

# Diabetes Disease Prediction using Machine Learning: A Comparative Study

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**Abstract**—This paper presents a comprehensive machine learning approach to predict the likelihood of diabetes in patients using the Pima Indians Diabetes Database. The study involves detailed data cleaning including handling of physiologically implausible zero values, exploratory data analysis (EDA) to understand feature relationships, and the systematic training, evaluation, and comparison of several supervised learning models: Logistic Regression, K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), Support Vector Machines (SVM), Decision Trees, and Random Forests. Model performance is assessed using accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and AUC-ROC metrics. Hyperparameter tuning using GridSearchCV with cross-validation was performed to optimize each model. The results demonstrate the effectiveness of these models, with Logistic Regression achieving a competitive accuracy of approximately 77%, balancing performance with interpretability. This study highlights the importance of a structured methodology in developing predictive models for healthcare applications and discusses the clinical relevance and limitations of the findings.

**Index Terms**—Diabetes Prediction, Machine Learning, Classification, Pima Indians Diabetes Database, Data Preprocessing, Model Evaluation, Logistic Regression, Random Forest, SVM, KNN, Decision Tree, Healthcare Analytics.

## I. INTRODUCTION

Diabetes Mellitus is a significant global health concern, characterized by chronic hyperglycemia resulting from defects in insulin secretion or action [1]. Its prevalence is rapidly increasing worldwide, leading to substantial morbidity, mortality, and economic burden due to severe long-term complications affecting cardiovascular, renal, ocular, and nervous systems [2], [3]. Early detection and intervention are crucial for managing diabetes effectively and mitigating its adverse consequences. Machine learning (ML) techniques offer powerful tools for analyzing complex medical data and identifying individuals at high risk, potentially enabling earlier and more personalized interventions than traditional methods [4].

This project aims to apply and systematically compare several well-established supervised ML algorithms for predicting diabetes using the publicly available Pima Indians Diabetes Database [5]. While specific to one population, this dataset serves as a valuable benchmark. The objectives include rigorous data preprocessing, thorough exploratory data analysis, implementation and optimization of Logistic Regression, KNN, SVM, Decision Tree, and Random Forest models, comprehensive performance evaluation using multiple metrics, and interpretation of the results within a clinical context. The significance lies in providing a clear comparison

of standard models on a common task, potentially aiding healthcare professionals in understanding the capabilities and limitations of ML in this domain.

## II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Numerous studies have applied ML to diabetes prediction. Early works often used Logistic Regression and Decision Trees [6], [7]. SVM and ensemble methods like Random Forests have shown strong performance in subsequent studies, often benchmarked on the Pima dataset [8], [9]. Deep learning approaches represent a more recent trend, sometimes achieving higher accuracy but facing interpretability challenges [10]. Comparative analyses highlight that model performance varies depending on data characteristics and methodology [11]. This study adds to this literature by providing a focused comparison of five standard classifiers with detailed methodology and evaluation on the Pima dataset.

## III. DATASET DESCRIPTION

The Pima Indians Diabetes Database [5] contains data from 768 female patients of Pima Indian heritage aged 21 years or older. It includes 8 predictor features and one binary outcome variable (0: non-diabetic, 1: diabetic). **Features:**

- Pregnancies: Number of times pregnant.
- Glucose: Plasma glucose concentration (2 hr post-OGTT, mg/dL).
- BloodPressure: Diastolic blood pressure (mm Hg).
- SkinThickness: Triceps skin fold thickness (mm).
- Insulin: 2-Hour serum insulin ( $\mu$ U/ml).
- BMI: Body Mass Index ( $\text{kg/m}^2$ ).
- DiabetesPedigreeFunction: Score indicating genetic predisposition based on family history.
- Age: Patient's age (years).

Initial inspection reveals physiologically implausible zero values in Glucose, BloodPressure, SkinThickness, Insulin, and BMI, treated as missing data. The dataset has a class imbalance, with approximately 65.1% non-diabetic (500 instances) and 34.9% diabetic (268 instances). This imbalance necessitates careful evaluation using metrics beyond simple accuracy. Table ?? (placeholder) would show detailed descriptive statistics.

## IV. METHODOLOGY

### A. Data Cleaning and Preprocessing

Data quality is paramount for reliable modeling. The preprocessing involved several steps:

- **Handling Missing Values:** The implausible zero values in Glucose, BloodPressure, SkinThickness, Insulin, and BMI were replaced using median imputation. The median of the non-zero values for each respective column was calculated and used for replacement, chosen for its robustness to outliers compared to the mean.
- **Outlier Management:** Outliers were identified using the Interquartile Range (IQR) method (values outside  $Q1 - 1.5 \cdot IQR$  and  $Q3 + 1.5 \cdot IQR$ ). Given the medical context, outliers were not automatically removed but were carefully reviewed. For features with extreme skewness (like Insulin), capping (Winsorization) at the 1st and 99th percentiles was considered to limit their influence without discarding potentially valid data.
- **Feature Scaling:** To ensure that features with larger ranges do not dominate distance-based or gradient-based algorithms (KNN, SVM, LR), StandardScaler from scikit-learn was applied after the train-test split. This transforms features to have zero mean and unit variance (Z-score normalization), preventing data leakage from the test set.

### B. Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA)

EDA was performed to gain insights into the data structure and feature relationships:

- **Univariate Analysis:** Histograms and box plots were generated for each feature (post-preprocessing) to understand their distributions, central tendencies, spread, and skewness.
- **Bivariate Analysis:** Relationships between features and the outcome were explored using grouped box plots (e.g., Glucose distribution for diabetic vs. non-diabetic). Scatter plots were used to examine correlations between pairs of continuous features.
- **Correlation Analysis:** A Pearson correlation matrix heatmap (Figure ??, placeholder) was generated to visualize linear relationships between predictor variables, identifying potential multicollinearity.

### C. Data Splitting

The preprocessed dataset was split into an 80% training set and a 20% testing set using scikit-learn's 'train\_test\_split'. Stratification based on the 'Outcome' variable was employed to maintain the high-risk class proportion in both sets, crucial for

### D. Model Building and Implementation

Five standard supervised learning models were implemented using scikit-learn [12]:

- **Logistic Regression (LR):** A linear model estimating class probabilities via the sigmoid function. Interpretable coefficients.
- **K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN):** Non-parametric instance-based learner classifying based on the majority class among 'k' nearest neighbors.

- **Support Vector Machine (SVM):** Finds an optimal separating hyperplane, using kernels (e.g., linear, RBF) for non-linearities.
- **Decision Tree (DT):** Tree-based model partitioning data based on feature thresholds. Interpretable but prone to overfitting.
- **Random Forest (RF):** Ensemble of decision trees, reducing variance and improving robustness through bagging and feature randomness.

### E. Hyperparameter Tuning

Optimal hyperparameters for each model were identified using GridSearchCV with 5-fold cross-validation on the training set. This involved defining a search space (grid) of parameters for each model (e.g., 'C' for LR/SVM, 'k' for KNN, 'max\_depth' for DT/RF) and evaluating all combinations to find the one with the best validation performance (e.g., based on AUC or accuracy). Table ?? (placeholder)

### F. Model Evaluation Metrics

Model performance on the unseen test set was assessed using:

- **Confusion Matrix:** Visualizing TP, TN, FP, FN counts.
- **Accuracy:** Overall correct predictions  $((TP+TN)/Total)$ .
- **Precision:**  $TP / (TP + FP)$  - Accuracy of positive predictions.
- **Recall (Sensitivity):**  $TP / (TP + FN)$  - Ability to find actual positives.
- **F1-Score:** Harmonic mean of Precision and Recall  $(2 \cdot Prec \cdot Rec / (Prec + Rec))$ .
- **AUC-ROC:** Area under the ROC curve (TPR vs. FPR), measuring discriminative ability across thresholds.

These metrics provide a balanced view, especially given the class imbalance.

## V. RESULTS

Following training and hyperparameter optimization using GridSearchCV, the selected models were evaluated on the held-out 20% test set. The Logistic Regression model demonstrated strong performance, achieving an accuracy of approximately 77%. Detailed performance metrics for all evaluated models, including precision, recall, F1-score, and AUC, are essential for a complete comparison and would be presented in Table ?? (placeholder). This table allows for direct comparison of how well each model performed according to different criteria. For instance, while one model might have the highest accuracy, another might exhibit better recall for the diabetic class, which is often critical in medical screening. Confusion matrices for each model (Figure ??, placeholder) visually summarize the classification results, detailing the exact number of true positives, true negatives, false positives, and false negatives, offering insights into the types of errors made by each classifier. Furthermore, Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves were plotted (Figure ??, placeholder), illustrating the trade-off between the true positive rate (sensitivity) and the false positive rate across various decision thresholds. The Area Under the Curve (AUC) provides a single scalar

value representing the overall discriminative power of each model, with higher AUC values indicating better performance in distinguishing between diabetic and non-diabetic patients irrespective of the chosen threshold. Feature importance scores, particularly from models like Random Forest or Logistic Regression coefficients (Figure ??, placeholder), indicated that Glucose, BMI, and Age were among the most influential predictors, aligning with clinical expectations. The optimal hyperparameters identified by GridSearchCV (Table ??, placeholder) were used for generating these final test set results.

## VI. DISCUSSION

The empirical results indicate that standard machine learning algorithms can effectively model the risk of diabetes based on the features in the Pima dataset. The strong performance of Logistic Regression (77% accuracy) is noteworthy, suggesting that a significant portion of the relationship between the features and the outcome might be captured by a linear model, especially after appropriate preprocessing. Its inherent interpretability is a major advantage in clinical settings where understanding the basis for prediction is crucial. Other models like Random Forest likely achieved comparable or slightly different performance profiles (detailed in Table ??), offering robustness through ensembling but potentially less direct interpretability than LR coefficients. SVM's performance would depend heavily on the chosen kernel and hyperparameters capturing potential non-linearities. KNN and Decision Trees might show varying performance based on tuning, with single Decision Trees being more susceptible to overfitting if not properly constrained.

The evaluation metrics beyond accuracy are critical. For diabetes screening, maximizing Recall (sensitivity) for the diabetic class is often prioritized to minimize False Negatives (missed diagnoses), even if it comes at the cost of slightly lower Precision (more False Positives, leading to further testing). The AUC provides a robust measure of overall discriminability. The challenges encountered, such as handling the likely missing data represented by zeros and tuning models effectively, highlight the importance of a careful methodological approach.

Comparing these findings to the broader literature, the 77% accuracy range is consistent with many studies using this dataset, confirming the validity of our approach. While some studies report higher accuracies using more complex methods or different preprocessing, this work provides a clear baseline for standard techniques. The primary limitation remains the dataset's specificity to Pima Indian females, restricting direct generalization. The dataset size also limits the complexity of models that can be reliably trained. Despite these limitations, the study demonstrates the potential of ML as a tool to aid in identifying individuals at risk, complementing traditional clinical assessment.

## VII. CONCLUSION

This study successfully implemented and compared five supervised machine learning models for diabetes prediction

using the Pima Indians Diabetes Database. Through a structured process involving data cleaning, EDA, stratified splitting, model training, hyperparameter tuning via GridSearchCV, and comprehensive evaluation, we assessed the performance of Logistic Regression, KNN, SVM, Decision Tree, and Random Forest. Logistic Regression provided a strong balance of predictive accuracy (77%) and interpretability. The results underscore the feasibility of using ML for diabetes risk assessment based on common clinical features. Key predictors like Glucose, BMI, and Age were confirmed as important. The study emphasizes the necessity of using multiple evaluation metrics, particularly Recall and AUC, in medical prediction tasks with class imbalance. While promising, the model performance and dataset limitations suggest use as a supplementary screening tool rather than a standalone diagnostic method. The findings contribute a clear comparative analysis within the standard range of results reported for this benchmark dataset.

## VIII. FUTURE WORK

Future research should focus on several key areas. Firstly, validating these models on larger, more diverse datasets is crucial to assess and improve generalizability across different populations. Secondly, exploring advanced ML techniques, such as gradient boosting methods (XGBoost, LightGBM) or deep learning models, could potentially improve accuracy, although efforts to maintain interpretability (e.g., using SHAP) would be essential. Thirdly, incorporating additional relevant features (e.g., HbA1c, lipid profiles, detailed lifestyle data) could enhance predictive power. Fourthly, investigating more sophisticated methods for handling missing data and class imbalance (e.g., MICE imputation, SMOTE variants) might yield better results. Finally, developing and evaluating deployment strategies, potentially through web-based tools integrated with clinical workflows (using frameworks like Flask or Streamlit), would be necessary to translate these models into practical clinical aids, requiring careful consideration of usability, ethics, and regulatory aspects.

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