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UNIVERSITY INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE
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DEPARTMENT OF BIOMEDICAL ENGINEERING**

**MACHINE LEARNING APPROACHES FOR PREDICTING MALARIA AND OTHER
KEY POX DISEASES**

Ph.D. THESIS

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December, 2023

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DUWA**

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MALARIA AND MONKEY POX DISEASES**

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MACHINE LEARNING APPROACHES FOR PREDICTING MALARIA AND MORTAL KEY POX DISEASES

Ph.D. THESIS

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Declaration

I hereby declare that all information, documents, analysis and results in this thesis have been collected and presented according to the academic rules and ethical guidelines of Institute of Graduate Studies, Near East University. I also declare that as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced information and data that are not original to this study.

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Abstract

“MACHINE LEARNING APPROACHES FOR PREDICTING MALARIA AND MONKEYPOX DISEASES.”

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According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), infectious diseases like malaria and monkeypox have resulted in catastrophes. Malaria is typically spread by mosquito bites from infected individuals, while monkeypox is developing as a zoonotic disease with feasible transmission to humans. Malaria and monkeypox are transmissible illnesses caused by both parasites and viruses, respectively. Utilizing modern techniques for these diseases' detection, diagnosis, prevention, and prognosis has become essential.

This study uses a variety of clinical and demographic characteristics to develop machine-learning models for the prediction of these infectious diseases. A dataset of 20 variables, which include temperature, the result of diagnostic tests, blood cell counts, and other hematological factors, is examined for malaria. While, for monkeypox, a dataset that includes Systemic Illness, Rectal Pain, Sore Throat, Penile Edema, Oral Lesions, Solitary Lesion, Swollen Tonsils, HIV Infection, Sexually Transmitted Infection and Monkeypox. Machine learning models such as Logistic Regression, Naive Bayes, Random Forest, and Decision Tree were adopted in the prediction, while the evaluation of performance was done using Accuracy, Precision, Recall and F1-score. The total number of malaria cases in the dataset is 8,250, of which 4,953 are positive and 3,297 are negative. While, there are 25,000 instances in the monkeypox dataset, 16,160 of which are positive and 8,840 of which are negative. To increase model resilience, data preparation methods such as one-hot encoding, scaling, and data splitting are used.

The result shows the greatest accuracy of 91% and balanced precision, recall, and F1 scores of 0.92, 0.91, and 0.91 in the case of malaria prediction, Linear Regression showed superior predictive ability. Naive Bayes maintained a precision, recall, and F1 score at 0.90, 0.89, and 0.89 while achieving a little lower accuracy of 89%. With an accuracy of 93%, precision, recall, and F1 scores of 0.90, 0.89, and 0.89, Random Forest surpassed other models, demonstrating

its dependability. Decision Tree demonstrated superior performance with precision, recall, and F1 scores of 0.90, 0.89, and 0.89, respectively. Its accuracy was 88%.

Exceptional performance for monkeypox prediction was shown by the evaluation results of Decision Tree Classifier, Random Forest Classifier, Naive_bayes, and Logistic Regression. Each model received a perfect accuracy rating of 1.0, meaning that every test set example was properly identified. Precision, recall, and F1-score, all of which had values of 1.0 for both classes (0 and 1), were considered measures of robustness. The F1-score emphasised great memory in capturing all actual cases of monkeypox and good accuracy in correctly identifying cases of monkeypox, demonstrating a fair balance between precision and recall. The findings of the study demonstrate how successful these categorization algorithms predict and classify instances of malaria and monkeypox, providing important information for disease management and public health initiatives.

Keywords: Infectious diseases, malaria, monkeypox, machine learning, predictive modelling.

ÖZET

Dünya Sağlık Örgütü'ne (WHO) göre sıtma ve maymun çiçeği gibi bulaıcı hastalıklar felaketlerlesonuçlanmaktadır. Sıtma tipik olarak enfektikilerden sıtma ve maymun çiçeği gibi bulaıcı hastalıklar olarak gelişmektedir. Sıtma ve maymun çiçeği sırasıyla parazitlerin ve virüslerin neden olduğu bulaıcı hastalıklardır. Bu hastalıkların tespiti, tanısı, önlenmesi ve prognozunda modern tekniklerin kullanılması zorunlu hale gelmiştir.

Bu çalışmada, bu bulaıcı hastalıkların tahmini için makine öğrenimi modelleri geliştirilmiştir. İtali klinik ve demografik özellikleri içeren verilerden yararlanılmıştır. Kişilerin ölçümleri testlerinin sonuçları, kan hücre sayımları ve diğer hematolojik faktörleri içeren 20'den fazla kenden oluşan veri seti sıtma için incelenmiştir. Maymun çiçeği hastalığı için ise sistemik hastalık, rektal ağrı ve ağrı izleyişlerini içeren veri setleri için veri seti kullanılmıştır.

Tahminde Lojistik Regresyon, Naive Bayes, Rastgele Orman ve Karar Ağacı gibi makine öğrenimi modelleri uygulanırken, performans değerlendirme, kesinlik, duyarlılık ve F1 puanı kullanılarak yapılmıştır. Veri setindeki toplam sıtma vakası sayısı 8.250 olup bunların 4.953'ü pozitif, 3.297'si ise negatiftir. Maymun çiçeği veri setinde ise verilerin 16.160'ü pozitif, 8.840'ü negatif olmak üzere 25.000 örnek içermektedir. Model esnekliğini artırmak için tek-etkin kodlama, ölçeklendirme ve veri bölme gibi veri hazırlama yöntemleri kullanılmıştır.

Sonuç olarak, sıtma hastalığı tahmininde %91'lik en yüksek doğruluk ve 0,92, 0,91 ve 0,91'lik kesinlik, duyarlılık ve F1 değerleri elde edilmiştir; kullanılan modeller arasında Doğrusal Regresyon modeli bu konuda üstün tahmin yeteneğini göstermiştir. Naive Bayes modeli ile kesinlik, duyarlılık ve F1 değerleri 0,90, 0,89 ve 0,89 olarak elde edilirken bu model ile %89'luk biraz daha düşük bir doğruluk elde etmiştir. %93'lük doğruluk, 0,90, 0,89 ve 0,89'lik kesinlik, duyarlılık ve F1 puanlarıyla Rastgele Orman modeli diğer modelleri geride bırakarak sıtma hastalığı tahmininde güvenilir bir model olduğunu göstermiştir. Karar Ağacı modeli desirasıyla 0,90, 0,89 ve 0,89'lük kesinlik, duyarlılık ve F1 değerleri ile üstün performans göstermiştir. Bu model ile elde edilen doğruluk ise %88 olarak elde edilmiştir.

Maymun çiçeği hastalığı tahmini için başvurulan Karar Ağacı Sınıflandırıcısı, Rastgele Orman Sınıflandırıcısı, Naive Bayes ve Lojistik Regresyonun modellerinin üstün performans gösterdiğini gözlenmiştir. Belirtilen tüm modeller ile, 1,0'lik mükemmel bir doğruluk derecesi elde edilmiştir; bu, her veri seti örneğinin doğru şekilde tanımlandığı anlamına gelmektedir. Tanımlanan her iki sınıf için (pozitif vaka veya negatif) güvenilirlik ölçüleri olarak elde edilen kesinlik, duyarlılık ve F1 puanları 1,0 olarak elde edilmiştir. F1 değeri, maymun çiçeği vakalarını yakalamada ve doğru şekilde tanımlamada modellerin mükemmel bir hafıza gösterdiğini göstermektedir. Kesinlik değerinin 1,0 olarak elde edilmesi iyi bir doğruluk elde edildiğinin göstergesidir ve kesinlik ile duyarlılık arasında adil bir denge elde edilmiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları, bu sınıflandırma algoritmalarının sıtma ve maymun çiçeği örneklerini ne kadar başarılı bir şekilde tahmin edip sınıflandırdığını, hastalık yönetimi ve halk sağlığı için önemli bilgiler sağladığını göstermektedir.

AnahtarKelimeler:Bula ıcı hastalıklar, sıtma, maymun çiçe i, makine ö renimi, tahmine dayalı modelleme.

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Abbreviations

Abbreviations	Meaning
MP	Malaria
MPOX	Monkeypox
WHO	WorldHealthOrganization
MPXV	MonkeyPoxvirus.
HIV	HumanImmune deficiencyvirus
STI	Sexually-transmittedinfection
NSAIDs	Non-SteroidalAnti-inflammatoryMedicines
RDC	DemocraticRepublicofCongo
ML	Machinelearning
RDTs	Rapiddiagnostictests
PCR	Polymerasechainreaction
ITNs	Insecticide-treatedbednets
IRS	Indoorresidualspraying
ACTs	Artemisinin
MCDM	Multi-criteriadecision-making
PROMETHEE	PreferenceRankingOrganisationMethodforEnrichmentEvaluation
TOPSIS	FuzzyTechniqueforOrderofPreferencebySimilaritytoIdealSolution
CT	Computedtomography
SEL	EnsembleLearning
DL	DeepLearning
CNN	Convolutionalneuralnetwork
Nmi	Non-malarialinfection
SM	Severemalaria
UM	Uncomplicatedmalaria
ANN	Artificialneuralnetwork
RBC	Redbloodcell
AI	Artificialintelligence
MRI	MagneticResonanceimaging
HER	AnalysisofElectronicHealthRecords

MSE	Meansquared error
MAE	Meanabsolute error
R2	R-squared
DTs	DecisionTrees
TP	TruePositives
TN	TrueNegatives
FP	FalsePositives
FN	FalseNegatives
ROC	ReceiverOperatingCharacteristic
EDA	Exploratorydataanalysis
PCA	Principalcomponentanalysis
CCA	Canonicalcorrelationanalysis
SEM	Modellingofstructuralequations
LR_MOD	LogisticRegressionclassifier
GB_MOD	GaussianNBclassifier
RF_MOD	RandomForestClassifier
DT_MOD	DecisionTreeClassifier
URTIs	Upperrespiratorytractinfections

CHAPTER 1

Introduction

1.1 Background of Study

Infectious ailments continue to pose a significant threat to public health, especially in rural areas that have restricted access to medical services. Malaria (MP) and monkeypox (mpox), among many such illnesses, continue to wreak havoc on populations, primarily in regard to health and financial loss. The importance of precise and timely disease prediction cannot be emphasized, as it is the foundation of efficient disease control and prevention. Conventional diagnostic procedures, on the other hand, frequently fall short of giving accurate outcomes, especially in poor regions where such illnesses tend to be most severe [1].

In 2022, the World Health Organization (WHO) reported that an outbreak of monkeypox arose abruptly and quickly spreading over Europe, the Americas, and eventually all six WHO regions, with over 100 countries reporting approximately 87 thousand instances and 112 mortality. The global epidemic has mostly (but not only) afflicted gay, bisexual, and other males who engage in intercourse between men, and it propagates between individuals via interpersonal contact [2].

Monkeypox, commonly referred to as mpox, is a zoonotic illness carried by the infection called monkey virus, which belongs to a member of the Orthopoxvirus genus (MPXV). Numerous species of wild mammals make up the reservoir. Only Cameroon has reported all MPXV genetic clades, namely Clade I in Central Africa as well as Clade II in West Africa.

Most instances of human infection have been linked to human migration, transportation by infected people, and contact with foreign sick wildlife [3]. Human cases have mostly been linked to rural, forests in various central and west African countries. Since 2014, there have been more cases reported each year in Africa than there were in reports from the 40 years prior to that in nearly all of the continent [4]. The resurgence of mpox could be brought on by a mix of environmental and socioeconomic factors, animal or human migration. The end of systematic smallpox immunisation since the disease was eradicated in 1980, advancements in disease detection and assessment, and genetic alterations in the virus [5].

1.1.1 Symptoms of Monkey Pox

The symptoms linked with a Monkey Pox are presented in Table 1:1. Fever is among the most prevalent symptoms, being reported by 86% of people, demonstrating its considerable presence. The rash comes in second at 84%, indicating a high prevalence of cutaneous symptoms. Headaches are reported by 63% of people, emphasizing the disorder's neurological significance. Fatigue, reported by 47% of respondents, emphasizes the systemic character of the symptoms. Lymphatic nodes swell (36%), as well as muscular pains (32%), indicate immunological and musculoskeletal responses. Chills (27%) and perspiration (21%) are natural reactions to the situation. A sore throat, as reported by 15%, shows the respiratory system may be involved. This information is useful for understanding symptoms and assisting healthcare practitioners in diagnosis and management techniques [6].

Table 1:1

Symptoms of Monkey Pox [6]

symptoms	Percentage(%)
Fever	86
Rash	84
Headache	63
Fatigue	47
Swelling of lymph nodes	36
Muscle Aches	32
Chills	27
Sweating	21
Sore throat	15

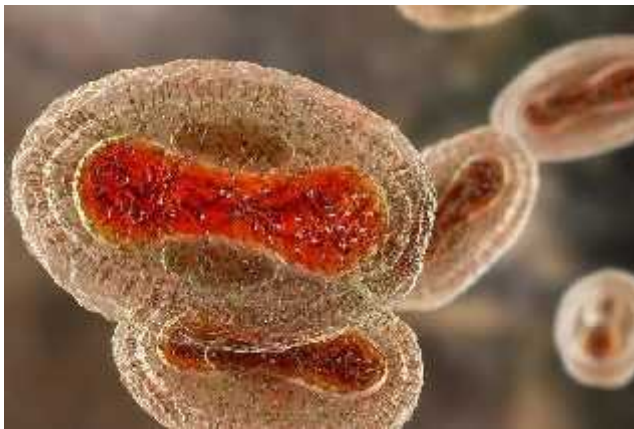
The variety of symptoms and indicators can be caused by mumps. While certain individuals experience less severe symptoms, others may experience more severe diseases and require

medical attention. Pregnant women, young children, and those with impaired immune systems, such as those with HIV infection, are often more likely to experience more severe symptoms [7].

Figure 1:1 shows the 3D illustration of monkeypox virus under a microscope. A skin eruption that could persist for up to four weeks is one of the common signs of mpox. Fever, headache, muscle aches, back discomfort, low energy, and enlarged glands (lymph nodes) may appear first or be followed by this. The face, groin, genital, and anal regions can all be affected by the rash, which has a blister-like or painful appearance [8]. These lesions can also develop on the eyes, mouth, throat, anus, rectum, or vagina. From one to several thousand sores may be present. Proctitis, as swelling of the rectum that can be extremely painful, and genital inflammation that can make it difficult to urinate are both conditions that some people experience [9].

Figure 1:1

Monkeypox virus, 3D illustration [10]



1.1.2 Transmission of Monkey Pox

Personal contact with infected animals, especially rodents and monkeys, as well as contact with their body fluids or lesions are the main ways that monkeypox spreads from infected animals to human beings. Having close contact with the blood, body fluids, or wounds of an infected individual can result in transmission between people [11]. During coughing or sneezing, airborne droplets can potentially be a method of infection. Although it is theoretically feasible, straight transmission from animal to human is more effective than transmission between humans. Preventing contact with animals that may carry the virus, adopting proper hand

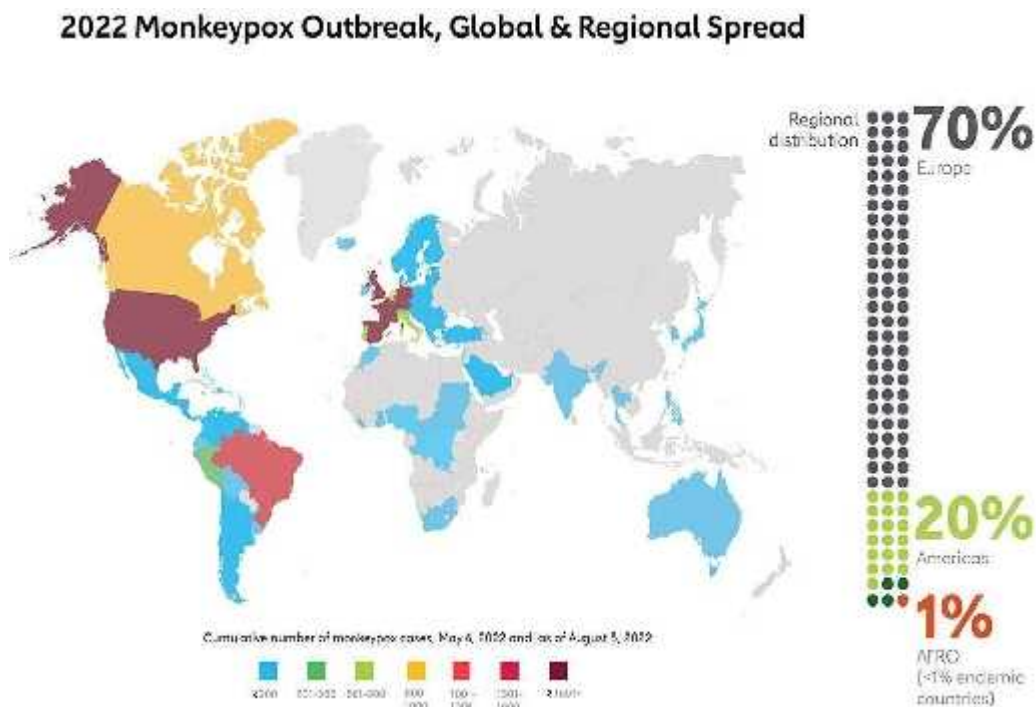
hygiene, utilizing protective gear when taking care of infected people, and instituting confinement and quarantine procedures during epidemics are all useful preventative strategies [12].

1.1.3 MonkeyPoxEpidemiology:

In past epidemics, the Republic of Congo had six instances, which represented the longest continuous sequence of transmission between individuals or the most consecutive human-to-human cases. Now, everything appears to be extremely different as shown in Figure 1:2. Nearly one thousand instances of monkeypox are recorded globally approximately daily, and the number of instances is still rising [14]. With just over one percent of the cases reported at this time coming from epidemic nations, this epidemic is also distinct in that the data now accessible shows it is mostly expanding in Europe and the Americas [15].

Figure 1:2

Global Outbreak [13].



The bulk of new infections continue to be restricted to five different countries, despite the fact that the total number of nations confirming incidents has increased from a small to high numbers [16]. According to the WHO, the predicted incidence is 1.8 in Spain's metropolitan areas, 1.6 in the United Kingdom, and 1.4 in Portugal. In Europe, the majority of those with monkeypox are immunosuppressed; 38–40% of those with positive tests are also HIV+. In Europe, 94 percent of infections are not considered severe, while only 5 to 6 percent of infected people require hospitalization as in Figure 1:2 [17].

1.1.4 Monkey Pox Diagnosis:

Monkeypox is normally diagnosed using a mix of clinical assessment, laboratory tests, and analysis of the individual's past medical conditions and signs [18]. The following are the main indicators for diagnosing monkeypox:

- i. ***The Clinical Assessment:*** Medical professionals evaluate the patient's symptoms and the results of their medical exam. The usual signs of monkeypox include fever, rash, enlarged lymph nodes, and pustular lesions on the skin. When monkeypox is initially suspected, a comprehensive clinical assessment is very important [19].
- ii. ***Patient History:*** The medical records of the individual in question, specifically significant recent contact with animals (especially rodents or monkeys) or people exhibiting comparable symptoms, are essential information for the diagnosis [20].
- iii. ***Laboratory Tests:*** Testing in laboratories, such as the ones below, are frequently used to validate a diagnosis.
 - J PCR (Polymerase Chain Reaction) testing can identify the genetic makeup of the monkeypox virus in blood stream, lesions of the skin, or other medical specimens.
 - J Viral Culture: Viral isolation in a lab setting using viral culture is another technique for diagnosing monkeypox.
 - J Serological Examinations: Samples of blood could be examined for the detection of certain antibodies directed targeting antigens of the monkeypox virus. Antibody levels that gradually grow may be a sign of ongoing infection [21].
- iv. ***Differential Diagnosis:*** The symptoms of monkeypox can be mistaken for those of other viral diseases, such as chickenpox, smallpox (which is generally exterminated

but can recur sometimes), and a number of bacterial skin infections. It's crucial to rule out any further potential explanations of symptoms that are similar [22].

1.1.5 Prevention of Monkey Pox:

Primarily in areas where monkeypox is believed to exist, avoiding monkeypox requires adopting precautions to lower the chance of being exposed to the virus. Key preventive measures include:

-) Avoiding Encounter with Wildlife: It is thought that animals, mainly rats and monkeys, are the source of the monkeypox.
-) Washing hands frequently: Wash them frequently with water and detergent for a minimum of 20 seconds, especially after touching creatures, food from animals, or any potentially contaminated things [23].
-) Respiratory Hygiene: Sneezing or coughing might cause droplets in the air that can spread the monkeypox. Important precautions, such as donning a mask in close proximity to an infected individual to lessen the likelihood of getting infected.
-) Isolation and quarantine: Close contacts of suspected or verified patients ought to be confined to watch for signs. Whenever epidemics, healthcare authorities are essential in putting confinement and isolation procedures into place.
-) Immunization: The general population cannot obtain a specific vaccine against monkeypox. The smallpox vaccination, however, has been demonstrated to offer some defense against monkeypox as well as may be given to healthcare professionals as well as others susceptible during epidemics [24].

1.1.6 Treatment of Monkey Pox:

The primary goal of treating monkeypox is to manage complications and provide supportive care to patients. Since monkeypox is a viral infection, there isn't a particular antiviral drug that may be taken regularly to treat it. Key components in treating monkeypox include:

-) Patients with monkeypox should be isolated in order to stop the virus from spreading to others. Usually, the patient remains isolated until it's healthy [25].
-) Hydration: It's important to be properly hydrated. Dehydration can occur in patients who have a fever, sweating, or skin lesions. Dehydration can be treated with intravenous fluids or oral rehydration treatments.

J Management of Fever: Acetaminophen (paracetamol), an over-the-counter drug, can be used to lower fever and ease pain. However, because of probable side effects, non-steroidal anti-inflammatory medicines (NSAIDs) like ibuprofen should be avoided [26].

1.1.7 Malaria Parasite

Malaria also remains one of the biggest global health problems, especially in sub-Saharan Africa. This infectious disease is spread by Plasmodium parasites and is contracted by humans through the bite of an infected female Anopheles mosquito. Malaria continues to be a serious obstacle to socioeconomic development in affected areas despite significant efforts to control it [27]. According to the World Health Organisation (WHO), malaria claims the lives of close to 500,000 people annually, with children and pregnant women accounting for the majority of these fatalities. In addition to its initial negative effects on health, malaria has far-reaching effects. The disease impedes economic growth in areas where it is endemic, which results in lower productivity, higher healthcare expenses, and a greater demand on already overburdened healthcare systems. Malaria also has an impact on education since ill kids are unable to attend the lesson, which feeds the cycle of flight and restricted possibilities [28].

Although malaria cases have significantly decreased internationally, some areas still struggle to control the disease. The burden of malaria is made worse by elements including poor resources, a lack of effective interventions, and restricted access to medical facilities in underdeveloped and isolated places. Additionally, the dynamics of malaria transmission

are complicated by shifting environmental circumstances and population changes [29]. Epidemiological methods that consider variables like mosquito number, temperature, and humidity are frequently used in conventional approaches for malaria forecasting. Although these models have proved helpful, it's possible that they don't fully account for the complex relationships and interactions that contribute to malaria transmission. Because of this, these models' precision and dependability may differ, which reduces their capacity to forecast and stop epidemics [30].

In 2019, according to the World Health Organisation (WHO), there were approximately 228 million patients with malaria worldwide in 2018, up from 231 million in 2017. Malaria is extremely common in the African continent, with an approximated 213 million instances of the disease identified in Africa, accounting for 93% of the overall instances, next to Eastern Asia, which comprised 5.4% of overall instances, and the Eastern Mediterranean, which

accounted for 2.1% of all cases. Malaria has a high incidence in Sub-Saharan Africa, with only six countries accounting for over half of the total number of malaria cases worldwide. These nations are Nigeria, which made up 25%,

Democratic Republic of Congo (RDC), which tallied for 12%, Uganda, which stood for 5%, and Mozambique, Niger, and Ivory Coast, which were up 4% each [31].

ML approaches provide the chance to revolutionise disease prediction and diagnosis because they are powered by sophisticated algorithms and computational skills. The goal of this

study is to use machine learning to anticipate two infectious diseases: malaria and monkeypox. These diseases provide particular difficulties that call for creative solutions because of their intricacy and quick transmission [32].

Table 1:2:Symptoms of malaria [33].

Symptoms	Percentage (%)
Fever	99
Chills	60-80
Fatigue	50-75
Muscle and joint pain	50-70
Nausea and vomiting	30-50
Cough	20-30
Diarrhea	10-30
Abdominal pain	10-20
Headache	70-90

Malaria, a major threat to humanity's health, is transmitted by *Plasmodium falciparum* parasites, which are protozoan parasites. The parasites, which spread via the bites by infected female *Anopheles* mosquitoes, have a complex life cycle within people and mosquitoes. After the bites,

the infection goes into the bloodstream, they go through the liver, where they proliferate before being released back into the bloodstream, causing malaria symptoms such as fever and anaemia.

Plasmodium vivax and *P. ovale*, for example, might hide in the liver and produce relapses years after the initial infection. As reported by [33], fever is recorded with the highest percentage in individuals diagnosed with malaria parasite, followed by headache. Other symptoms are chills, fatigue, joint and muscle pain are recorded with high symptoms as shown in Table 1:2.

1.1.8 Transmission of malaria:

Multiple phases are involved in the intricate life cycle of the spread of malaria. After the bite of an infected female *Anopheles* mosquito on its host, sporozoites are injected into the bloodstream while the mosquito is feeding on the host's blood [34]. The liver is next infected by these sporozoites, where they begin to proliferate and transform into schizonts. The circulatory stage of the parasite is started when the merozoites from the liver stage are released into the blood. Merozoites enter red blood cells and reproduce asexually there. This causes infected cells to burst, which starts the development of clinical symptoms. Some parasites undergo sexual differentiation during this phase and develop into gametocytes, which can be consumed by another vector after an additional blood meal as shown in Figure 1:3 [35][37].

Figure 1:3

Anopheles mosquito [37]



1.1.9 Diagnosis of Malaria:

Rapid diagnostic tests (RDTs), microscopic inspection of blood smears, and molecular approaches such as polymerase chain reaction (PCR) are examples of common diagnostic techniques. The most effective method to identify and classify malaria parasites is still microscopic inspection, which involves a qualified technician looking at a blood smear under a microscope [36].

Figure 1:4

Electric microscope [36]



By identifying specific parasite antigens in a blood sample, RDTs offer speedy results and are especially helpful in environments with a lack of resources. In research, as well as in situations of low parasitemia or suspected treatment resistance, molecular tools like PCR offer great sensitivity and species discrimination. In places where malaria is endemic, especially, fast and suitable treatment must be started as soon as possible. Accurate diagnosis is also crucial for malaria control and surveillance activities and could be used with the help of an electric microscope as shown in Figure 1:4 [36].

1.1.10 Epidemiology of Malaria

A vector-borne transmissible illness, malaria displays a varied epidemiological pattern all throughout the world. Tropical and subtropical areas are disproportionately affected, with Africa bearing the greatest cost of the illness. Climate, geography, human behaviour, and the presence of suitable mosquito vectors are some of the elements that affect malaria transmission [38].

Figure 1:5

Malaria parasite epidemiology [38]

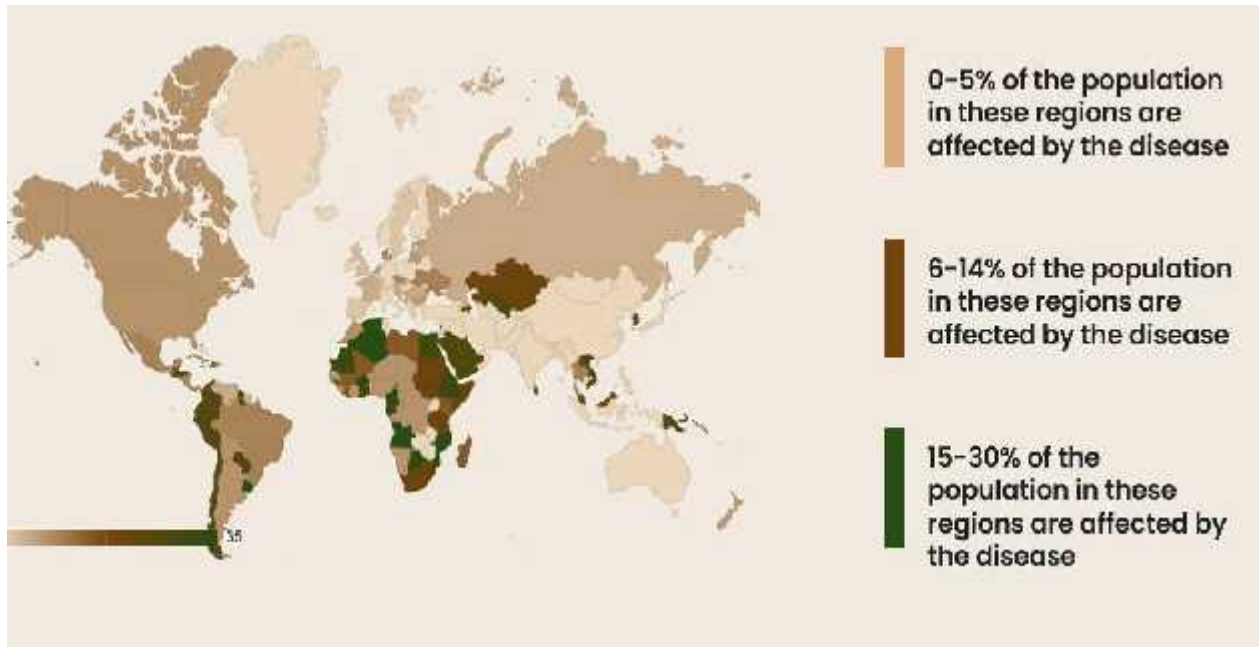


Figure 1:5 shows the globe with the record of populations mostly affected by malaria infection. The disease's prevalence typically peaks during the rainy season, when there are more places for mosquitoes to spawn. Additionally, there is a high number of deaths from malaria each year among vulnerable groups, including children under five and pregnant women. The distribution of bed nets sprayed with insecticide, the use of antimalarial medications, and the creation of possible vaccines are just a few of the key advancements made in the management and prevention of malaria in recent years [38].

1.1.11 Prevention of Malaria:

A multimodal approach is taken in the prevention of malaria with the goal of lowering both disease spread and people's vulnerability to infection. The common adoption of insecticide-treated bed nets (ITNs) to prevent mosquito bites while people sleep, indoor residual spraying (IRS) to get rid of mosquitoes inside the home, and chemoprophylaxis with antimalarial

medications for visitors to endemic areas are all part of this strategy. While programs for education emphasize the value of ITNs and quick treatment, ecological management and prevention efforts focus on mosquito breeding places. Women who are pregnant may occasionally receive preventive care, and immunization is developing as a further preventive intervention. The prevention of malaria must include early diagnosis and treatment, and community involvement makes these measures more successful [39].

1.1.12 Malaria treatment

In order to get rid of the Plasmodium parasites that cause malaria, antimalarial medications must be administered. The Plasmodium species involved and patterns of treatment

resistance influence the therapy choice. Chloroquine could be utilized in certain instances, but combination medicines based on artemisinin (ACTs) are the preferred therapy for mild falciparum malaria. P. falciparum is frequently responsible for severe malaria, which requires immediate intervention with intravenous artesunate or alternative treatments [40]. Combining antimalarial medications lowers the chance of drug resistance. The length of treatment varies, and it's important to follow up. Pregnant women need to be treated differently, and additional medications may be necessary to stop relapses. In endemic areas, prompt therapy and preventive treatments like mosquito nets are essential to the control and eradication of malaria [40].

Conventional methods of preventing

malaria, such as using insecticides to kill mosquitoes and administering

antimalarial medications, have had some effectiveness. Due to issues like pesticide resistance and the introduction of parasites with drug resistance, these approaches frequently struggle with sustainability and execution. Improved artificial intelligence (AI) methods keep offering previously unheard-of chances to bring about a revolutionary change in the direction of smart healthcare. The application of artificial intelligence (AI) approaches, including deep learning, machine learning, natural language processing, and other neural networks, has greatly enhanced medicine commitment, compliance with therapy, and disease prediction, such as malaria. [41].

1.2 Statement of the problem

This thesis focuses on the prediction of malaria and monkeypox, using machine learning approaches. In locations with limited resources, conventional testing methods associated

learning (ML) techniques. This thesis aims to address these issues in order to improve our comprehension of ML applications in disease prediction and contribute to the creation of trustworthy systems for early disease identification.

1.3 Aim of the research

This research is motivated by the urgent need to address the ongoing problems caused by infectious illnesses, including malaria and monkeypox, that keep ravaging populations all over the world, especially in settings with low resources. By utilizing machine learning (ML), the objective is to improve prediction of malaria and monkeypox infections exceeding current techniques. Although ML has shown promise in a number of fields, its use in the realm

of infectious illness prediction is still uncharted territory. The investigation and evaluation of ML algorithms, such as Decision Trees, Random Forest, Naive Bayes, and Logistic Regression, as potential instruments for early and precise disease identification is the main goal of this study.

1.3.1 Objectives

The main goal of this study is to analyse and evaluate machine learning methods for malaria and monkeypox disease prediction. The study is led by the following particular objective in order to accomplish this target.

- To assess the efficiency and performance of machine learning algorithms, such as Logistic Regression, Decision Trees, Random Forest, Naive Bayes, and Naive Bayes, in foretelling the risk of malaria and monkeypox infections.
- To investigate and put into practice data preparation approaches to improve the calibre and applicability of input data for ML models. This covers feature engineering, feature selection, and data cleansing.
- To look for ways to lessen the problems of skewed datasets, which are widespread in healthcare settings, cause. Create methods for dealing with class imbalance to guarantee accurate disease prediction.
- To choose and use the right performance indicators, such as Precision, Recall, F1-Score, and Support.

1.4 Significance of the research:

This study's relevance has broad implications. By investigating machine learning methods for forecasting infections like malaria and monkeypox, which predominantly afflict vulnerable

groups, it addresses a significant global health issue. This study offers the promise to protect lives, enhance healthcare outcomes, and lessen the demand for medical systems, particularly in areas with few resources. By demonstrating machine learning's useful applications in healthcare, encouraging interdisciplinary cooperation, and spanning the gap between theory and practice, it also promotes the science of machine learning. This study equips healthcare professionals, decision-makers, and academics to leverage the potential of machine learning for the improvement of public health as well as underprivileged areas by offering practical conclusions and remedies for practical healthcare settings.

1.5 Limitations of the Research:

-) The availability of an extensive and well-annotated dataset for both training and assessing the study can improve the success of this study.
-) Machine learning models' performance may be impacted by data imbalances, which is a frequent problem.
-) Class disparities are difficult to address, and the study's remedies might not be adequate for tackling extreme inequalities.
-) The study's conclusions about the efficacy of machine learning algorithms might vary depending on the data available.
-) The models generated and evaluated may not generalize effectively to different healthcare contexts or locations with differing illness frequencies. It is essential to comprehend the reasoning behind model selections, particularly in the healthcare industry.

CHAPTER 2

Literature Review

This chapter provides a thorough analysis of similar research that have previously been undertaken and published, including their findings, shortcomings, and overall findings. The theoretical underpinnings supporting this research is also explained in this chapter.

2.1 Overview of Infectious Diseases (Malaria and Monkeypox)

The spreading of pathogenic organisms, such as microbes, viruses, parasites, or fungus from one person to another, is the hallmark of infectious illnesses, a major public health concern. Both malaria and monkeypox are serious infectious diseases that have a global impact on communities.

The parasite *Plasmodium* causes malaria, an infectious disease spread by mosquitoes. It presents a significant public health challenge because it is widespread in tropical and subtropical areas. Female *Anopheles* mosquitoes carrying the malaria virus bite humans to spread the disease. Red blood cells are infected by the parasites when they enter the bloodstream, causing symptoms including fever, chills, exhaustion, and, in severe cases, organ damage or death. Utilising bed nets sprayed with insecticide, taking antimalarial drugs, and controlling mosquitoes are some prevention options [42].

Monkeypox can affect both people and animals. It is mainly prevalent in nations in Central and West Africa. The symptoms of monkeypox are similar to those of smallpox and include a high temperature, a rash, and cutaneous pustules. Transmission from person to person is possible, mostly by exposure to bodily fluids or breathing droplets. Monkeypox is a problem even though it is often less severe than smallpox, especially in areas where it is endemic. Preventive measures include maintaining adequate sanitation while avoiding coming into contact with wildlife [43].

The significance of managing infectious diseases, tracking, and treatment is shown by both malaria and monkeypox. In order to lessen the impact of these diseases and enhance global health outcomes, public health initiatives, medical research, and community education are crucial.

2.2 Related Research

Advanced computational methods are revealed to be utilized in the prediction, diagnosis and prevention of various diseases. These computational methods range from statistical and machine learning methods. Various disease and disease detection tools are evaluated and predicted using these computational tools [76].

According to their research, "Capacity Evaluation of Diagnostic Tests for COVID-19 Using Multicriteria Decision-Making Techniques," Given the initial confusion around the choice of diagnostic tests during the early phases of the outbreak in Wuhan, China, Sayan, Murat, and colleagues address the urgent necessity to compare and identify the most useful diagnostic approach for COVID-19. Multi-criteria decision-making (MCDM) techniques, specifically fuzzy Preference Ranking Organisation Method for Enrichment Evaluation (fuzzy PROMETHEE) and fuzzy Technique for Order of Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (fuzzy TOPSIS) were used in their research to assess different diagnostic tests for the coronavirus disease [44]. The tests being performed include a chest CT scan, a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) analysis for detecting viral nucleic acids, cell culture, a CoV-19 antigenic test, a CoV-19 antibody IgM test, a CoV-19 antibody IgG test, and a chest X-ray. The research concludes that chest CT is a most efficient diagnostic tool for COVID-19 using linguistic fuzzy scales with weighted factors based on professional judgments. Notably, the COVID-19 diagnosis was outperformed only by conventional diagnostic techniques for viral infections. This research stresses the significance of adapting diagnostic approaches to a nation's resources and offers insightful information about various tests for diagnosis combinations [44].

Different variants of cancer diseases are been predicted and detected using machine learning techniques. Breast cancer screening is an important topic that Mustapha, Mubarak Taiwo,

and colleagues tackled in their paper titled "Breast Cancer Screening Based on Supervised Learning and Multi-Criteria Decision-Making," as the disease averages one woman dying from it every minute. In order to increase survival rates, they emphasized the value of early diagnosis and suggest a novel strategy that integrates computational intelligence with multi-criteria decision-

making [45]. The best machine learning algorithm for early breast cancer diagnosis is determined by comparing the performance of multiple supervised learning algorithms. They discovered that the Support Vector Machine emerges as the best-performing model using the Preference Ranking Organisation Method for Enrichment Assessments, with a net outranking flow of 0.1022, confirming its superiority. The naive Bayes classifier is the least recommended alternative, with K-nearest neighbour, logistic regression, and random forest classifier

approach in assisting decision-makers in choosing the best machine-learning algorithm for breast cancer screening [45].

In a study, "Ensemble Machine Learning for Monkeypox Transmission Time Series Forecasting," Dada, Emmanuel Gbenga, and his colleagues tackled the urgent problem of the worldwide monkeypox outbreak, which has spread to more than 40 nations outside of Africa and has been deemed a "public health emergency of international concern" by the World Health Organization. The study suggests a computer- and machine-learning-assisted method to forecast the spread of the virus ratio considering the lack of information on the virus's results, risks, clinical manifestations, and distribution dynamics [46]. Adaptive Boosting Regression, Gradient Boosting Regression, Random Forest Regression, Ordinary Least Square Regression, Lasso Regression, and Ridge Regression are just a few of the machine learning methods used in their study. They use performance indicators including Mean Square Error, Mean

Absolute Error, and Root Mean Square Error to assess the effectiveness of their algorithms. The findings show that this Stacking Ensemble Learning (SEL) technique outperforms competing models, offering insightful information about the threat posed by monkeypox and assisting policymakers in implementing the appropriate mitigation measures [46].

In a similar work, Uzun Ozsahin, Dilber, et al. study, "Computer-Aided Detection and Classification of Monkeypox and Chickenpox Lesions in Human Subjects Using Deep Learning Framework," addresses the urgent need for prompt and precise diagnosis of monkeypox, a pathogenic viral illness, in the midst of a current epidemic. They draw attention to the difficulty in distinguishing between chickenpox and monkeypox due to the resemblance of the skin lesions, which might result in misdiagnosis and additional disease dissemination [47]. They incorporate a well-trained Deep Learning (DL) method for early lesion identification and classification to address this issue. In their method, a two-dimensional convolutional neural network (CNN) with three Max Pooling stages and four layers of convolution is used. The suggested CNN algorithm outperforms competing DL approaches, outperforming them with a test accuracy of 99.60% and scoring 99.00% on the weighted average for precision, recall, and F1 score. With an accuracy of 98.00%, AlexNet leads all previously trained models, whereas VGGNet performed less with the accuracy of 80%. Furthermore, the suggested CNN model is a valuable tool for the rapid and precise classification of monkeypox adopting computerized pictures of patient's skin due to its generalization and avoidance of overfitting [47].

In a study using the same dataset as in this study, Morang'a, Collins M., et al. classify

es.

Their data set included haematological information on 2,207 people in Ghana who were divided into groups according to whether they had a non-malarial infection (nMI), severe malaria (SM), or uncomplicated malaria (UM). They experimented with six various approaches to machine learning before settling on one. They used a three-layer artificial neural network (ANN) for the multi-classification of UM, SM, and nMI. Additionally, binary classifiers were created to find the variables that may set UM or SM apart from nMI [48].

Their study's findings showed promise. The multiple classifications algorithm successfully distinguished between malaria with clinical symptoms and nMI with training and test accuracy of above 85%. The research identified the number of platelets, RBC (red blood cell) counts, lymphocyte counts, and percentages as the most effective classifiers for separating UM from nMI, attaining a test accuracy of 0.801. The classifier demonstrated a great test accuracy of 0.96 when separating SM from nMI, with both the mean volume of platelets and mean cell volume being the main classifiers of SM. Platelet and RBC counts were crucial in identifying UM, even after potential confounding variables like patient age and sample location were taken into consideration, the study's Random Forest model utilised for verifying the results showed [48].

This study stands out distinctively among the other studies mentioned above due to its combined focus on two serious infectious diseases malaria and monkeypox, that provide important public health issues. This research uses machine learning to forecast the prevalence and spread rates for both malaria and monkeypox, whereas previous studies only focus on the detection, categorization, or assessment of certain diseases. The urgent need for proactive illness treatment and prevention is addressed by this distinctive viewpoint. Additionally, the incorporation of various machine learning models including Decision Trees, Random Forest, Naive Bayes, and Logistic Regression, as well as the assessment of performance metrics like Precision, Recall, F1-Score, and Support, highlights the thoroughness of this work.

This study provides a more comprehensive and flexible method for addressing infectious disease obstacles by investigating forecasting for two different infectious diseases and utilising a variety of machine learning techniques. This makes it uniquely exceptional in its range and conceivable effect on public health.

2.3 Artificial Intelligence in Disease Prediction

Artificial intelligence (AI) is a subfield of computer science that aims to develop smart machines that can carry out tasks that traditionally require cognitive ability. It includes a variety

of divisions, including reinforcement learning, deep learning, computer vision, natural language processing, and machine learning. AI is evolving quickly and offers potential in many fields, including business, healthcare, self-driving automobiles, and other fields [49].

In recent years, artificial intelligence (AI) has significantly improved medical and forecasting diseases. Different applications of AI technology are being made to help with the early identification, diagnosis, and treatment of illnesses. The following are some crucial elements of artificial intelligence in disease forecasting:

-) **Early Disease Detection:** AI algorithms are capable of analyzing huge databases, such as patient records, test results, and imaging data, to spot trends and anomalies suggestive of ailment. This makes it possible to identify ailments such as cancer, diabetes, and heart disease promptly [49].
-) **Medical Imaging:** Deep learning-based techniques and other AI-powered image processing tools have shown considerable promise in identifying diseases using X-rays, MRIs, and CT scans. These tools can help radiologists identify anomalies and increase the precision of their diagnoses.
-) **Genomic Analysis:** A person's vulnerability to genetic illnesses and associated risk factors can be predicted using genomic data analysis performed by AI. Additionally, it can aid in the discovery of prospective targets for the development of new drugs and customized therapies.
-) **Predictive Analysis:** Using predictive modelling, AI can determine a person's likelihood of contracting a particular disease based on their genetics, lifestyle choices, and medical history. Offering individualized prevention and intervention measures with the aid of this information can benefit patients [50].
-) **Wearable technology and health sensors:** Wearable tech and health sensors that have AI built in can continually monitor a person's health indicators including heart rate, blood pressure, and glucose levels. To assist in managing chronic conditions and identifying new health issues, these gadgets can deliver data and alarms in real-time.
-) **Analysis of Electronic Health Records (EHR):** EHR can be analyzed by AI to find indications of trends in patient data. This can help in epidemic prediction, healthcare process optimization, and raising the standard of care in general.
-) **Drug Development:** By analyzing large datasets, modeling chemical interactions, and forecasting possible medication candidates, AI-driven technologies are hastening the drug discovery process. New treatments for a variety of diseases may result from this.

-) **Remote monitoring and telemedicine:** Chatbots and artificially intelligent assistants with AI capabilities are used to give medical recommendations, respond to inquiries, and keep an eye on patients from a distance. These innovations can improve patient access to care and lighten the load on medical institutions [51].

Figure 2:1

Hierarchical representation of A.I, ML and DL [52]

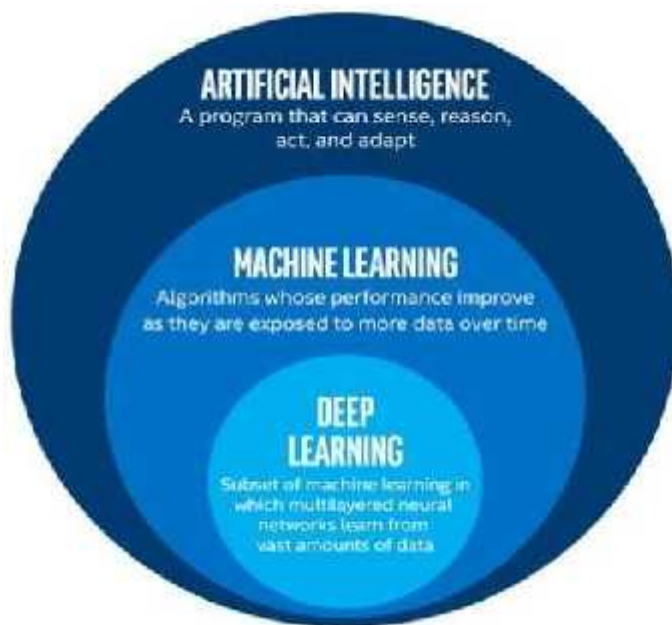


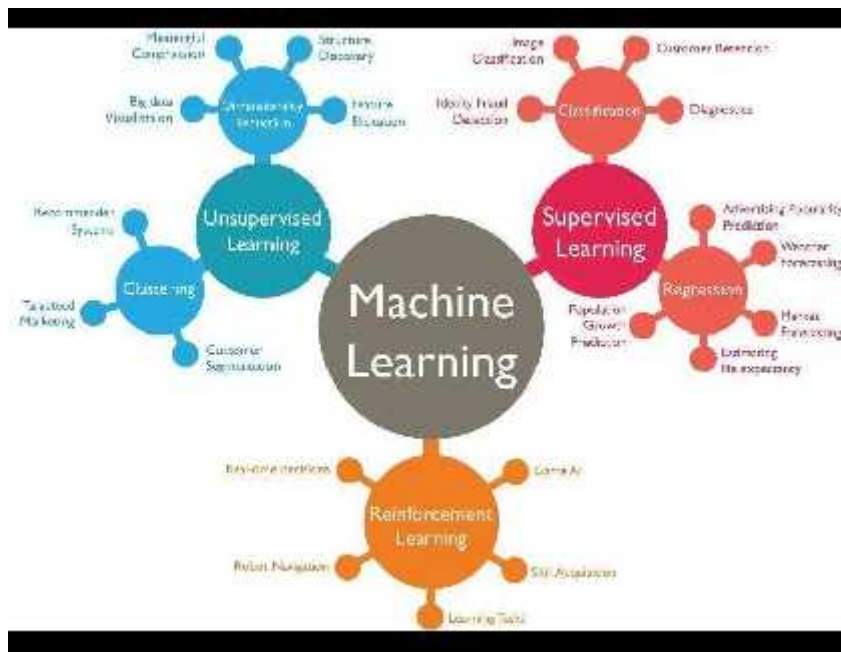
Figure 2:1 shows the hierarchical illustration of AI, ML and DL. This figure defines and differentiates these processes and their importance to the field of science.

2.3.1 Machine learning in Disease prediction

Machine learning is a subfield of artificial intelligence that focuses on creating techniques that allow machines to gain knowledge from information and make forecasts or judgments. Applications include natural language processing, computer vision, and recommendations systems. It includes models being trained on facts to identify trends and connections. By utilizing data-driven insights, machine learning algorithms, such as supervised, unsupervised, and reinforcement learning, have revolutionised the process of problem-solving and making decisions, making it an essential part of contemporary technology and AI [53].

Figure2:2

Machinelearning sub-set[54]



In order to uncover trends and components linked to diverse medical illnesses, machinelearninganalysesmassivedatasets,thatare crucialfor forecastingdiseases.It helps with timely diagnosis and is utilized to analyse risk variables for diseases and forecast the chance of illness incidence. To deliver individualized risk evaluations and suggest precautionary steps, predictive algorithms can make use of patient details, genomic data, and medical histories. Furthermore, they are used in medical imaging to diagnose diseases and may analyse patient information to forecast disease outbreaks and optimise the use of medical resources, all of which help to provide more successful disease prevention and control techniques as shown in Figure 2:2 [54].

2.3.2 Supervised machine learning

In the field of supervised machine learning, techniques are trained using labelled datasets that combine input data with appropriate output labels. The technique ought to establish how to navigate from input to the result so that it can make predictions or categorize previously unexplored material [55]. It is frequently used for tasks like classification, where it labels or

categorizes data, and regression, where it forecasts continuously changing numerical values. The effectiveness of supervised learning, which is used in a variety of fields such as processing natural language, computer vision, and forecasting, depends on having high-quality labelled data. The trained model's effectiveness is largely determined by its capacity to generalize to new data, therefore proper data pre-processing, choice of models, and assessment [55].

Many different machine learning algorithms fall under the category of supervised learning, mostly depending on the type of result variable. Transferring data to predetermined categories is the process of classification; a binary system has two categories, while multi-class classification has many [56]. Ordinary regression deals with ordered, distinct outcomes while regression forecasts numerical values. Data might concurrently belong to numerous categories thanks to multi-label classification. Datasets having skewed class distributions are addressed via improper classification. Rare, anomalous occurrences are found by anomaly detection. These supervised learning approaches provide multiple options for various real-world issues, each requiring certain methods and strategies depending on the attributes of the output variable [56].

) **Classification:** The objective of classification, a subset of supervised machine learning, is to categorize or classify input data points. Building an algorithm on a labelled dataset that contains input attributes and associated class labels is required. The algorithm that was trained then uses the trends it discovered during training to make forecasts on the kind or group of brand-new, unobserved data points. The goal of classification tasks is to divide data into separate groups or classes depending on its properties or features. Examples of popular classification tasks include malicious email identification, recognition of images, sentiment evaluation, and medical evaluation. Common metrics for assessing the effectiveness of algorithms for classification include precision, recall, precision, and F1-score [57].

) **Regression:** A discrete number or quantity is to be predicted using the input characteristics in regression, a form of supervised machine learning. On a labelled dataset, where every point of data contains input variables and associated goal values, a model is trained. In order to estimate the desired value of fresh, unforeseen datapoints, the trained regression model learns to recognize patterns and correlations within the data. Regression tasks are common in many different industries, such as evaluating a patient's blood pressure based on health data or predicting house prices based on factors like square footage and location. Mean squared error (MSE), mean absolute

error (MAE), and R-squared (R²) are common metrics for assessment for models that use regression [58].

2.3.3 Unsupervised Machine Learning

Machine learning that uses unlabelled data and focuses on finding trends, frameworks, or correlations amongst the data with no predetermined output labels is known as "unsupervised learning." It entails activities like clustering, in which data points are categorized according to comparable characteristics, reduced dimensionality methods for streamlining complicated data, detecting anomalies for locating outliers, and estimation of density for calculating the distribution of data. In numerous fields, such as disease segmentation, picture evaluation, and natural language processing, unsupervised learning is useful for uncovering hidden insights in huge, unstructured datasets [59].

) **Clustering:** Unsupervised machine learning methods such as clustering categorized data points into groups or subgroups that have shared characteristics or trends. Lacking previous understanding of the groups or labels, the main objective of clustering is to find innate patterns or clusters inside the data. The use of K-means hierarchical are examples of typical clustering techniques. Examples of clustering include textual clustering in natural language processing, image segmentation in computer vision, and client segmentation in marketing. By exposing deeper trends and interactions between data points inside various clusters, aids in the organization and understanding of complicated datasets [60].

2.3.4 Deep Learning:

Deep learning is a branch of neural networks, or a component of artificial intelligence (AI) that involves modelling and resolving complicated issues using artificial neural networks, particularly deep neural networks. These deep neural networks are used to interpret and modify data using numerous layers of interrelated nodes (artificial neurons). Deep learning's key attributes include:

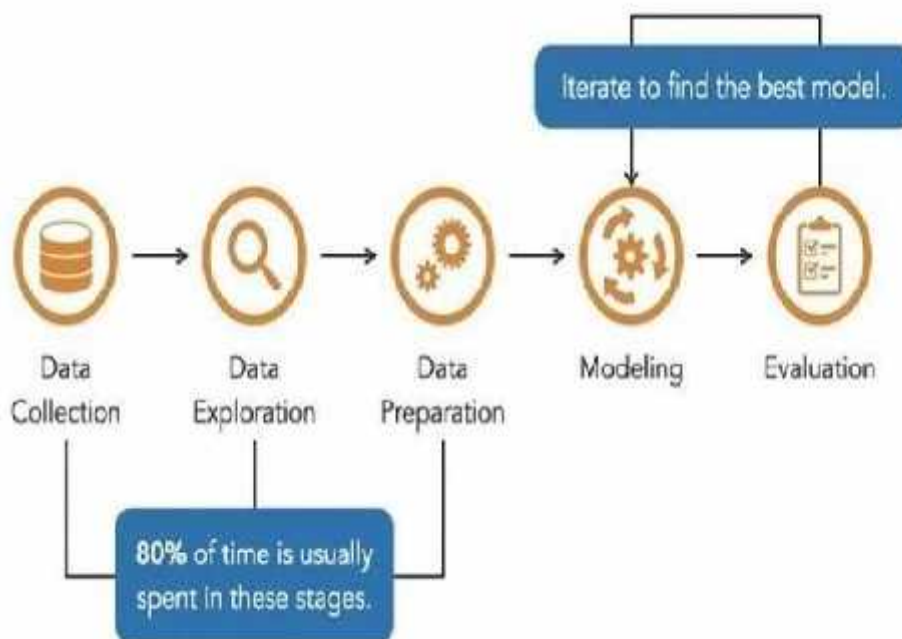
) **Numerous layers:** The input layer, several layers that are hidden, and the output layer are just a few of the layers that make up deep neural networks. The network may learn progressively more abstract and complicated aspects from the incoming data thanks to these layers [61].

-) **Hierarchical Features:** Deep learning models naturally pick up on hierarchical data representations. Higher layers capture more abstract and complicated patterns, whereas lower levels focus on more fundamental elements.
-) **Deep learning models** learn from enormous volumes of labeled data through data-driven learning. Through a procedure known as backpropagation, errors are transmitted retrograde via the network in order to amend biases and weights, allowing them to grow and change their own inbuilt properties [62].
-) **Numerous Uses:** Deep learning has been used in a wide range of fields, including computer vision (for example, image recognition), natural language processing (for example, language translation and sentiment analysis), speech recognition, recommendation systems, and autonomous systems like self-driving cars.
-) **Deep Learning Frameworks:** To render it simpler for scientists and programmers to create and train deep neural networks, a number of deep learning frameworks, including TensorFlow, PyTorch, and Keras, have been created [63].

2.4 The Theoretical Framework of the Dissertation

Figure 2:3

Procedural Flow



As shown in Figure 2.3, an organized methodology is used in the theoretical framework for the research on disease prediction employing machine learning, and appropriate datasets on ailments like malaria and monkeypox are collected as part of this process. Data pre-processing and cleaning guarantee the accuracy and reliability of the data as done by [64]. For the purpose of developing and accessing models, data is then divided into sets for testing and training. To create forecasting models for the ailments, a number of machine learning algorithms are used, such as Decision Trees, Random Forests, Logistic Regression, and Naive Bayes. The best-performing model is chosen for implementation in actual medical facilities after the model's efficiency is evaluated, similar to [65].

2.4 Machine Learning Models

The disease predicting study makes use of a range of machine-learning frameworks, including Decision Trees, Random Forests, Logistic Regression, and Naive Bayes. These models were chosen based on a variety of qualities and propensities for predicting illnesses like malaria and monkeypox. Naive Bayes is effective for particular data types, while Logistic Regression is simple and Decision Trees give interpretability. Random Forests improve prediction accuracy. With the specific disease prediction tasks at hand and as well as the dataset's distinctive characteristics in mind, the study examines and assesses the results of different models to discover which one is the most efficient for forecasting diseases, similar to study by [66].

2.4.1 Decision Tree

Decision Trees (DTs) are an irregular supervised learning technique for both regression and classification. By learning straightforward decision rules derived from the data attributes, the objective is to build an algorithm that forecasts the value for a target variable. A tree can be thought of as a fragmented constant estimate [67].

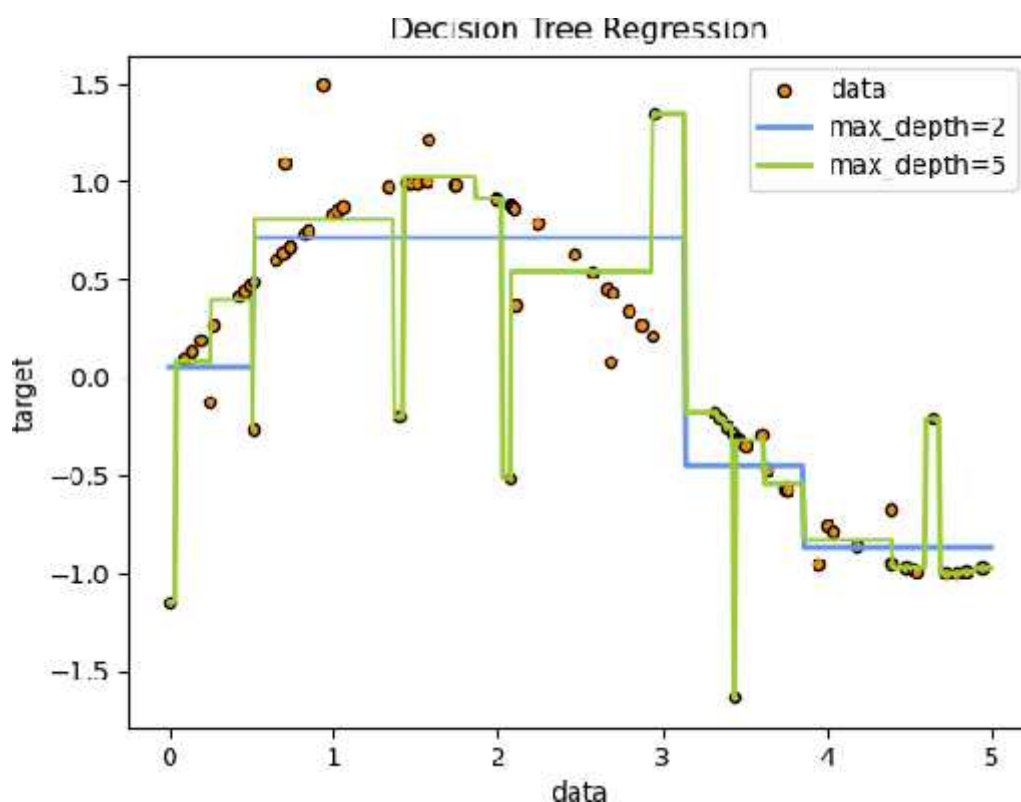
A decision tree is a machine algorithm and visualization utilized in tasks such as regression and classification. It comprises networks indicating judgments made in response to particular features, branches that produce offspring nodes, and leaves offering ultimate forecasts or classifications. Decision trees are accessible and ideal for activities requiring decision clarity because they use metrics like entropy as well as data gain to calculate feature splits. Although they can be inclined towards overfitting, pruning strategies assist the tree becomes more straightforward. Decision Trees are useful in many different domains and are frequently used

as the foundation of ensemble techniques like Random Forests. They are useful tools for comprehending and predicting data due to their clarity and interpretation [67].

Decision trees over-fit if the optimum depth of the tree (managed by the `max_depth` option) is set too high because they acquire too many small features from the training data as shown in Figure 2:4.

Figure 2:4

Decision Tree Regression (reference scikit-learn) [68]



2.4.2 Random Forest:

A random forest, which functions as a meta estimator, uses aggregating method to improve forecasting accuracy and decrease overfitting by fitting several types of decision tree classification on various subsamples of the dataset. The `max_samples` option controls the size of the subsample when `bootstrap=True` (the default); in contrast, every tree is built using the whole dataset when `bootstrap=False` [69]. A large number of decision trees are built during the training phase of the random forest approach, which is used for classification, regression, and other tasks. The category that the majority of the trees chose is the result of the random forest for classification problems. The average, or mean, forecast for every person in the tree is given

back for the regression tasks. The tendency of decision trees to overfit their training set is corrected by random decision forests. Although random forests typically surpass decision trees, they are less accurate in comparison to trees. However, their effectiveness may be impacted by data peculiarities [69].

2.4.3 Naive Bayes

A family of basic "probabilistic classifiers" known as naive Bayes classifiers in data analysis is built on the application of Bayes' theorem with solid (naive) independence assertions with attributes (see Bayes classifier). They are some of the most straightforward Bayesian system models, but when used in conjunction with kernel density estimation, these can attain great levels of efficiency [70]. The total quantity of parameters required for naive Bayes classifiers is linear in a given amount of data points (features/predictors) in the learning issue,

making them highly scalable. Instead of using the costly iterative estimation, as is the case for numerous other kinds of classifiers, maximum-

likelihood learning can be performed by simply assessing a closed-form opinion, that requires a linear time frame [70].

2.4.4 Logistic Regression

The logistic approach, often known as the logit model, is an analytical framework that estimates the likelihood of an occurrence occurring by making the outcome's log odds a linear sum of several independent variables. In regression analysis, the technique of logistic regression is used to estimate a logistic model's features. In mathematical terms, in a logistic regression model, there is only one binary dependent variable that's coded by a signal parameter, where both values are labeled "0" and "1", whilst the variables that are independent are able to be either a binary variable or a variable that is continuous [71].

2.4.5 Evaluation Metrics

Techniques for measuring the efficacy of predictive algorithms for tasks requiring the classification of data into specific groups or subcategories are called classification metrics for assessment [72]. The F1-Score, which reconciles both recall and precision, the specificity as well as false positive percentage, useful for distinguishing adverse instances of the ROC and precision-recall arcs, which visualize the accuracy of models across different levels, and Cohen's Kappa, used to evaluate agreement, are examples of

typical metrics. Accuracy determines general correctness; precision evaluates the number of accurate positive forecasts; recall examines the capacity to recognise all true positives; recall determines the capacity

positives and false negatives all influence the selection of metrics, which frequently calls for an amalgamation of metrics for a thorough evaluation [72].

2.4.5.1 Confusion Matrix

A confusion matrix is a data table that summarises how well a machine learning model performed in categorization assignments. It offers a full description of the model's forecasts and actual results, allowing for a thorough assessment of the model's effectiveness [73]. The confusion matrix normally includes the following four crucial parts:

True Positives (TP) are situations in which the algorithm accurately forecasts the class of positives, for as when it correctly identifies patients with a condition.

True Negatives (TN) are situations where the algorithm accurately forecasts the negative class, for as when it properly identifies healthy people as being free of the disease.

False Positives (FP) are situations where an algorithm mistakenly forecasted a class as positive while the actual class was a negative one (for example, identifying a healthy person as having a medical condition).

False Negatives (FN) are situations when the algorithm forecasted the wrong class—a negative one—while the real class was a positive one. An example of a False Negative (FN) occurs when the algorithm fails to identify an illness in the patient who actually possesses it. This mistake is also referred to as a Type II error [73].

2.4.5.2 Classification Accuracy

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

The capacity of the algorithm to accurately classify cases into specified categories is quantified by the basic assessment statistic known as classification accuracy in the field of machine learning. It calculates the percentage of the total dataset whose instances the algorithm correctly forecasts. This measure is simple to understand and is frequently represented as a percentage. Assuming groups in the dataset have equal values and incorrect classification rates are about equivalent for all classes, accuracy is useful for evaluating model performance. However, accuracy has several restrictions. Concentrating only on accuracy can be deceptive in situations where there are class imbalances or where the effects of false positives and false negatives differ dramatically. For a more complete analysis, it is imperative to combine accuracy alongside additional metrics such as precision, recall, the F1-Score, or ROC curves [74].

2.4.6 Classification Report

) Precision:

Precision measures an algorithm's capacity to prevent false positives by comparing the percentage of true positive forecasts to all positive forecasts [75].

$$\textit{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

) Recall:

Recall measures how well an algorithm can identify all positives by dividing the ratio of true positive forecasts by the total number of positive cases:

$$\textit{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

) F1-score:

The F1-Score is an extensively utilized classification metric that incorporates recall and accuracy to offer an objective evaluation of a machine learning algorithm's performance, particularly when working with unbalanced datasets or where the price of false positives and false negatives vary. It is especially helpful when balancing the necessity of accurately recognizing all actual positives (recall) with the need to make precise positive forecasts.

$$\textit{F1-score} = \frac{2 \times (\textit{precision} \times \textit{Recall})}{\textit{Precision} + \textit{Recall}} \quad [75]$$

CHAPTER 3

Methodology

The technique used in the study is carefully described in this chapter, which also provides a step-by-step overview of the process by which the research was carried out. It provides an extensive description of the data analysis procedure and painstakingly outlines the steps taken for data acquisition. This chapter essentially lays out the organized architecture that served as the research's direction throughout the stages of data collection, analysis, and interpretation. It acts as a road map for comprehending how the study was carried out and how the study's conclusions were arrived at.

3.1 Data collection and Study Population:

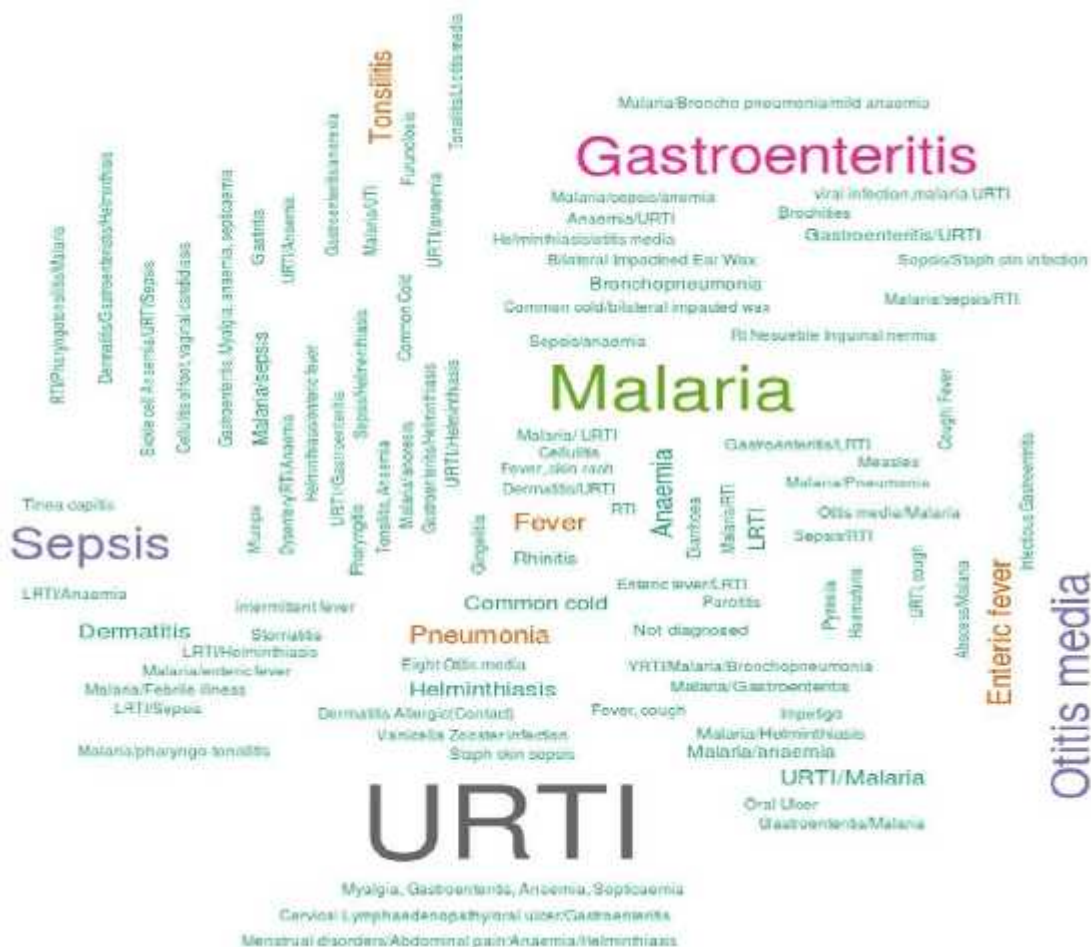
The malaria dataset implemented in this study was obtained from an online resource with free access that is accessible through Kaggle.com. The dataset consists of 2,207 cases of malaria parasite symptoms. Originally, Collins M., Morang'a [48], and other researchers assembled this data collection as a component of a research study. Their research centered on utilizing machine learning methods to categorize clinical malaria outcomes using hematological data as features. It's important to note that the initial dataset, on which this study is based, was gathered at the Navrongo Health Research Centre of the Republic of Ghana.

Similarly, the monkeypox dataset was also obtained from Kaggle.com. There are 11 various characteristics or symptomatic factors in this dataset, which consists of 25,000 instances. The features such as Patients ID, systemic illness, rectal pain, sore throat, penile Oedema, oral lesions, solitary lesion, swollen tonsils, HIV infection, sexually transmitted infection and the monkey Pox as the target.

The majority of the 150 cases had upper respiratory tract infections (URTIs), followed by malaria, gastroenteritis, sepsis, otitis media, and fever. The rest of the determinations were made on fewer than two occasions each per year as seen in Figure 3:1.

Figure 3:1

Cloud representing clinical symptoms



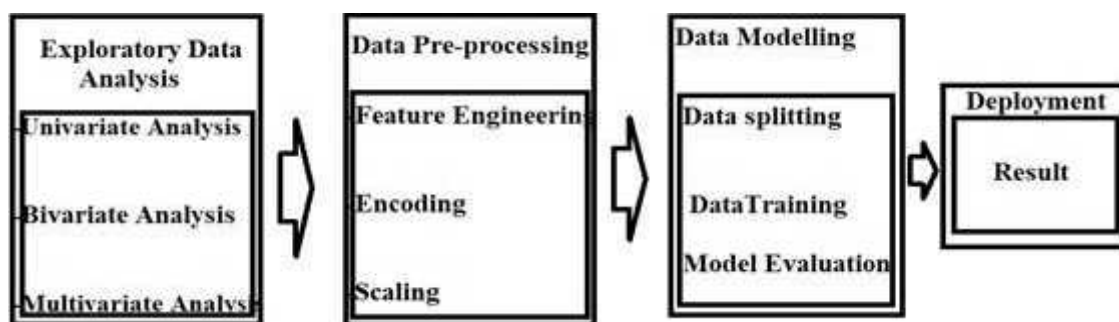
3.2 Machine Learning Pipeline:

In a typical machine learning pipeline, there are several clear steps. Data collection is the first step, then comes data preprocessing, which involves cleaning, manipulating, and separating the data. To produce accurate inputs for the algorithm, feature engineering is essential. Following model selection, the proper method is selected, and the resulting model is then trained. The framework's settings are optimized by hyperparameter tuning, and performance is

measured through the evaluation metrics. Testing on a different dataset confirms generalization. If the model performs well, accessibility approaches may be used, and it is then deployed. Its effectiveness is continuously monitored and maintained, and findings are reported and documented. Using a feedback loop, a model can get better over time. This process offers a disciplined method for creating and implementing machine learning techniques for a variety of tasks as shown in Figure 3:2 [77].

Figure 3:2

Machine learning pipeline

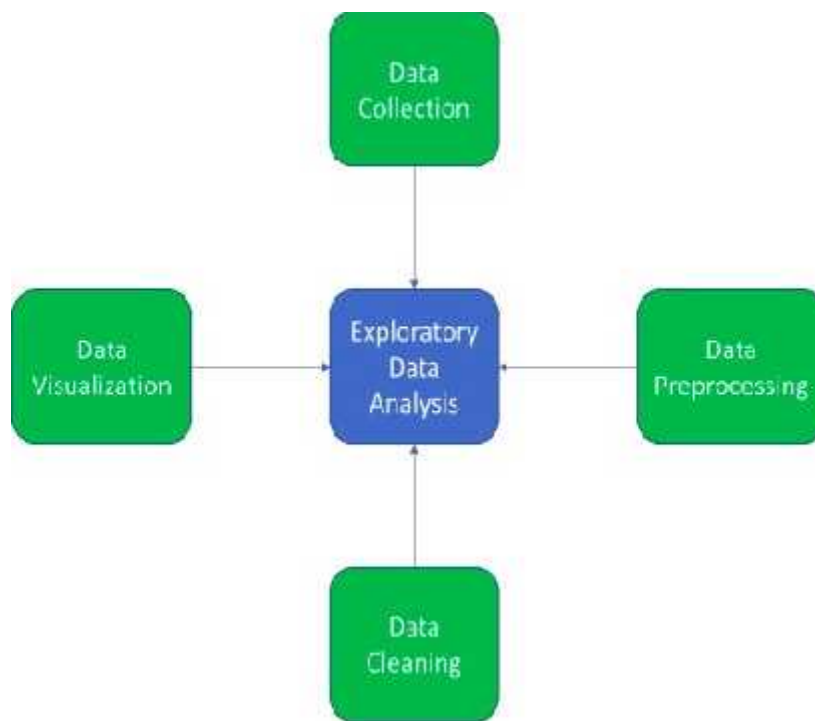


3.3 Exploratory Data Analysis

In order to get ideas and comprehend the data's fundamental properties, exploratory data analysis (EDA), a crucial early-stage technique in data analysis, entails gathering, cleaning, visualizing, and summarising the data. Data cleaning to assure data quality, data visualization to produce visuals, and the computation of descriptive analysis are all included. EDA investigates the connections between parameters, looks for anomalies, and includes hypothesis testing. EDA frequently involves repetitive processes, and feature engineering and validation are crucial elements. Its conclusions offer a sound basis for decision-making and subsequent data modelling in data analysis and machine learning initiatives as shown in Figure 3:3 [78].

Figure 3:3

Exploratory Data Analysis [78]



) **Univariate Analysis:**

Univariate analysis is an Exploratory Data Analysis technique designed to examine just one variable in a dataset. Its main objectives are to comprehend the distribution of the parameter, detect outliers, and summarise statistics and visualizations to represent the features of the variable. In this study, each variable in the two datasets was reported using the univariate analysis [79].

) **Bivariate Analysis:**

Bivariate analysis is an exploratory data analysis method designed to investigate and comprehend the interaction between two variables in a collection of data. It makes use of tools including cross-tabulation, regression analyses, analysis of correlation, scatter plots, and testing hypotheses. An understanding of relationships, trends, and dependencies between two parameters can be gained by bivariate analysis, which also offers important information on how variations in one variable affect changes in another. Identifying correlations and directing more statistical or modelling research, it is a vital stage in the data analysis process.

) **Multi-variate Analysis:**

Multivariate analysis is an exploratory data analysis technique used to analyse and figure out the correlations between several variables in a dataset. Multivariate analysis considers at least

three variables as opposed to just one or two that univariate and bivariate analyses do, allowing for the examination of intricate connections and relationships. Multivariate regression, principal component analysis (PCA), factor analysis, cluster analysis, canonical correlation analysis (CCA), the modelling of structural equations (SEM), as well as additional methods, are frequently used in multivariate analysis. This method can be used to find complicated patterns, predict the future, and interpret complicated structures of data in a variety of disciplines as well as study areas.

3.4 Data Pre-processing:

Data pre-processing is essential to machine learning studies that improves the performance of data. In this study, the dataset underwent pre-processing using Python (version 3.8) in a Jupyter notebook. In particular, neither the datasets for malaria nor monkeypox contained any data that was missing or zero values, eliminating the requirement for methods to address them, including elimination or imputation. Additionally, the datasets were adequately balanced, thus neither oversampling nor under sampling techniques were required. To guarantee there was enough trustworthy data for the inquiry, anomalies in the data set have been substituted with suitable values. By carefully handling missing values and outliers, it is possible to lessen redundancy, ambiguity, and noise, which eventually aids in the creation of reliable and effective predictive models.

) Data Cleaning:

Data cleaning, commonly referred to as data cleansing, is a crucial stage in the pre-processing of

data. A dataset's accuracy, completeness, and suitability for analysis are its primary objectives.

Managing missing values, duplicate data, and outliers, standardizing data formats, resolving discrepancies, resolving encoding problems, confirming data kinds, and imposing limitations are some of the major jobs in data cleaning. Maintaining data quality and reliability is essential for allowing appropriate and insightful data analysis and modelling, which in turn depends on effective data cleansing [78].

) Encoding:

Encoding is the act of transforming textual or category data into a numerical format appropriate for machine learning and data analysis. It is crucial since numerous algorithms for machine learning need input in the form of numbers. Label encoding, single-hot encoding, binary encoding, frequency encoding, target encoding, ordinal encoding, and embedding are only a few examples of the many encoding techniques available. The type of encoding technique

chosen relies on the data's structure and the particular machine learning algorithm being applied. Effective model learning and predictions are made possible by proper encoding, which guarantees an accurate representation of categorical information [80].

) **Scaling:**

Scaling is a fundamental part of data preparation in machine learning and involves transforming numerical data into a stable range or scale. The two most used scaling methods are standardization and Min-Max scaling (normalization). Using min-max scaling, attributes are condensed to a narrow range, usually between 0 and 1, while still keeping linkages between data points. After standardization, which converts variables to have a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1, data is centered about zero and given a unit variance. The precise requirements of the learning method being used dictate the scaling methodology that is used. Scaling ensures that each feature contributes equally to the modelling process, improves model performance, and stops larger-scale features from controlling the study [81].

4.1.2 ExploratoryDataAnalysis

4.1.2.1 UnivariateAnalysis

Figure4:2

UnivariateAnalysisofMicroscopy

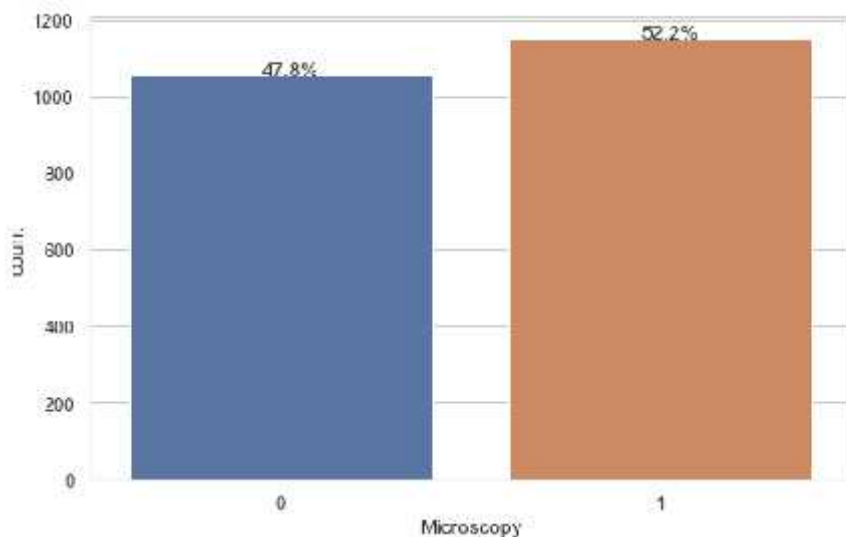
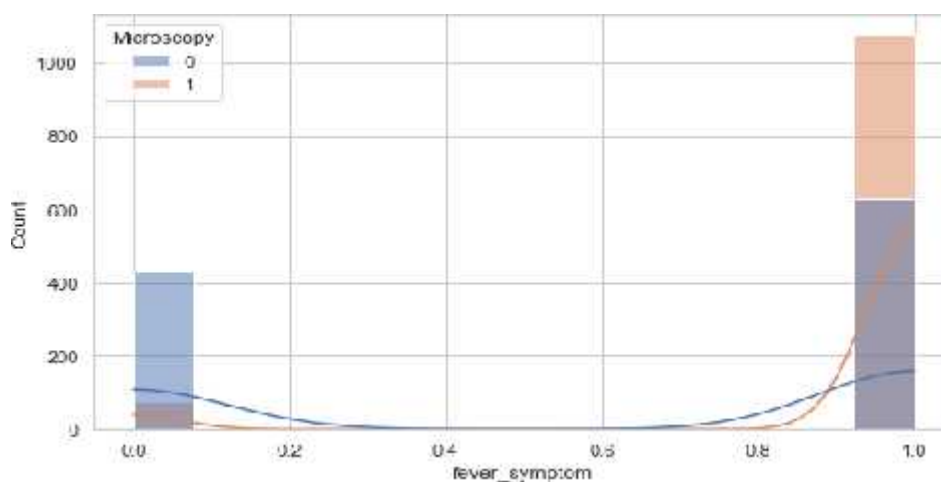


Figure4:2showstheillustrationofaunivariate descriptionofMicroscopyasatarget. Theanalysis shows52.2%forpositivecasesand47.8%fornegative cases.

4.1.2.2 BivariateAnalysis

Figure4:3

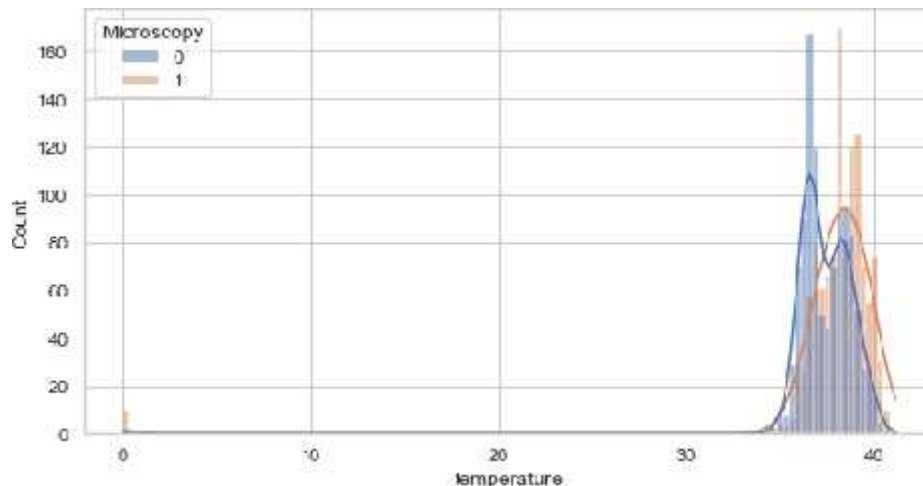
Bivariate relationshipbetweenFever symptomsandmicroscopy



The image representation in Figure 4:3 shows the relationship between fever symptoms and microscopy in a bivariate analysis. The result shows high chances of the patient with malaria when symptomatic to fever. Similarly, Figure 4:4 shows the relationship between temperature as a symptom with the microscopy, giving high chances of a malaria patient.

Figure 4:4

Bivariate relationship between Temperature and microscopy



4.2 Data Pre-processing:

4.2.1 Data Encoding

The collection of data has been generated for the machine learning applications in this section. Primarily the set of data is separated into the desired variable, "Microscopy," and the variables that predict it (X dataset). The 'pd.get_dummies' method is used to apply one-hot encoding for processing categorical features inside the predictor variables. By converting categorical features to binary features using this encoding technique, multicollinearity problems are prevented by making sure that only (n-1) binary columns are formed for each of the n categories. The predicted variables are now present in the dataset, designated "data2," in a numerical form appropriate for machine learning techniques.

4.2.2 Scaling

We have completed crucial data pre-processing operations in this section's sample to get a dataset ready for machine learning. First, the dataset (data2) was subjected to the Min-Max Scaler, which converts the characteristics to a standard range, often between 0 and 1. Scaling is important considering it guarantees that all variables impact

machine learning algorithm equally, preventing any one variable from overriding over all others due to disparities in their scales.

4.2.3 Data splitting

After scaling, we used the `train_test_split` function to divide the dataset into training and validation sets. Because of this separation, we can train machine learning algorithms on a subset of the data (`x_train` and `y_train`) and test their effectiveness on new data (`x_test` and `y_test`). The validation set comprises of 729 samples with the same 20 features as the training set, which has 1478 samples in total. In order to evaluate the generalization of the approach, the `test_size` parameter is set to 0.33, which indicates that approximately thirty percent of the data is put aside for validity [80].

4.2.4 Building Base Models

In this segment, we laid the foundation for building fundamental machine learning algorithms in Python using the `scikit-learn` module. In classification work, where the objective is to classify data into present categories, such models may be employed.

Logistic regression is the primary classifier that is imported. This classifier is frequently employed for classification in binary form, where there are two distinct groups for the

desired variable. It uses a linear mixture of input attributes to simulate the likelihood that a case belongs to a particular class. A nice place to start is with logistic regression, which is a fundamental approach for classification issues.

The GaussianNB classifier is on the technique of Naive Bayes. For assignments combining continuous attributes and classification of text, this classifier is quite helpful. It makes the often-simplistic premise that the attributes are independent, but in practice, it can be effective, especially for text data.

A different approach potential classifier in the family of learning ensembles is the Random Forest Classifier. To increase accuracy in prediction and decrease overfitting, it integrates many decision tree classifiers. Random forests are renowned for their dependability and versatility in handling different

data types. When estimating feature importance, they are especially helpful. Finally, a flexible classifier that can be applied to projects involving regression as well as classification is the Decision Tree Classifier. Using feature criteria to iteratively partition the data, decision trees provide forecasts that consider the dominant class inside each partition. Despite being vulnerable to overfitting, decision trees constitute the foundation for

4.2.5 Making Classifier Models Instantiated:

-) **lr_mod:** We established a Logistic Regression classifier class. The binary classification difficulties are ideal for logistic regression.
-) **gb_mod:** Applying the Naive Bayes technique, we build a model of the Gaussian NB classifier. It is preferred because it is straightforward and efficient with specific kinds of data.
-) **rf_mod:** We build a Random Forest Classifier level, a collaborative approach that combines different decision trees. Random forests are renowned for accuracy and toughness.
-) **dt_mod:** The Decision Tree Classifier instance is created. Both regression and classification problems require decision trees.

4.2.6 Training and Fitting:

We trained each algorithm for every classifier using the fit technique using the supplied training data (`x_train` and `y_train`). In order for the models to produce accurate forecasts using the training data, this stage entails determining the ideal parameters. The classifiers (`lr_mod`, `gb_mod`, `rf_mod`, and `dt_mod`) have been trained to make forecasts on fresh, unforeseen data following training.

4.2.6.1 Creating Predictions:

Four alternative classifier algorithms are used to make forecasts: decision tree (`dt_mod`), logistic regression (`lr_mod`), and Gaussian naive Bayes (`gb_mod`). Every trained algorithm is then used to forecast the target attribute on a test dataset (`x_test`).

The linear equation is used in logistic regression (`lr_mod`) to produce predictions using the input features.

Gaussian Naive Bayes (`gb_mod`) estimates the class probability by applying statistical methods and considering that every attribute has an even distribution across every class.

To increase accuracy and decrease overfitting, random forest

(`rf_mod`) mixes predictions from various decision trees, each trained on a selected portion of the data.

Recursively dividing the input using its feature values till

it gets to the leaf node indicating the projected class, the decision tree (`dt_mod`) produces predictions.

4.2.7 Model Evaluation:

By generating the accuracy scores for four different machine learning classifiers—logistic regression (`lr_mod`), Gaussian Naive Bayes (`gb_mod`), random forest (`rf_mod`), and decision tree (`dt_mod`)—the provided method section executes model evaluation. A typical metric for assessing classification models is accuracy, which counts the proportion of cases in the test dataset (`x_test`) that predicted accurately out of all of them.

Here is a thorough description of the evaluation procedure:

) (`lr_mod`) Logistic Regression

The scoring technique, which contrasts the model's forecasts (`pred_lr`) to the true target values (`y_test`) in the test dataset, is used to determine the accuracy score for logistic regression.

The logistic regression model has an accuracy score of roughly 0.914, meaning that it correctly predicts the class labels for roughly 91.4% of the cases in the data.

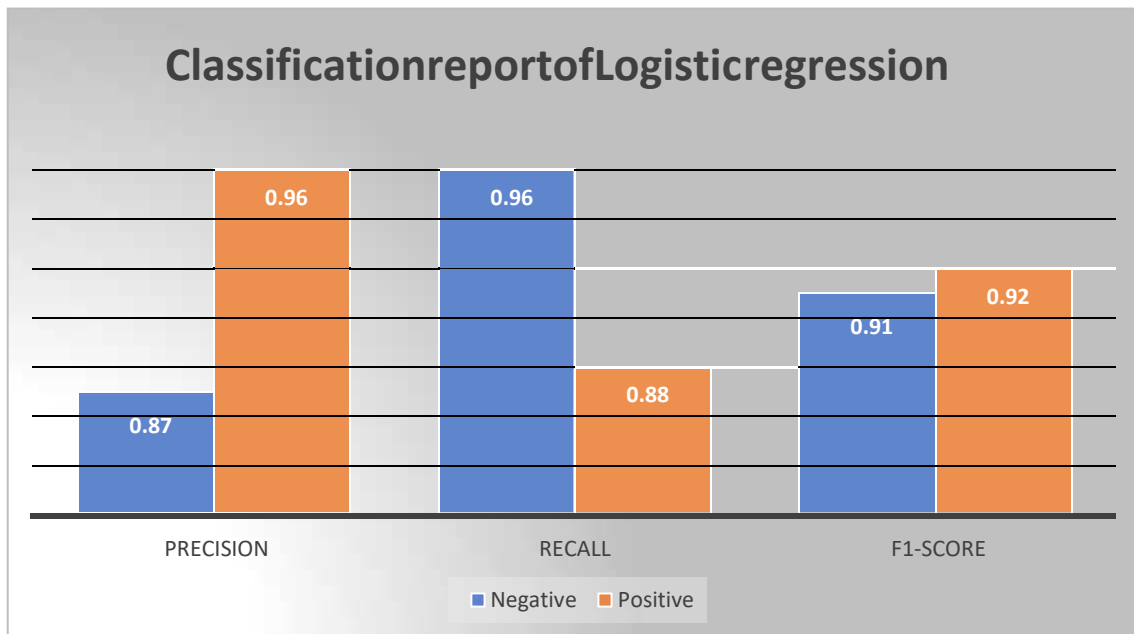
Table 4:1: *Classification report for logistic regression for malarial parasite*

	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Support
Negative	0.87	0.96	0.91	334
Positive	0.96	0.88	0.92	395

As shown in Table 4:1 and Figure 4:5, the logistic regression method's efficacy on a problem with binary classification is assessed in the classification report. The model shows good overall predicting ability with an accuracy rating of about 91.4%. For two classes, "0" and "1," precision, recall, and F1-scores are given to show how effectively the model accurately identifies examples for each class. Precision, recall, and F1-score are roughly 0.87, 0.96, and 0.91 for class "0," accordingly. These metrics are around 0.96, 0.88, and 0.92 for class "1." These findings imply that the model successfully distinguishes between the two groups, striking an appropriate equilibrium between precision and recall.

Figure4:5

Classificationreportforlogisticregressionformalariaiparasite



) NaiveGaussian Bayes(**gb_mod**):

The accuracy score for Gaussian Naive Bayes is computed using the scoring technique, same like for logistic regression. It contrasts the algorithm's forecasts (`pred_gb`) with the test dataset's true target values (`y_test`). Gaussian Naive Bayes' accuracy score is roughly 0.892, which means that on the test dataset, this model has an accuracy of about 89.2%.

Table4:2:NaiveBayesclassification reportformalaria parasite

	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Support
Negative	84%	94%	89%	334
Positive	94%	85%	89%	395

As shown in Table 4:2, the classification study evaluates the naive bayes algorithm efficacy on a binary classification work. The algorithm's total success in generating accurate forecasts is indicated by its accuracy score, which is around 89.2%. There is precision, recall, and F1 scores available for the classes "0" and "1." Precision, recall, and F1-score are roughly 0.84, 0.94, and

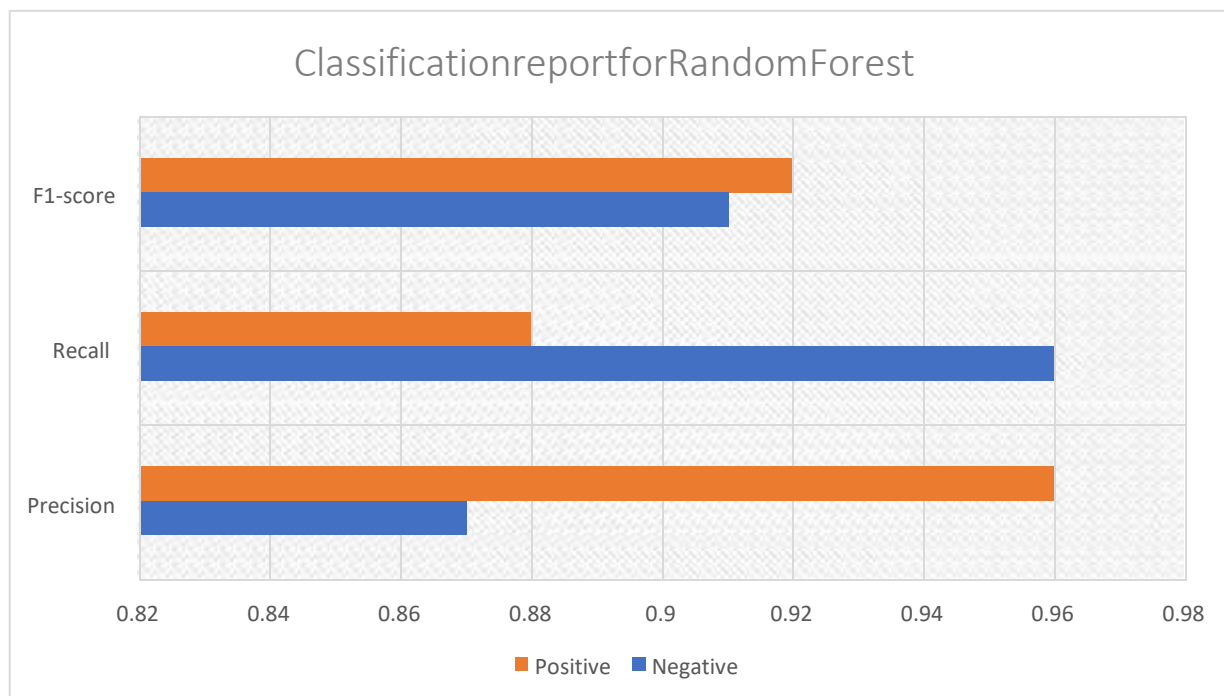
0.89 for class "0," accordingly. These metrics are around 0.94, 0.85, and 0.89 for class "1." These findings show that the Naive Bayes model successfully classifies both groups with a decent mix of recall and precision.

) **RF_MOD(RandomForest):**

Similar to the earlier models, the random forest classifier's accuracy score is calculated by comparing the model's predictions (pred_rf) to the actual target values (y_test). The random forest group algorithm performs quite well, properly categorizing about 93.3% of the examples, according to an accuracy score of roughly 0.933 as shown in Figure 4:6.

Figure 4:6

Random Forest report for malaria parasite



In a binary classification project, the Random Forest Classifier algorithm's effectiveness is evaluated in the classification output. Roughly 93.3% of the forecasts made by the algorithm are accurate, demonstrating its general efficacy in doing so. The report offers precision, recall, and F1 scores for the two groups, denoted by the letters "0" and "1." With regard to class "0," the model obtains precision, recall, and an F1-score of roughly 0.84, 0.94, and 0.89, respectively (see in Figure 4:6). These metrics are around 0.94, 0.85, and 0.89 for class "1" (see in Figure 4:6). These findings show that the random forest classifier approach, which is comparable to the naive Bayes algorithm for precision and recall, works well in categorizing both classes.

J) **DecisionTreeClassifier(dt_mod):**

The decision tree classifier's scores for accuracy are determined similarly by contrasting its forecasts (pred_dt) with the real targets (y_test). The above algorithm obtains an accuracy of roughly 88.9% on the test dataset, according to the decision tree's accuracy evaluation, which is roughly 0.889 as shown in Figure 4:7.

Figure 4:7

Classification report for Decision Tree for malaria parasite

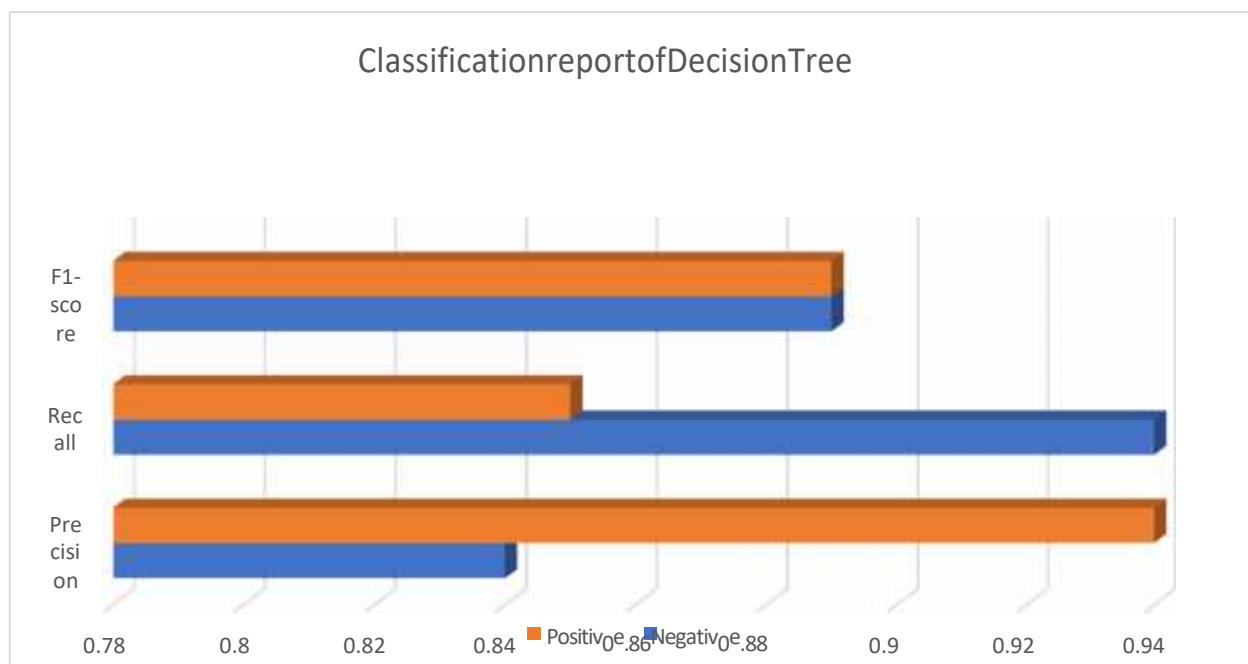


Table 4:3: Machine learning models Classification report for malaria parasite

MODEL	ACCURACY	PRECISION	RECALL	F1 SCORE
Linear regression	0.91	0.92	0.91	0.91
Naive bayes	0.89	0.90	0.89	0.89
Random forest	0.93	0.90	0.89	0.89

Decisiontree	0.88	0.90	0.89	0.89
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Figure4:8

Classificationreportforallmodelsformalariaparasite

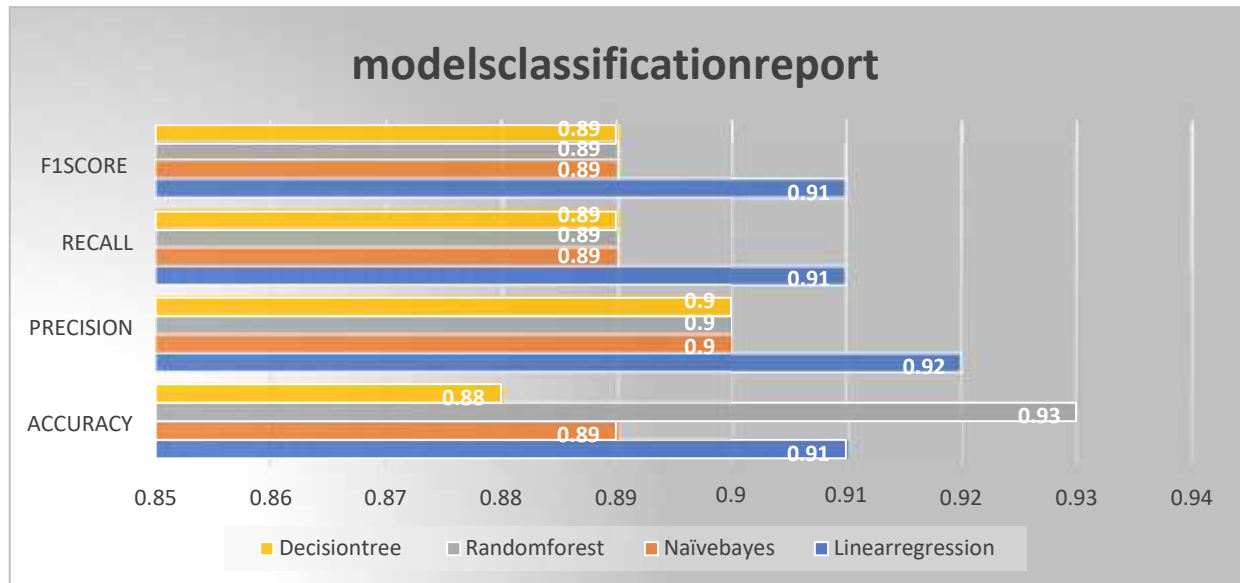


Table4:3showstheresultsfortheclassificationmachinelearningmodels. Whereas, Figure4:8illustrates the classification report of all the machine learning models. The classification report provides a comprehensive examination of the four algorithms used to solve the binary classification problem. Decision Tree, Naive Bayes, Random Forest, and Linear Regression. With the greatest accuracy of 91% and balanced precision, recall, and F1 scores of 0.92, 0.91, and 0.91, respectively, linear regression showed the best predictive performance. While maintaining a precision, recall, and F1 score well-balanced at 0.90, 0.89, and 0.89, respectively, Naive Bayes demonstrated a little lower accuracy of 89%. Random Forest surpassed the other models with an accuracy of 93%, precision, recall, and F1 scores of 0.90, 0.89, and 0.89, respectively, proving its reliability in making accurate predictions. Not to mention, Decision Trees surpassed Naive Bayes and Random Forest, earning an accuracy of 88% and displaying competitive performance with precision, recall, and F1 scores of 0.90, 0.89, and 0.89, respectively as shown in Figure4:8.

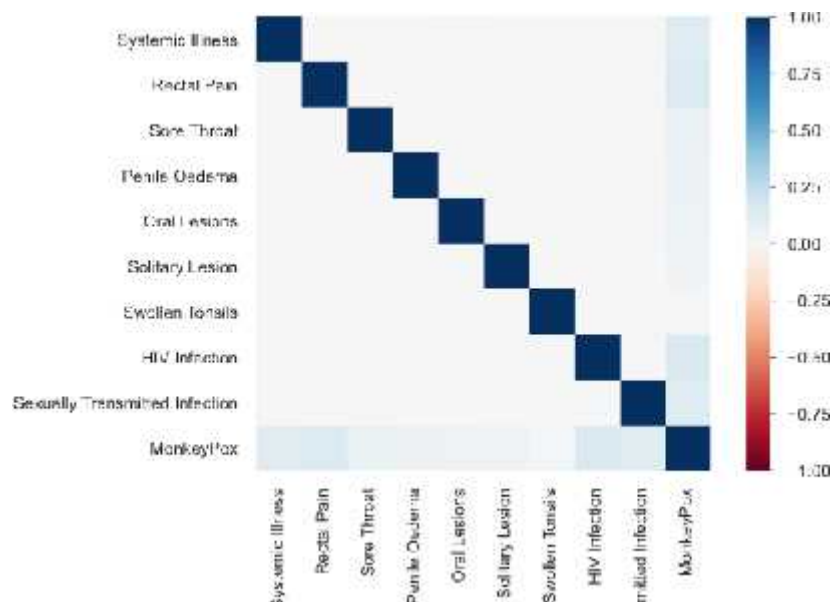
4.3 Predictive Models for MonkeyPox:

4.3.1 Variables

Ten criteria plus a dataset with 25,000 items make up this study. Systemic illness, rectal pain, sore throat, penile edema, oral lesions, solitary lesions, swollen tonsils, HIV infection, and sexually transmitted infections are among these characteristics. The "MonkeyPox" target variable is the main point of attention. In conclusion, the study examines the connections and trends among these factors in a dataset with 25,000 observations using machine learning tools as shown in Figure 4:9.

Figure 4:9

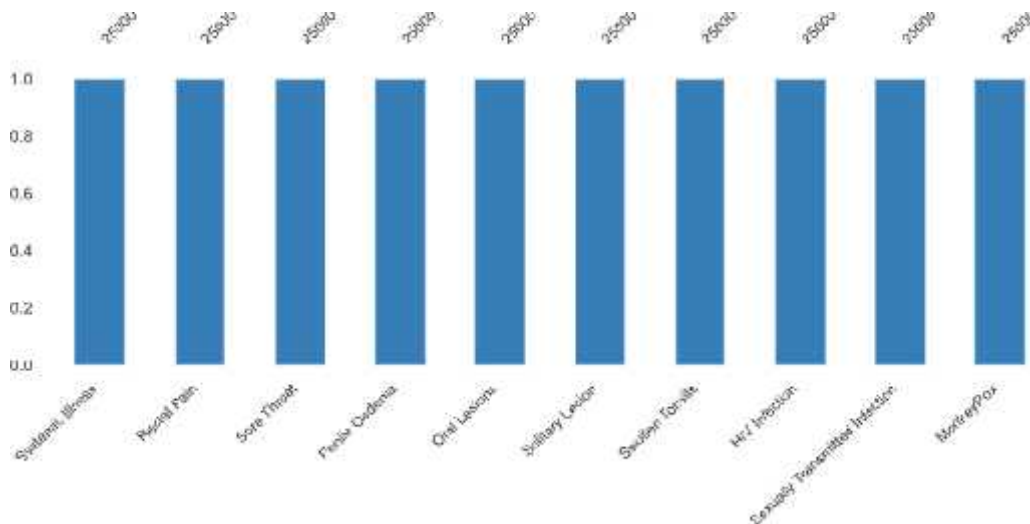
Correlation Heatmap



As shown in Figure 4:10, visualizes the nullity of each columns. The columns showed no null figures.

Figure 4:10

A simple visualization of nullity by column.



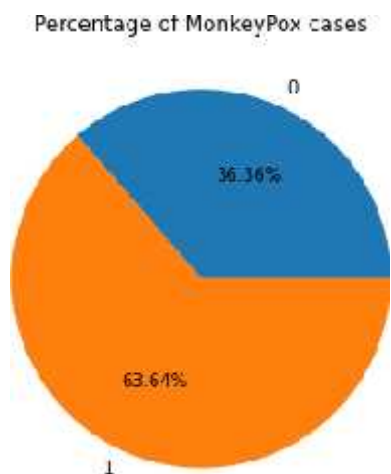
A simple visualization of nullity by column

4.3.2 ExploratoryDataAnalysis

4.3.2.1 UnivariateAnalysis

Figure4:11

PercentagecasesofMonkeypox

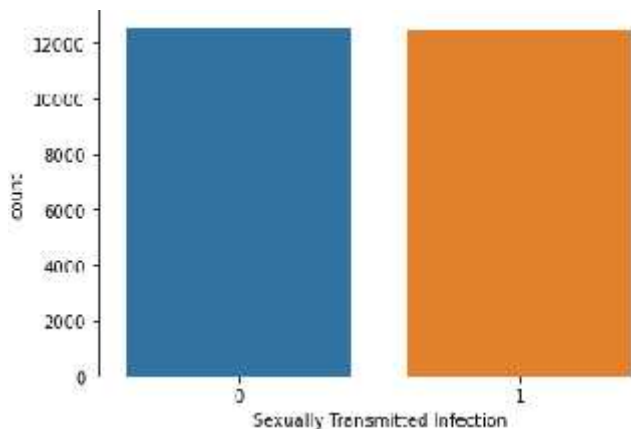


The univariate analysis as illustrated in Figure 4:11, shows the percentage of individuals with negative and positive results with monkeypox after diagnosis. 64.64% of individuals were contracted with the disease, while 36.36% are negative.

4.3.3 Bivariate Analysis

Figure 4:12

Bivariate relationship of people with Sexually transmitted Disease with Monkey Pox.



The above Figure 4:12 shows the illustration of the relationship between people with Sexually transmitted disease and Monkey Pox.

Figure 4:13

Bivariate relationship of people with HIV diagnosed with Monkey Pox

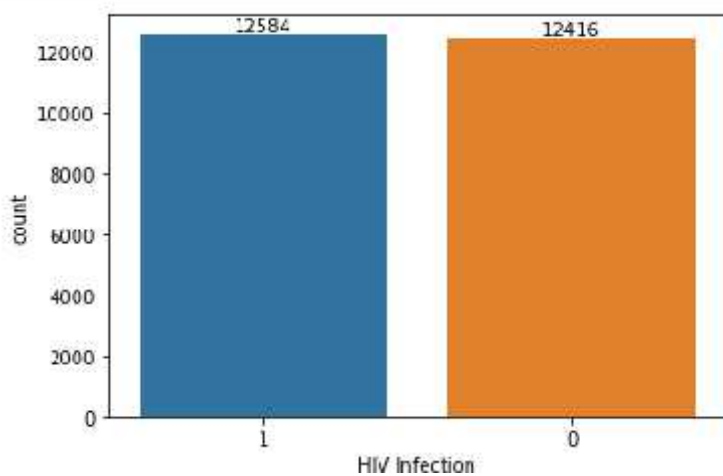
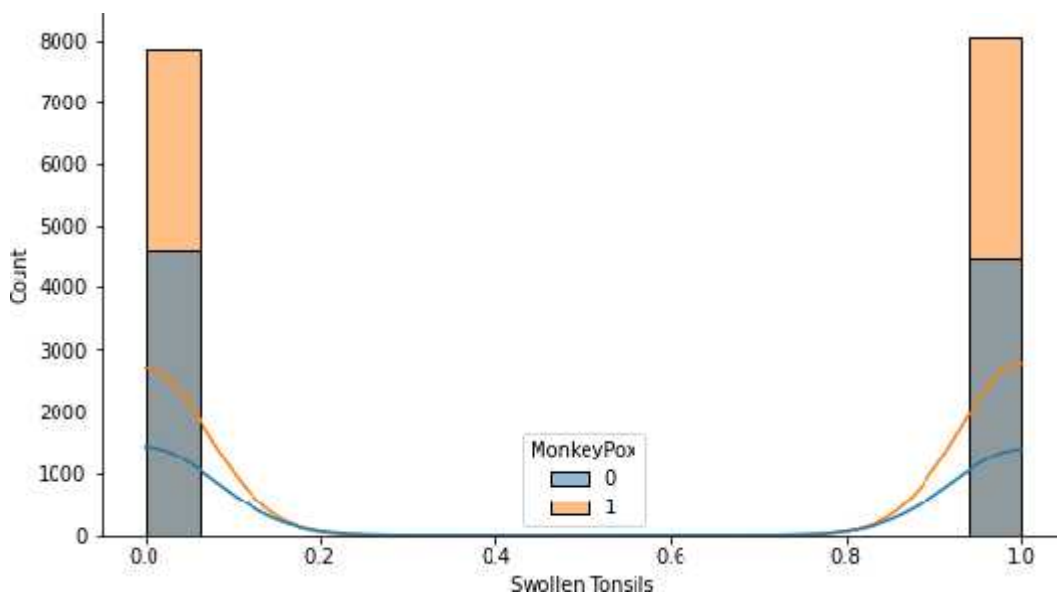


Figure 4:13 represents the bivariate analysis conducted between people diagnosed with HIV, with or without Monkeypox. The data shows that 12,584 positive cases were recorded with 12,416 negative cases. Similarly, the Figure 4:14 visualizes the patients with swollen tonsils diagnose with or without monkeypox. Individuals with monkeypox recorded higher among diagnosed individuals with swollen tonsils.

Figure4:14

Bivariate relationship between swollen tonsils and MonkeyPox



4.4 DataPre-processing:

4.4.1 DataEncoding

Operating the MonkeyPox dataset requires segmenting the data into the component of the dataset (X) and the target variable (y). This separation is necessary for the development of prediction models. In this case, the goal variable is "MonkeyPox," which most likely denotes whether a person has ever experienced the illness. The feature dataset (X) contains every

other parameter, such as systemic illness, rectal pain, sore throat, penile edema, oral lesions, solitary lesion, swollen tonsils, HIV infection, sexually transmitted infection, monkeypox. The ability to forecast or assess whether there is an outbreak of monkeypox using information contained in the attributes is made possible by this data division, making it an essential phase of pre-processing for all the machine learning and statistical tests carried out on the dataset.

4.4.2 Scaling:

To increase the dataset's dependability and effectiveness for analytical and modelling goals, a MinMaxScaler was developed and used. The Min-Max scaler pre-processing technique is used to alter the dataset, ensuring that all features are scaled to a specific range, frequently between 0 and 1. To achieve this, subtract the minimum value from the result and divide it by the range of each attribute. By doing this, the dataset as a whole is normalised and the impacts of the different scales among the parameters are diminished. This normalisation is crucial, especially

when utilising machine learning techniques that depend on the size of the input features. By preventing biases that could arise from variations in the size of distinct features, it ensures that each feature reserves the evaluations and models fairly.

4.4.3 Data Splitting:

The dataset was divided into training and validation sets using the sci-kit-learn 'train_test_split' tool. 'x_train' (training features), 'x_test' (validation features), 'y_train' (training target variable), and 'y_test' (validation target variable) were the four subsets that were created from the data set. 'scaled_data' (attributes) and 'target' (target parameter) are useful for describing the dataset. With 'test_size' set to 33%, 67% of the data will be used for training and 33% will be retained for validation. The 'random_state' option is set to 42 to ensure reproducibility because it fixes the randomly generated seed used in the data splitting process. This division is frequently used in machine learning to assess the performance of models on untested data during the validation stage.

4.5 Building Base Models:

The data built lays the foundation for developing a collection of machine learning models, also known as base models. Logistic regression, Gaussian naive Bayes, random forest, and decision tree classifiers are some of the models used in these scikit-learn implementations. Each model is created for a certain kind of classification task, offering a variety of methods for further research. This establishes the groundwork for additional machine learning procedures like data pre-processing, training, evaluation, and future model performance optimization.

4.5.1 Making Classifier Models Instantiated:

Classification algorithms are developed utilizing the training data that is readily available. The models are gb_mod (for modified), random forest classifier, decision tree classifier, Gaussian naive Bayes, and logistic regression. The instantiation uses the relevant classes from Scikit-Learn. Then, every model is fitted to the training data ('x_train' and 'y_train') using the 'fit' approach. This strategy involves changing the internal parameters of every model to produce precise predictions depending on the supplied features and target variable. When this code is properly run, trained models are produced that can be used to make predictions using brand-new, unanticipated data.

4.5.2 Creating Predictions:

This section focuses on making predictions utilizing the classification algorithms that have already been trained. The 'predict' technique is used to analyze the test data ('x_test') after training the LogisticRegression('lr_mod'), Gaussian naive bayes('gb_mod'), random forest

classifier ('rf_mod'), and decision tree classifier ('dt_mod') on the training data. Predicted values ('pred_lr', 'pred_gb', 'pred_rf', and 'pred_dt') are produced for each model as a consequence. Given the characteristics of the test dataset, these predictions represent the expected results of the models. The effectiveness and precision of the models can be evaluated by comparing these predictions to the actual target values ('y_test'). The predictions play a critical role in determining how well each model generalises to new data and in assessing the models' overall success in addressing the given categorization challenge.

4.6 Model Evaluation:

On the specified test dataset ('x_test', 'y_test'), each of the four models (logistic regression, naive Bayes, random forest classifier, and decision tree classifier) had accuracy scores of 1.0, indicating a flawless classification. A 100% accuracy rating indicates that the models correctly classified each incident in the test set. While high accuracy is desired, it's important to exercise caution because perfect precision could be a sign of overfitting, particularly if the algorithms were created on the exact same variables as the testing.

To guarantee resilience and generalization to new data, it is advised to further assess the model's efficiency using more metrics including accuracy, recall, and F1-score as well as to use cross-validation approaches. Additionally, it's important to evaluate models using a variety of datasets and look at possible problems such as data leaking.

) (lr_mod) Logistic Regression

The test dataset ('x_test', 'y_test') was perfectly classified according to the logistic regression approach, which received a desirable accuracy score of 1.0. All class's recall, precision, and F1-score (0 and 1) are thoroughly broken down in the classification report. Precision, recall, and F1-score for both classes are all provided as 1.0, signifying flawless performance. The support column displays how many instances there are of each class. The logistic regression model outperformed all other models in this test, as seen by its precision, recall, and F1-score macro and weighted averages being all 1.0 as shown in Table 4:4.

Table4:4:ClassificationreportforLogisticregression

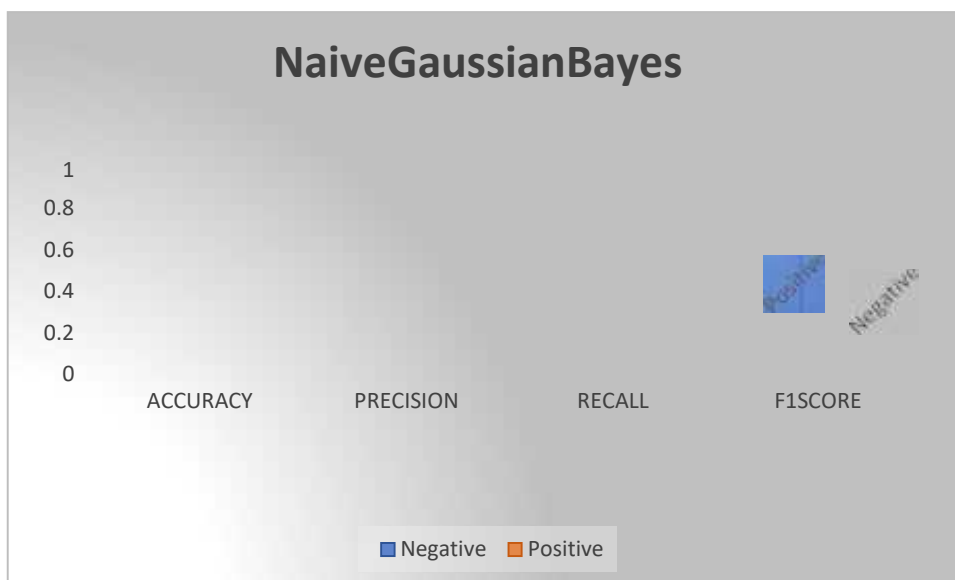
	ACCURACY	PRECISION	RECALL	F1 SCORE
Negative	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Positive	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0

) NaiveGaussianBayes(gb_mod):

TheNaiveBayesalgorithmlikewiseperformedverywell,gettingaperfectaccuracyscoreof 1.0 on the test dataset ('x_test', 'y_test'). The model's accuracy is additionally broken into fourcategories: precision, recall, and F1-score for each class (0 and 1) in the classification report, every single one of which has been identified as being 1.0 as shown in Figure 4:15. Thisrepresentsflawlessclassificationforbothcourses.

Figure4:15

ClassificationreportforNaiveBayes



Thegeneralizedandweightedmeanofprecision,recall,andF1-scoreareallrecordedasbeing1.0,indicating thattheNaiveBayesalgorithmfaredprettywellconsistentlyinthistest.Extra

testing on several datasets with consideration for potential overfitting is necessary to ensure the model's accuracy in different contexts.

) **RandomForestClassifier:**

A flawless accuracy score of 100% on the test dataset ('x_test', 'y_test') was also achieved by the RandomForestClassifier, further demonstrating its exceptional performance. The classification report gives a thorough breakdown of the precision, recall, and F1-score for each class (0 and 1), all of which are given as 1.0, demonstrating perfect categorization across all classes. The instances of every class are shown in the support column.

Table 4:5: Classification report for Logistic regression

	PRECISION	ACCURACY	RECALL	F1 SCORE
Negative	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Positive	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0

Furthermore, the precision, recall, and F1-score macro and weighted averages are all given as 100%, highlighting the Random Forest Classifier's exceptional overall performance in this particular evaluation. Testing the algorithm on various datasets is essential to determining its capacity to generalize and any possibility of overfitting as shown in Table 4:5.

) **DecisionTreeClassifier:**

Every instance in the test set was accurately classified, according to the Decision Tree Classifier's classification report, which demonstrates remarkable performance and has an accuracy score of 1.0. Precision, recall, and F1-score should all be set to 1.0 for a more thorough study. This shows that the model, as shown by the F1-score, has an outstanding balance between precision and recall and is exceptionally accurate in correctly identifying instances of monkeypox. The Decision Tree Classifier displays impressive generalization and classification performance on the MonkeyPox dataset as shown in Figure 4:16.

Figure4:16

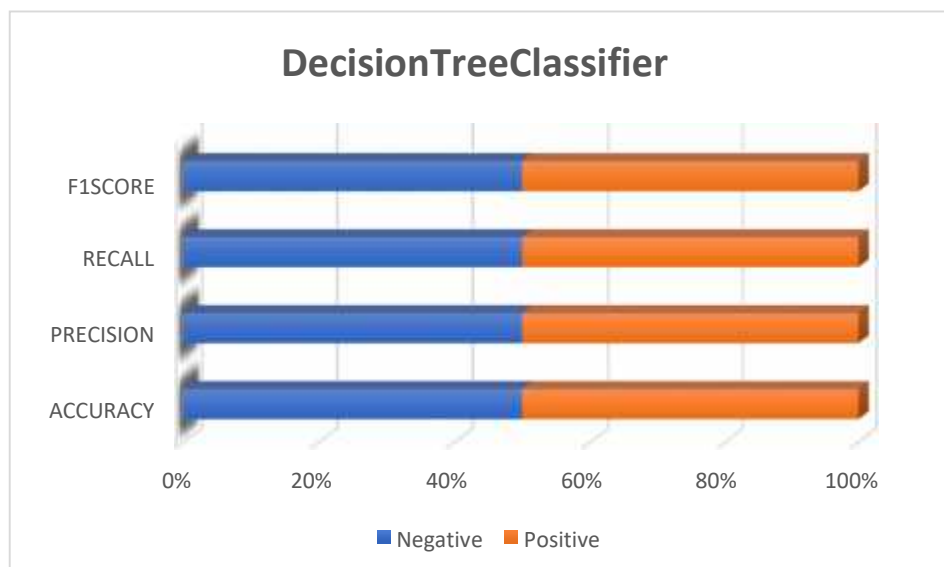
DecisionTreeClassifier

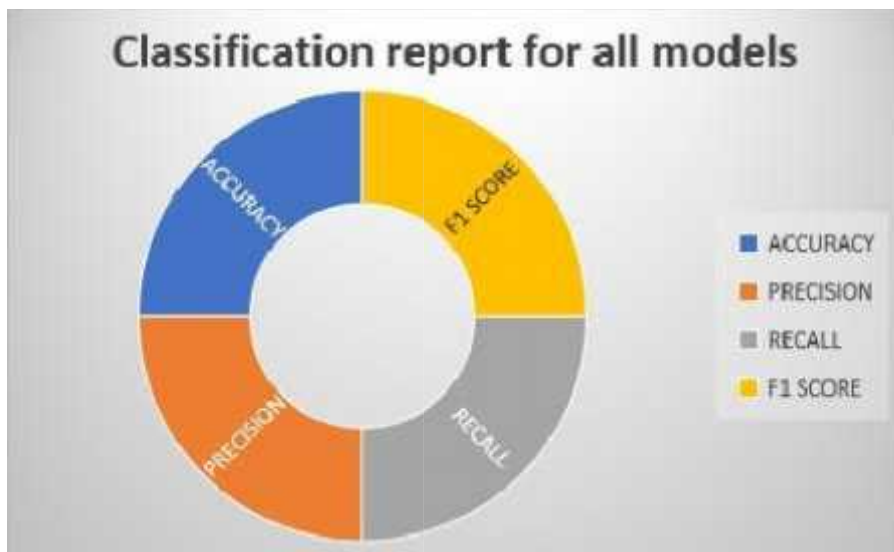
Table4:6:Classificationreportforthemodels

MODEL	ACCURACY	RECALL	PRECISION	F1 SCORE
Linearregression	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Naivebayes	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Randomforest	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Decisiointree	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00

The evaluation results for the classification algorithms Decision Tree Classifier, RandomForest Classifier, Naïve Bayes, and Logistic Regression on the MonkeyPox dataset show exceptional performance. The accuracy score for the test set was 1.0 since every case in the test set was correctly classified for every model. The precision, recall, and F1-score measures show that the models are robust, with values of 1.0 for both classes (0 and 1). According to the F1-score, the models appear to exhibit a satisfying mix of precision and memory, high accuracy in correctly recognizing MonkeyPox cases, and excellent recalling gathering all real MonkeyPox cases as shown in Table4:6.

Figure4:17

Visualization for Classification report for the models

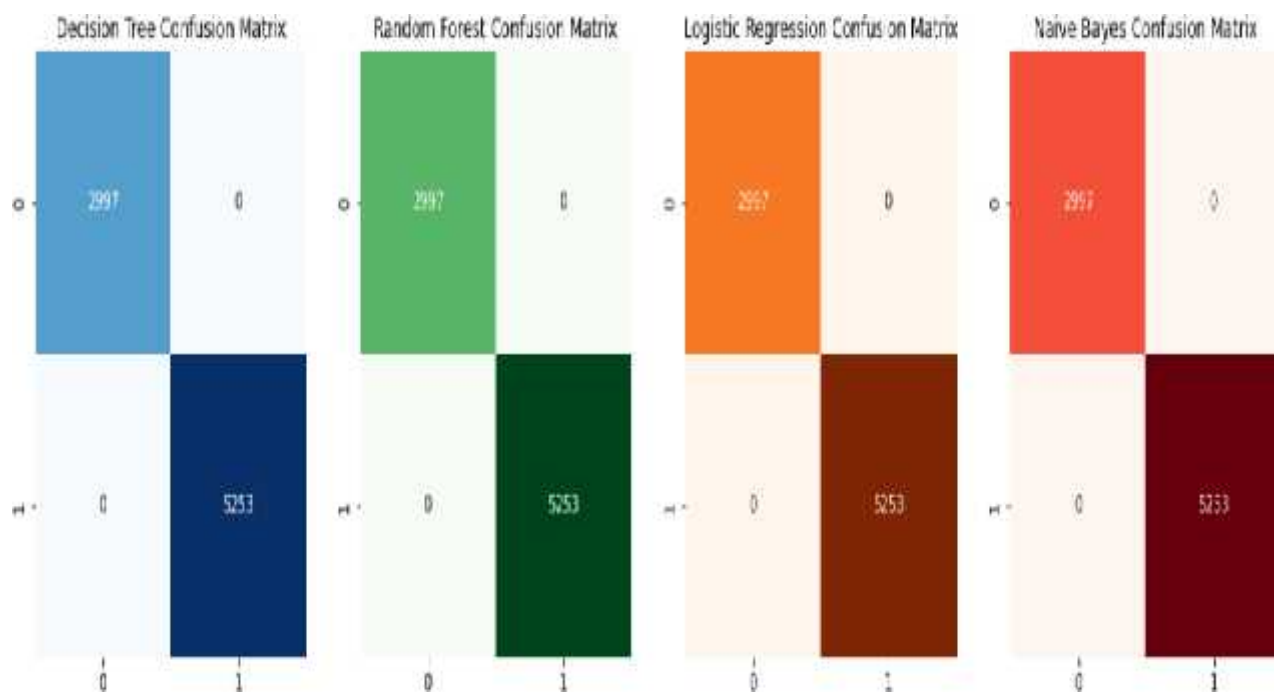


In conclusion, all models demonstrate outstanding generalisation and prediction accuracy using the Monkey Pox dataset. The models consistently and reliably provide high scores across a range of metrics, suggesting that they are well suited for the task of classifying instances of monkeypox as visualized in Figure 4:17.

) **Confusion Matrix:**

The non-existence of any kind of off-diagonal (misclassification) components demonstrates the excellent classification performance displayed by the confusion matrices across all the models (Decision Tree, Random Forest, Logistic Regression, and Naive Bayes). A square matrix keeps track of the number of forecasts categorized as true positive (TP), true negative (TN), false positive (FP), and false negative (FN) as shown in Figure 4:18.

Figure4:18

Confusionmatrixresult

CHAPTER 5

Discussion

A common method of analysis was used in both studies on monkeypox and malaria to use machine learning to predict infectious diseases. The analysis shares similarities in data collecting, pre-

processing, and model construction while having unique diseases brought on by various sources. In both research, variables comprising clinical symptoms, results of diagnostic tests, and pertinent health indicators are examined. In-depth pre-processing ensures uniform and objective sources for the machine learning algorithms by using methods like data encoding and scaling. The models used throughout both investigations include Logistic Regression, Gaussian Naive Bayes, Random Forest, and Decision Tree classifiers.

The results on malaria demonstrate strong model performance, with logistic regression yielding an accuracy of about 91%. A reasonable classification for both malaria-positive and negative results can be seen in the precision, recall, and F1 scores. The choice of the most appropriate model for malaria prediction is aided by a detailed evaluation that highlights the relative advantages and disadvantages of each classifier.

The study gets an outstanding performance rating of 100% for the classification of monkeypox using Logistic Regression, Naive Bayes, Random Forest, and Decision Tree classifiers. Precision, recall, and F1-scores regularly exceed 1.0 for both positive and negative situations, demonstrating the models' dependability. The confusion matrices highlight the perfect classification performance of all models, without any incidents of misclassification being seen. This implies that machine learning algorithms are reliable and resilient in predicting monkeypox based on clinical and symptomatic data.

The Univariate Description of Microscopy is displayed

in Figure 4:2, with an overall incidence of 52.2% cases that were positive and 47.8% negative cases, this image provides a crystal-clear univariate representation of malaria cases. The foundation for additional analysis is formed by this visual depiction, which gives a quick comprehension of the class distribution of the dataset. The Bivariate Analysis of Fever Symptoms and Microscopy is displayed in Figure 4:3.

This graph examines the connection between malaria symptoms and fever symptoms and shows a big link. The visual evidence demonstrates the value of fever as a symptom in identifying malaria cases, which is important knowledge for both medical diagnosis and the development of machine learning models.

The connection between temperature and microscopy is seen in Figure 4:4 as explored in the graph. The visualization emphasizes the link between high temperatures and incidences of malaria, providing useful information from both a medical and predictive modelling standpoint.

The classification report for logistic regression is shown in the table. The Logistic Regression model's performance indicators are broken down in great detail in Table 4:1. For all classes (0 and 1), accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score are shown, providing a thorough assessment of the model's prediction skills.

The random forest classification report is displayed in Figure 4:6. The performance indicators for the random forest classifier are summarised in this graphic. With a focus on both positive and negative situations, the visual representation enables an instant assessment of the model's efficiency, precision, recall, and F1-score.

In a similar vein, Figure 4:11 displays the univariate description of monkeypox cases for monkey pox prediction. A graphic analysis of monkeypox cases revealed a predominance of 64.64% positive cases and 36.36% negative cases. The context for further analysis is established by his understanding of the class distribution.

A bivariate analysis of HIV and monkeypox is also shown in Figure 4:13. The link between HIV cases and monkeypox cases is examined in the figure, which sheds information on the co-occurrence of these diseases. The graphic representation makes it easier to comprehend how many health indicators interact with one another.

Table 4:5 also includes the logistic regression classification report. This table provides a comprehensive classification report for the logistic regression model in the context of monkeypox, similar to the study on malaria. The measurements provide a thorough evaluation of the algorithm's precision and dependability. The visualisation for the classification report for the model is shown in Figure 4:17.

The classification reports for all models—logistic regression, naive Bayes, random forest, and decision tree—can be shown together in this picture. A rapid assessment of model performances across various metrics is possible with the graphical summary.

The two studies employed univariate and bivariate visualization to provide information on the number of cases of diseases and the connections between key medical indicators.

A nuanced knowledge of each class's accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score are possible because of the extensive breakdown of model performance data provided by the classification

reports in the tables. The flawless accuracy scores in both experiments generate questions regarding possible overfitting, which calls for a cautious reading of the findings.

Although not expressly stated, the confusion matrices are assumed to be free of misclassifications, supporting the excellent performance of the models.

This study is distinctively outstanding when compared to studies by [44], [45], [46], [47], and [48] focuses on two deadly infectious diseases, malaria and monkeypox, which pose important public health challenges. This study employs machine learning to predict the prevalence and spread rates of both malaria and monkeypox, whereas earlier studies only employed machine learning methods to detect, categorize, or analyse a specific disease. For example, Morang'a, Collins M., et al. tested six distinct methods for machine learning before settling on one. They employed a three-layer artificial neural network (ANN) for the multiple classification of UM, SM, and nMI. Furthermore, binary classifiers were developed to identify the

characteristics that may distinguish UM or SM from nMI. In a similar study, Uzun Ozsahin, Dilber, et al. focus on the challenges involved in discerning between chickenpox and monkeypox due to the similarity of the skin lesions, which may result in misdiagnosis and additional disease dissemination, urging deep learning tools such as the CNN algorithm, AlexNet, and VGGNet.

Therefore, none of these studies implored two different datasets of two different diseases applying the same machine learning models in the classification. This study is novel in its approach.

CHAPTER 6

Conclusion and Recommendation

This chapter outlines the enhancements that this study has contributed to the established research world in the scientific literature as well as the implications of its results and also serves as a summary of the full study. The study's limitations are then discussed, followed by suggestions for additional research at the chapter's conclusion.

6.1 Conclusion

In summary, the research on monkeypox and malaria applied machine-learning algorithms to improve disease detection and forecasting. Univariate and bivariate analyses offer important insights into the incidence and connections connecting various risk factors for these illnesses. The datasets have been created for system training and evaluation by careful data pre-processing, comprising encoding, scaling, and splitting.

Numerous classifiers, including Logistic Regression, Gaussian Naive Bayes, Random Forest, and Decision Tree, are instantiated to show their effectiveness in correctly predicting the course of monkeypox and malaria illness. The simulations performed exceptionally well. The accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score metrics are highlighted in the classification reports, demonstrating the models' dependability and resilience to the two ailments.

The confusion matrices highlight

the models' precision in differentiating between positive and negative situations while highlighting the lack of any misclassifications. An in-depth analysis of each algorithm's effectiveness is given by the tabular metrics and the graphic representation of categorization reports.

Future work on these subjects could focus on overcoming difficulties with generalization, ethical issues, and practical applications. For the models to be useful in various healthcare contexts, cross-validation strategies, teamwork with medical professionals, and continual model updates are crucial. Furthermore, extending the capability of addressing multi-class cases and adding unique features would help machine learning techniques continue to improve and become more applicable to the diagnosis and treatment of diseases.

6.2 Recommendations

The prospects for the future of the research on malaria and monkeypox include a number of critical components to improve the usefulness and dependability of machine learning algorithms in the medical field. It is crucial to ensure generalization over various datasets and populations in general, use strong cross-validation methods, and carry out external validation on different datasets. For seamless incorporation into healthcare processes, clinical decision support systems must move towards real-time applications, incorporate more features for improved predictive capability, and place a priority on model interpretability. The ethical and responsible use of AI in healthcare will also be aided by dynamic model updating, teamwork with medical personnel, and resolving ethical issues. Also, expanding studies to include novel illness classes or severity levels and handling multi-class classification settings would increase the reach and significance of the application of machine learning in disease prediction.

The findings provide a strong platform for further study and encourage the investigation of various datasets and demographics in order to validate and generalize the machine learning models. Future studies may benefit from using cross-validation methods and evaluating models on several datasets due to potential overfitting issues with perfect accuracy ratings. The use of visual and tabular representations, which promote clarity and comprehensibility when communicating complicated machine learning results to both scientific and professional audiences, is an excellent example of successful machine learning outcomes transmission. Similar methods could also be used in predicting other diseases, using multiple machine learning tools.

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APPENDICES**Appendix A****Ethical Approval Document**

There is no ethical approval document that can be presented.

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Dilber Uzun Ozsahin
Supervisor

Appendix B Curriculum

Vitae

Personal Information

Surname, Name: Basil B. Duwa D

Date of Birth: 01-10-

1990 Place of Birth: Nigeria

Table B1.

Education.

Degree	Department/Program	University	Year of Graduation
B.Sc.	Biological Sciences	Adamawa State University, Nigeria.	2018
M.Sc.	Biomedical Engineering	Near East University	2021
PhD	Biomedical Engineering	Near East University	Present

Table B2.

Work Experience.

Title	Place	Year
Clinical research Assistant	Operational research center in healthcare, NEU	2021-present
Research Assistant	Biomedical Engineering Department	2020-2021
Military Training	National Youth Service to the Federal Republic of Nigeria.	2019
Monitoring and Evaluation (Data Analyst)	Plan International Mubi Adamawa State, Nigeria.	2018
Monitoring and Evaluation	Save the Children International	2012

Publications in International Journals, Conferences and Book Chapters

1. UzunOzsahin,D.,Mustapha,M.T.,Uzun,B.,Duwa,B.,&Ozsahin,I.(2023).Computer-aided detection and classification of monkeypox and chickenpox lesion in humans subjects using deep learning framework. *Diagnostics*,13(2),292.
2. Uzun Ozsahin, D., Mustapha, M. T., Bartholomew Duwa, B., & Ozsahin, I. (2022).Evaluating the performance of deep learning frameworks for malaria parasite detection using microscopic images of peripheral blood smears. *Diagnostics*,12(11),2702.
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Appendix C Similarity Report

chpt1-5			
ORIGINALITY REPORT			
6 %	%	6 %	%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS
CHECKED SOURCES			
1	"Intelligent Data Communication Technologies and Internet of Things", Springer Science and Business Media LLC, 2021 Publication	1 %	
2	Ton Duc Thang University Publication	1 %	
3	Collins M Marang'a, Lucas Amenga-Etego, Saikou Y Bah, Vincent Appiah et al. "Machine learning approaches classify clinical malaria outcomes based on haematological parameters", Cold Spring Harbor Laboratory, 2020 Publication	1 %	
4	Zhang, Mi, and Christopher C. Yang. "Classifying User Intention and Social Support Types in Online Healthcare Discussions", 2014 IEEE International Conference on Healthcare Informatics, 2014. Publication	<1 %	
5	"Data Science and Security", Springer Science and Business Media LLC, 2021 Publication	<1 %	
6	Entesar Hamed I. Eliwa, Amr Mohamed El Koshiry, Tarek Abd El-Hafeez, Heba Mamdouh Farghaly. "Utilizing convolutional neural networks to classify monkeypox skin lesions", Scientific Reports, 2023 Publication	<1 %	
7	"Inventive Computation and Information Technologies", Springer Science and Business Media LLC, 2021 Publication	<1 %	

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