprasad, "Bidirectional ConvLSTMNet for brain tumor segmentation of MR images," *Tehnicky Glasnik*, vol. 15, no. 1, pp. 37–42, Mar. 2021, doi: 10.31803/tg-20210204162414.
- [40] B. Srinivas and G. S. Rao, "Segmentation of multi-modal MRI brain tumor sub-regions using deep learning," *Journal of Electrical Engineering and Technology*, vol. 15, no. 4, pp. 1899–1909, Jul. 2020, doi: 10.1007/s42835-020-00448-z.

BIOGRAPHIES OF AUTHORS



Vandana Sharma    is a post-doctoral fellow at Lincoln University College, Malaysia. She is currently working as an associate professor at CHRIST (Deemed to be University), Delhi NCR, India. She is a senior member of IEEE, member of Women in Engineering Society and member of IEEE Consumer Technology Society popularly known as CTSoc. Her primary areas of interest include artificial intelligence, blockchain technology and the internet of things (IoT). She can be contacted at email: vandana.juyal@gmail.com.



Divya Midhunchakkaravarthy    is an associate professor in the Department of Computer Science and Multimedia, Lincoln University College, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia. She has 14 years of experience and has published various papers in national and international journals and conferences. She can be contacted at email: divya@lincoln.edu.my.