

Predicting Diabetes in Canadian Adults Using Machine Learning

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Abstract—Rising diabetes rates have led to increased healthcare costs and health complications. An estimated half of diabetes cases remain undiagnosed. Early and accurate diagnosis is crucial to mitigate disease progression and associated risks. This study addresses the challenge of predicting diabetes prevalence in Canadian adults by employing machine learning (ML) techniques to primary care data. We leveraged the Canadian Primary Care Sentinel Surveillance Network (CPCSSN), Canada's premier multi-disease electronic medical record surveillance system, and developed and validated seven ML classification models to predict the likelihood of diabetes. The models were trained on clinical patient characteristics influential in predicting diabetes. We found XGBoost performed best out of all the models, with an AUC of 92%. The most important features contributing to model prediction were HbA1c level, LDL, and hypertension medication. Our research aims to aid healthcare professionals in early diagnosis and to identify key patient characteristics for targeted interventions. This study contributes to an understanding of how ML can enhance public health planning and reduce healthcare system burdens.

I. INTRODUCTION

Diabetes, a chronic metabolic disease characterized by hyperglycemia, is one of the largest global health emergencies of the 21st century [1, 2]. Diabetes rates continue to rise worldwide, as do the number of people experiencing acute and chronic complications. High blood glucose is estimated to be the third highest risk factor for premature mortality globally [3]. Canada has also seen rising rates of diabetes. As of 2022, 8.9% of the population had been diagnosed with diabetes, and prevalence has increased by an average of 3.3% per year [4, 5]. Diabetes is the leading cause of blindness, non-traumatic amputation, and end-stage renal disease in Canadian adults [3]. The cost of diabetes in Canada was estimated at \$15.36 billion in 2022 [6]. However, it is also estimated that half of diabetes cases go undiagnosed, meaning the true population burden is higher than reported [7]. Early and accurate diagnosis and treatment of diabetes are imperative to prevent further disease progression and complications such as diabetic retinopathy, cardiovascular events and mortality [1].

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Advancements in machine learning (ML) offer promising avenues for enhancing disease prediction and management. ML models have shown success in various medical applications, particularly in the efficient handling of large datasets to identify complex patterns that traditional statistical methods might miss. They have been used in the prediction, classification, and management of diabetes [1, 8–14]. However, the majority of existing research focuses on non-Canadian populations, which may not capture the unique aspects of the Canadian healthcare system and its demographic nuances [11].

This study aims to bridge this gap by utilizing a comprehensive array of ML models to analyze data from the Canadian Primary Care Sentinel Surveillance Network (CPCSSN) [15], the first multi-disease electronic medical record surveillance system in Canada. This dataset provides a rich resource for developing predictive models that are more applicable to the Canadian context. Our research addresses two research questions:

RQ1: Can we predict diabetes prevalence in Canadian adults accurately by comparing the performance of seven ML models: logistic regression (LR), decision tree (DT), random forest (RF), XGBoost (XGB), support vector machine (SVM), combined naive Bayes (CNB), and an artificial neural network (ANN)?

RQ2: Which clinical patient characteristics are most influential in the best-performing ML model's prediction of diabetes prevalence in Canadian adults?

The novelty of our work lies in its comprehensive comparison of multiple ML models applied to a Canadian dataset, which is expected to yield insights specifically beneficial for enhancing public health strategies and healthcare resource allocation within Canada. By improving early diagnosis and intervention strategies, our study contributes to the ongoing efforts to reduce the diabetes burden both nationally and globally. Additionally, a systematic review of predictive machine learning diabetes models found a large variety in both the number and type of features included in models, indicating a lack of consensus [1]. Our study may clarify the utility of clinical and biomarker data available in the health records of many patients.

II. METHODS

A. Data collection and preparation

This study used data from the Canadian Primary Care Sentinel Surveillance Network (CPCSSN), a network encompassing eight provinces and one territory, with over two million patients and 1,500 primary care clinicians [15].

CPCSSN extracts de-identified electronic medical records from primary care practices in Canada and applies cleaning, coding, and standardization algorithms to transform the data for use in quality improvement, surveillance, and research [15]. Diabetes cases are defined as type 2 diabetes mellitus, controlled or uncontrolled, excluding gestational diabetes, chemically induced diabetes, neonatal diabetes, hyperglycemia, prediabetes, or similar states or conditions [16]. The data set for this study was generated by CPCSSN and shared with the research team. This was done by pulling patients aged 18 and up with a blood pressure reading and joining records that were the closest in time for other measurements (e.g., ± 1 year). Patients on insulin were removed. The final data set is a random subset of 10,000 observations from the original CPCSSN data set who had a blood pressure reading at their primary care providers' offices between 2004 and 2014.

Data exploration included examining the extent of missing data in each variable, the variables' distribution and central tendencies, and observing continuous variables' correlations for potential collinearity. Missing values were addressed through multiple imputations by chained equations (MICE) for variables with under 10% missing (this cutoff was chosen to minimize introduced bias) [17]. We performed data standardization and feature selection prior to the train/test splitting. In the case of two collinear variables, we selected one based on the strength of the association with the outcome in the literature. The final predictor variables used in all models were age, sex, systolic blood pressure (sBP), body mass index (BMI), low-density lipoprotein (LDL), high-density lipoprotein (HDL), HbA1c, triglycerides (TG), depression, hypertension, osteoarthritis, chronic obstructive pulmonary disease (COPD), use of hypertension medications and use of corticosteroids. For patients with multiple appointments, only data from the last visit were included. The final data set contained 8,602 observations.

B. Development of predictive models

We first held out a random 15% of the data for validation. Then, we randomly split the remaining data into 70% training and 30% testing. We used the training data to train the seven models (LR, SVM, DT, RF, XGBoost, CNB and ANN). Subsequently, we used the testing data to evaluate how well the models perform on unseen data (via confusion matrices and utility functions for accuracy, precision, recall, F1 score, and area under the receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curve (AUC)). A 5-fold cross-validation with grid-search was used to tune model hyperparameters to obtain the set of optimal hyperparameters that yielded the highest AUC. We tested multiple ANN models with varying configurations (number of hidden layers and type of regularization) to compare performance and reported the results for the ANN with the highest accuracy. We selected the best model based on an overall assessment of performance metrics and validated it on the held-out data set to approximate external validation. We also conducted a feature importance analysis of the best model using SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations).

TABLE I: Clinical patient characteristics. Descriptive statistics are mean [SD] or counts (%). P-values generated from t-test.

Variable	Diabetic	Non-diabetic	p-value
n (%)	4142 (48)	4460 (52)	—
Age at exam (years)	65 [12]	61 [14]	< 0.001
Gender (males)	2104 (51)	1885 (42)	< 0.001
sBP (mmHg)	131.2 [16.8]	129.0 [17.0]	< 0.001
Body Mass Index	31.6 [7.0]	29.1 [6.5]	< 0.001
LDL (mmol/L)	2.2 [0.9]	2.9 [0.9]	< 0.001
HDL (mmol/L)	1.2 [0.4]	1.4 [0.4]	< 0.001
HbA1c (mg/dL)	6.8 [1.1]	5.7 [0.4]	< 0.001
Triglycerides (mmol/L)	1.7 [1.1]	1.4 [0.9]	< 0.001
Depression	828 (20)	981 (22)	0.007
Hypertension	2941 (71)	2368 (53)	< 0.001
Osteoarthritis	1364 (33)	1264 (28)	< 0.001
COPD	437 (11)	387 (28)	0.003
Hypertension Med	3422 (83)	2429 (54)	< 0.001
Corticosteroids	1182 (29)	1221 (27)	0.231

Missing data: n (D:ND): sBP 4 (2:2), LDL 52 (33:19), HDL 68 (20:48), TG 51 (17:34).

To ensure replicability and facilitate further research, the source code of all the presented machine learning models is available on GitHub¹.

III. RESULTS

A total of 4,412 (48%) diabetic and 4,460 (52%) non-diabetic patients were included in this data set for a total of $n = 8,872$ unique adult patients. The patients in the diabetic data set were 51% male, with a mean age of 65 years (standard deviation [SD] 12 years), and those in the non-diabetic data set were 42% male with a mean age of 61 (SD 14) (see Table I for participant demographics). The majority of diabetic individuals (83%) were prescribed hypertension medication, compared to nearly half (54%) in non-diabetic individuals. Patients with diabetes presented a higher average concentration of HbA1c (mg/dL) levels.

The optimal set of hyperparameters for each model is summarized in Table II. From the seven predictive models tested, we deemed the tuned XGBoost classifier as the best-performing model based on its high AUC (92%) (Figure 1; Table III). The XGBoost model was then tested on the held-out validation set. This yielded the following performance metrics in non-diabetic and diabetic patients: 80% precision (ND), 87% recall (ND), F1 score of 83% (ND), 87% precision (D), 79% recall (D), F1 score 83% (D), 83% accuracy, AUC 90%, and a macro-average of 83%. SHAP analysis of the XGBoost model revealed the five most influential features were HbA1c, LDL, hypertension medication, HDL, and BMI (mean SHAP values 2.10, 0.34, 0.22, 0.16, and 0.14, respectively) (Figure 2).

IV. DISCUSSION

The main goal of this study was to determine the best model to predict diabetes prevalence by comparing the performance of seven ML models and identifying the most influential clinical patient characteristics in the model's predictions. The use of seven ML model architectures allowed

¹<https://github.com/andysontran/ieee-embc-2024-diabetes-i>

TABLE II: Classifiers and their tuned hyperparameters

Model	Hyperparameters	Parameters	Selections
LR	C penalty solver	[0.01, 0.1, 1, 10] ['l1', 'l2'] ['liblinear', 'saga']	1 'l1' 'liblinear'
DT	max_depth min_samples_leaf	[5, 10, 15, 20] [5, 10, 15, 20]	5 10
RF	n_estimators max_depth min_samples_leaf	[10, 50, 100, 200] [5, 10, 15] [15, 20, 25]	200 15 15
XGBoost	n_estimators learning_rate max_depth gamma reg_lambda reg_alpha	[50, 100, 200] [0.01, 0.1, 0.2] [3, 5, 7] [0, 0.1, 0.2] [0, 1, 5] [0, 1, 5]	100 0.1 3 0.2 5 1
SVM	kernel C gamma class_weight	['rbf'] [0.01, 0.1, 1, 10] [0.01, 1, 10] [None, 'balanced']	'rbf' 1 0.01 'balanced'
CNB	GNB: smoothing BNB: alpha	np.logspace(0, -9, 10) np.logspace(0, -9, 10)	0.001 1
ANN	layers hidden_units lambda epochs learning_rate LR_scheduling batch_size regularization	[1, 2] [64, 128, 256] [0.001, 0.01, 0.1] [500, 1000] [0.0001, 0.001, 0.01, 0.1] [0.9] [32, 64, 128] ['dropout', 'l2']	2 128 0.01 500 0.001 0.9 64 'l2'

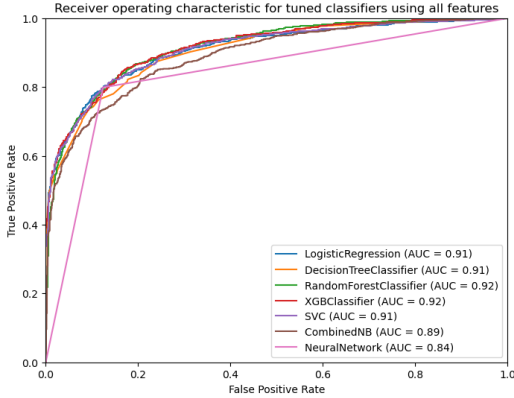


Fig. 1: ROC curves for tuned classifiers and neural network models on the test dataset.

for a comprehensive comparison of methods to evaluate predictive accuracy and recall, while limiting overfitting through the use of cross-validation. We observed consistent predictive performance of the tuned XGBoost classifier across the training, testing, and validation datasets. Furthermore, visual inspection of the ROC curves suggests that the XGBoost classifier has a smoother shape. This indicates less instability in its predictions and thus less overfitting. We identified XGBoost as the best-performing model based on these characteristics. The high AUC indicated the model performs well at distinguishing positive and negative diabetes classes, and the validation results mean the model can generalize well to real-world clinical settings compared to the other classifiers. These findings align with existing literature on diabetes prediction using ML. One study compared SVM, K-Nearest Neighbours (KNN), NB, DT, LR, and XGBoost algorithms for diabetes prediction using physical examination data and found XGBoost had the highest accuracy (81%),

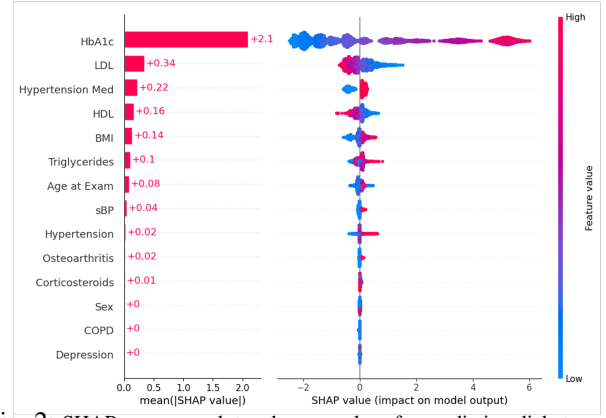


Fig. 2: SHAP summary plot and mean values for predicting diabetes using the tuned XGBoost model.

similar to our model's accuracy of 83% [18]. In another study by Li et al. (2020), the authors also used CPCSSN data to compare the performance of LR, Gradient Boosting Method (GBM), DT, and RF models in predicting diabetes, using parameters age, BMI, TG, FBS, sBP, HDL, and LDL [11]. They found GBM and LR outperformed RF and DT, with 85% and 84% AUC and 72% and 73% sensitivity, respectively [11]. Our XGBoost model has higher AUC and sensitivity (recall) scores than the other study's GBM model, as XGBoost is a more regularized form of GBM which contributes to improved model generalization capabilities [19]. Our models also included additional clinical features, which could contribute to improved performance.

SHAP analysis provides insights into how ML algorithms reach their decisions and the main driving factors for disease prediction in models [20]. In this study, SHAP revealed the most important features for prediction (Figure 2). For example, a mean SHAP value of 2.10 for HbA1c implies that this feature contributes positively to the model's prediction across multiple instances. This may have useful clinical applications as these features could be prioritized for clinical monitoring of patients at risk of developing diabetes. These insights may also contribute to clinicians' interpretation and acceptability of the model, especially if the selected features are physiologically plausible. Finally, when validating the model on unseen data, the AUC (91%) and accuracy (83%) remained high. This suggests the model generalizes fairly well, indicating that it has learned patterns that are applicable beyond the training data.

Our XGBoost model could potentially serve as a valuable tool for physicians in diagnosing or identifying the risk of diabetes in Canadian patients. The current standard procedures for identifying prediabetes typically rely on an FBS range of 6.1-6.9 [21]. However, HbA1c might offer a more comprehensive assessment. Unlike FBS, HbA1c reflects an average of blood sugar levels over the past 2-3 months, providing a more holistic view of glycemic control [22]. By incorporating HbA1c along with other traditionally significant features in diabetes onset, our model aims to enhance diagnostic accuracy. This refinement could potentially lead to more precise identification and management of individuals at risk of developing diabetes. Additionally, the results of our

TABLE III: Comparison of performance metrics between LR, DT, RF, XGB, SVM, CNB and ANN algorithms in predicting diabetes prevalence in the test dataset.

Models	Non-Diabetic			Diabetic			Overall Model Performance		
	Precision	Recall	F1	Precision	Recall	F1	Accuracy	Macro Avg.	AUC
Logistic Regression	84%	86%	85%	84%	81%	82%	84%	84%	91%
Decision Tree	81%	89%	84%	86%	76%	81%	83%	83%	91%
Random Forest	82%	87%	85%	85%	79%	82%	84%	83%	92%
XGBoost	83%	87%	85%	84%	80%	82%	83%	83%	92%
Support Vector Machine	83%	87%	85%	85%	80%	83%	84%	84%	91%
Combined Naive Bayes	81%	83%	82%	81%	77%	79%	81%	81%	89%
Neural Network	83%	88%	86%	86%	80%	83%	84%	84%	84%

Note: Bold refers to highest metric(s) in column

study are likely to be generalizable given the large, nationally representative sample.

Several limitations of this work should be considered. Firstly, this study was conducted retrospectively, therefore causation cannot be inferred based on the associations found by our predictive models. Secondly, data for this analysis were only captured until 2014, therefore it may not be reflective of current diabetes prevalence or risk factors. Thirdly, our dataset did not contain a race or ethnicity variable, which limited our ability to explore the impact of race or ethnicity on diabetes prevalence. Future work should use a timely database and investigate differential risks for various sexes, ethnicities, and socioeconomic groups, as marginalized populations have been demonstrated to experience disproportionately higher diabetes risk [23].

V. CONCLUSION

This study used Canadian surveillance data to evaluate and compare seven machine learning models to predict diabetes prevalence and identify specific clinical characteristics most important in this prediction. Our analysis identified the XGBoost algorithm as the top-performing model with an AUC of 92%, indicating high predictive accuracy. The top five most influential features of the model were HbA1c, LDL, hypertension medication use, HDL, and BMI. These findings may be disseminated into clinical settings to assist with diagnosis and risk identification, which can inform patient care and resource allocation. For example, interventions for preventing diabetes may consider targeting risk factors through diet, exercise or medication. Earlier diagnosis of diabetes can reduce disease burden and overall health system costs.

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