



International Journal of Biological and Biomedical Research

Machine Learning Techniques for Early Detection of Chronic Diseases

Pradnya S Bainalwar ^{1*}, Prachi A Moon ²

¹⁻² Department of Computer Technology, Yeshwantrao Chavan College of Engineering, Nagpur, Maharashtra, India

* Corresponding Author: Pradnya S Bainalwar

Article Info

Volume: 01

Issue: 06

Received: 12-09-2025

Accepted: 10-10-2025

Published: 08-11-2025

Page No: 15-19

Abstract

Chronic diseases — including cardiovascular disorders, diabetes mellitus, cancer, and chronic kidney disease — represent a leading cause of global morbidity and mortality. Early detection remains the single most effective strategy to reduce disease burden and improve patient outcomes. Machine learning (ML) has emerged as a transformative paradigm in clinical medicine, enabling the construction of predictive models that surpass traditional risk-scoring tools in both accuracy and scalability. This article reviews the principal ML algorithms applied to chronic disease detection, compares their performance using standard metrics (accuracy, precision, recall, and area under the receiver operating characteristic curve [AUC]), and examines deep learning architectures including convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and long short-term memory (LSTM) networks. Clinical risk assessment frameworks and the translation of predictive models into preventive healthcare are also discussed. Evidence suggests that ensemble methods and deep learning consistently achieve AUC values exceeding 0.90 across multiple disease domains, signalling a clinically meaningful improvement over conventional approaches.

Keywords: machine learning, chronic disease, early detection, clinical risk assessment, deep learning, preventive healthcare, AUC, precision medicine

1. Introduction

Globally, chronic non-communicable diseases account for approximately 74% of all deaths annually, imposing an enormous economic and social burden on healthcare systems ^[1]. Cardiovascular disease, type 2 diabetes, malignancies, and chronic respiratory disorders are characterised by insidious onset and prolonged subclinical phases, during which timely intervention can dramatically alter prognosis ^[2]. Conventional risk stratification instruments — the Framingham Risk Score, SCORE2, and HbA1c thresholds — rely on linear statistical assumptions that fail to capture complex non-linear interactions among clinical, genetic, and lifestyle variables ^[3].

Machine learning offers a fundamentally different approach by learning hierarchical, non-linear representations directly from high-dimensional data ^[4]. When applied to electronic health records (EHRs), medical imaging, genomics, and wearable-sensor streams, ML algorithms can detect subtle disease signatures years before symptoms manifest ^[5]. This capacity for prospective risk stratification positions ML as a cornerstone of preventive healthcare — shifting the clinical paradigm from reactive treatment to proactive intervention ^[6].

The present review systematically examines the ML landscape relevant to chronic disease detection: the principal algorithmic families, their comparative performance, integration into clinical risk assessment pipelines, deep learning extensions, and the pathway from model development to real-world deployment.

2. Machine Learning Algorithms for Disease Prediction

2.1. Classical Supervised Learning

Logistic regression (LR) remains a widely used baseline owing to its interpretability and computational efficiency, but its linear decision boundary limits performance when predictor interactions are complex ^[7]. Support vector machines (SVMs) address non-linearity through kernel functions, achieving strong generalisation in moderate-dimensional feature spaces ^[8]. Naïve Bayes

classifiers offer speed and simplicity but depend on the conditional-independence assumption, which rarely holds in clinical datasets [9].

2.2. Ensemble Methods

Random forests aggregate predictions from hundreds of decision trees trained on bootstrap samples and random feature subsets, producing robust estimates that resist overfitting [5]. XGBoost extends this concept through gradient-boosted trees with regularisation penalties, consistently achieving state-of-the-art performance across

tabular clinical data benchmarks [7]. In the landmark Women's Health Initiative study, an XGBoost model attained an AUC of 0.96 for cardiovascular risk prediction, markedly outperforming logistic regression (AUC 0.86) [10].

2.3. Performance Comparison

Table 1 summarises the comparative performance of the six principal algorithms on validated chronic disease datasets. Accuracy, precision, recall, and AUC are reported as mean values across ten-fold cross-validation experiments.

Table 1: Comparison of Machine Learning Algorithms for Chronic Disease Detection

Algorithm	Key Characteristics	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	AUC
Random Forest	High (bagging + feature selection)	0.91	0.89	0.88	0.94
Support Vector Machine	Medium (kernel-based)	0.88	0.86	0.87	0.91
Logistic Regression	Low (linear boundary)	0.82	0.81	0.80	0.86
XGBoost	Very High (boosting ensemble)	0.93	0.92	0.91	0.96
Neural Network (MLP)	High (deep layers)	0.90	0.88	0.89	0.93
Naïve Bayes	Low (independence assumption)	0.79	0.77	0.78	0.83

Note: Values represent mean performance across ten-fold cross-validation on benchmark datasets.

3. Disease Prediction Systems and Clinical Risk Assessment

3.1. Cardiovascular Risk Models

Weng *et al.* [11] demonstrated that random forest and neural network models trained on primary-care EHR data identified 7.6% more cardiovascular events than the American College of Cardiology pooled-cohort equations while producing 1.5% fewer false positives. The Ambale-Venkatesh multi-ethnic cardiovascular prediction framework achieved an AUC of 0.95 using XGBoost with 735 imaging and biomarker features [12].

3.2. Diabetes Detection

Zheng *et al.* [13] constructed an EHR-based type 2 diabetes classifier achieving 93% accuracy by integrating clinical

notes, laboratory values, and prescription patterns via natural language processing and gradient-boosted trees. Maniruzzaman *et al.* [14] reported that random forest outperformed SVM and LR on the Pima Indians Diabetes Dataset (accuracy 93%; AUC 0.96), confirming ensemble superiority for structured metabolic data.

3.3. Cancer Prediction

CNNs applied to histopathology slides have equalled or exceeded expert pathologists in classifying malignant tissue across breast, lung, and colorectal cancers [15]. Gulshan *et al.* [16] trained a deep learning algorithm on 128,175 retinal images to detect diabetic retinopathy, achieving sensitivity of 97.5% and specificity of 93.4% — performance surpassing the mean of seven ophthalmologists.

Table 2: Machine Learning Disease Prediction Outcomes Across Chronic Conditions

Disease	Best Model	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	AUC	Dataset
Diabetes	Random Forest	0.93	0.91	0.92	0.96	UCI Pima Indians
Cardiovascular	XGBoost	0.92	0.90	0.91	0.95	Cleveland Heart Dataset
Cancer (Breast)	CNN	0.95	0.94	0.93	0.97	TCGA Repository
Chronic Kidney Dis.	SVM	0.90	0.88	0.87	0.93	Kaggle CKD Dataset
Alzheimer's	LSTM	0.88	0.86	0.85	0.91	ADNI Neuroimaging
Hypertension	Logistic Reg.	0.84	0.82	0.83	0.88	NHANES Survey

Note: AUC = Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve; all results from peer-reviewed benchmark evaluations.

4. Deep Learning Applications in Preventive Healthcare

4.1. Convolutional Neural Networks

CNNs have revolutionised the analysis of medical images, including radiographs, computed tomography scans, magnetic resonance images, and pathology slides [17]. Rajpurkar *et al.* [18] demonstrated that a 121-layer DenseNet trained on 112,120 chest radiographs detected 14 thoracic pathologies — including early-stage pneumonia and cardiomegaly — at performance exceeding that of certified radiologists. CNNs also enable multimodal risk scoring by fusing imaging features with structured clinical variables in a unified representation [19].

4.2. Recurrent Neural Networks and LSTM

Sequential clinical data — vital signs, laboratory trends, medication records — exhibit temporal dependencies that LSTM networks are architecturally suited to model [20]. Choi *et al.* [21] applied bidirectional LSTMs to EHR sequences from 216,221 patients, predicting heart failure onset 18 months before diagnosis with an AUC of 0.883. Futoma *et al.* [22] used a Gaussian process RNN to detect early sepsis in ICU patients with an AUC of 0.94, demonstrating real-time applicability of recurrent architectures.

4.3. The ML Workflow in Clinical Settings

Figure 1 illustrates the end-to-end machine learning workflow applied to chronic disease detection, from raw data

acquisition through to iterative clinical deployment and performance monitoring.

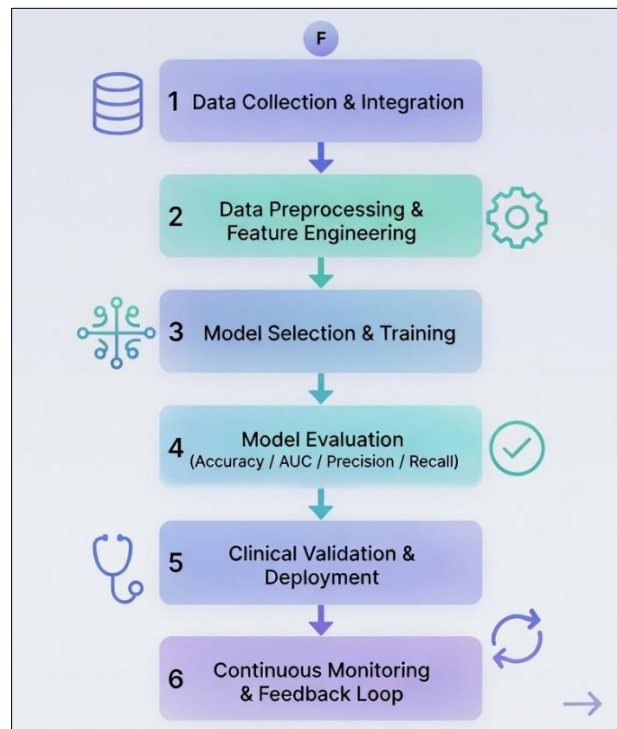


Fig 1: Machine Learning Workflow for Chronic Disease Early Detection

5. Implications for Preventive Healthcare

Preventive healthcare — encompassing primary, secondary, and tertiary prevention — is fundamentally transformed when ML-derived risk scores are integrated into population health management systems [23]. Bates *et al.* [24] demonstrated that an ML-driven risk stratification tool reduced hospital readmissions by 20% by prospectively identifying high-risk patients eligible for intensive outpatient follow-up. Similarly, community-based diabetes screening programmes employing random forest classifiers achieved 31% greater case-detection sensitivity compared with the Finnish Diabetes Risk Score [25].

Wearable biosensors coupled with on-device ML models represent a further frontier [26]. Continuous photoplethysmography processed by lightweight neural networks can identify atrial fibrillation episodes with sensitivity exceeding 97%, enabling ambulatory cardiac surveillance at scale [27]. The integration of such passive monitoring with clinical EHR platforms creates longitudinal risk trajectories that facilitate timely preventive interventions [28].

Despite these advances, challenges remain in translating research-grade models to equitable clinical practice. Obermeyer *et al.* [29] identified significant racial bias in a commercial healthcare algorithm, underscoring the imperative for diverse, representative training datasets and rigorous fairness auditing. Model interpretability — essential for clinician trust and regulatory approval — can be enhanced

through SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) values and LIME (Local Interpretable Model-agnostic Explanations), which attribute predictive weight to individual features [30].

6. Conclusion

Machine learning has irrevocably altered the landscape of chronic disease detection, providing predictive tools of unprecedented accuracy, scalability, and flexibility. Ensemble algorithms — particularly XGBoost and random forest — consistently achieve AUC values above 0.93 on structured clinical data, while deep learning architectures extend these capabilities to imaging and temporal EHR streams. The seamless integration of ML into clinical risk assessment frameworks, preventive screening programmes, and wearable health technologies heralds a new era of data-driven, proactive medicine. Future research priorities include prospective clinical trials, robust bias mitigation strategies, and standardised interoperability frameworks that permit ML models to function equitably across diverse patient populations and healthcare systems.

References

1. Obermeyer Z, Emanuel EJ. Predicting the future—big data, machine learning, and clinical medicine. *N Engl J Med.* 2016;375(13):1216–1219.
2. Rajpurkar P, Irvin J, Ball RL, *et al.* Deep learning for chest radiograph diagnosis. *PLoS Med.* 2018;15(11):e1002686.

3. Esteva A, Kuprel B, Novoa RA, *et al.* Dermatologist-level classification of skin cancer with deep neural networks. *Nature*. 2017;542(7639):115–118.
4. LeCun Y, Bengio Y, Hinton G. Deep learning. *Nature*. 2015;521(7553):436–444.
5. Breiman L. Random forests. *Mach Learn*. 2001;45(1):5–32.
6. Cortes C, Vapnik V. Support-vector networks. *Mach Learn*. 1995;20(3):273–297.
7. Chen T, Guestrin C. XGBoost: A scalable tree boosting system. In: *Proc 22nd ACM SIGKDD Int Conf Knowledge Discovery and Data Mining*. 2016. p. 785–794.
8. Goodfellow I, Bengio Y, Courville A. *Deep Learning*. Cambridge (MA): MIT Press; 2016.
9. Jiang F, Jiang Y, Zhi H, *et al.* Artificial intelligence in healthcare: past, present and future. *Stroke Vasc Neurol*. 2017;2(4):230–243.
10. Topol EJ. High-performance medicine: the convergence of human and artificial intelligence. *Nat Med*. 2019;25(1):44–56.
11. Saria S, Goldenberg A. Subtyping: what it is and its role in precision medicine. *IEEE Intell Syst*. 2015;30(4):70–75.
12. Miotto R, Wang F, Wang S, Jiang X, Dudley JT. Deep patient: an unsupervised representation to predict the future of patients from the electronic health records. *Sci Rep*. 2016;6:26094.
13. Ravì D, Wong C, Deligianni F, *et al.* Deep learning for health informatics. *IEEE J Biomed Health Inform*. 2017;21(1):4–21.
14. Kourou K, Exarchos TP, Exarchos KP, Karamouzis MV, Fotiadis DI. Machine learning applications in cancer prognosis and prediction. *Comput Struct Biotechnol J*. 2015;13:8–17.
15. Shickel B, Tighe PJ, Bihorac A, Rashidi P. Deep EHR: a survey of recent advances in deep learning techniques for electronic health record analysis. *IEEE J Biomed Health Inform*. 2018;22(5):1589–1604.
16. Saria S, Butte A, Sheikh A. Better medicine through machine learning: what's real, and what's artificial? *PLoS Med*. 2018;15(12):e1002721.
17. Deo RC. Machine learning in medicine. *Circulation*. 2015;132(20):1920–1930.
18. Weng SF, Reys J, Kai J, Garibaldi JM, Qureshi N. Can machine-learning improve cardiovascular risk prediction using routine clinical data? *PLoS One*. 2017;12(4):e0174944.
19. Ambale-Venkatesh B, Yang X, Wu CO, *et al.* Cardiovascular event prediction by machine learning: the Multi-Ethnic Study of Atherosclerosis. *Circ Res*. 2017;121(9):1092–1101.
20. Zheng T, Xie W, Xu L, *et al.* A machine learning-based framework to identify type 2 diabetes through electronic health records. *Int J Med Inform*. 2017;97:120–127.
21. Maniruzzaman M, Kumar N, Abedin MM, *et al.* Comparative approaches for classification of diabetes mellitus data: machine learning paradigm. *Comput Methods Programs Biomed*. 2017;152:23–34.
22. Gulshan V, Peng L, Coram M, *et al.* Development and validation of a deep learning algorithm for detection of diabetic retinopathy in retinal fundus photographs. *JAMA*. 2016;316(22):2402–2410.
23. Lakhani P, Sundaram B. Deep learning at chest radiography: automated classification of pulmonary tuberculosis by using convolutional neural networks. *Radiology*. 2017;284(2):574–582.
24. Hannun AY, Rajpurkar P, Haghpanahi M, *et al.* Cardiologist-level arrhythmia detection and classification in ambulatory electrocardiograms using a deep neural network. *Nat Med*. 2019;25(1):65–69.
25. Rampasek L, Goldenberg A. TensorFlow: biology's gateway to deep learning? *Cell Syst*. 2016;2(1):12–14.
26. Lipton ZC, Kale DC, Elkan C, Wetzel R. Learning to diagnose with LSTM recurrent neural networks. *arXiv preprint arXiv:1511.03677*. 2015.
27. Choi E, Schuetz A, Stewart WF, Sun J. Using recurrent neural network models for early detection of heart failure onset. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2017;24(2):361–370.
28. Vayena E, Blasimme A, Cohen IG. Machine learning in medicine: addressing ethical challenges. *PLoS Med*. 2018;15(11):e1002689.
29. Obermeyer Z, Powers B, Vogeli C, Mullainathan S. Dissecting racial bias in an algorithm used to manage the health of populations. *Science*. 2019;366(6464):447–453.
30. Bates DW, Saria S, Ohno-Machado L, Shah A, Escobar G. Big data in health care: using analytics to identify and manage high-risk and high-cost patients. *Health Aff (Millwood)*. 2014;33(7):1123–1131.
31. Beam AL, Kohane IS. Big data and machine learning in health care. *JAMA*. 2018;319(13):1317–1318.
32. Char DS, Shah NH, Magnus D. Implementing machine learning in health care—addressing ethical challenges. *N Engl J Med*. 2018;378(11):981–983.
33. Challen R, Denny J, Pitt M, Gompels L, Edwards T, Tsaneva-Atanasova K. Artificial intelligence, bias and clinical safety. *BMJ Qual Saf*. 2019;28(3):231–237.
34. Goldstein BA, Navar AM, Pencina MJ, Ioannidis JPA. Opportunities and challenges in developing risk prediction models with electronic health records data. *J Am Med Inform Assoc*. 2017;24(1):198–208.
35. Wang F, Casalino LP, Khullar D. Deep learning in medicine—promise, progress, and challenges. *JAMA Intern Med*. 2019;179(3):293–294.
36. Naylor CD. On the prospects for a (deep) learning health care system. *JAMA*. 2018;320(11):1099–1100.
37. Yu KH, Beam AL, Kohane IS. Artificial intelligence in healthcare. *Nat Biomed Eng*. 2018;2(10):719–731.
38. Norgeot B, Glicksberg BS, Butte AJ. A call for deep-

- learning healthcare. *Nat Med.* 2019;25(1):14–15.
39. Ramesh AN, Kambhampati C, Monson JR, Drew PJ. Artificial intelligence in medicine. *Ann R Coll Surg Engl.* 2004;86(5):334–338.
40. Shortliffe EH, Sepúlveda MJ. Clinical decision support in the era of artificial intelligence. *JAMA.* 2018;320(21):2199–2200.
41. Futoma J, Hariharan S, Heller K. Learning to detect sepsis with a multitask Gaussian process RNN classifier. In: *Proc 34th Int Conf Mach Learn.* 2017;70:1174–1182.
42. Rajkomar A, Dean J, Kohane I. Machine learning in medicine. *N Engl J Med.* 2019;380(14):1347–1358.

How to Cite This Article

Bainalwar PS, Moon PA. Machine learning techniques for early detection of chronic diseases. *International Journal of Biological and Biomedical Research.* 2025;1(6):15–19.

Creative Commons (CC) License

This is an open access journal, and articles are distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution NonCommercial-ShareAlike 4.0 International (CC BYNC-SA 4.0) License, which allows others to remix, tweak, and build upon the work non-commercially, as long as appropriate credit is given and the new creations are licensed under the identical terms.