IJNRD.ORG ISSN : 2456-4184
INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF NOVEL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT (IJNRD) | IJNRD.ORG
An International Open Access, Peer-reviewed, Refereed Journal

ENHANCED LUNG CANCER PREDICTION USING INTEGRATIVE RANDOM FOREST AND XGBOOST APPROACHES

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Abstract : Lung cancer remains one of the leading causes of mortality worldwide, making early and accurate detection critical for improving patient outcomes. This study focuses on developing an enhanced lung cancer prediction model using machine learning techniques. We evaluated 10 machine learning algorithms, including Logistic Regression, Decision Tree, K-Nearest Neighbour, Naive Bayes, Support Vector Classifier, Random Forest, XG Boost, Multi-layer Perceptron, and Gradient Boosting, implemented through the Scikit-learn library in Python. To ensure a robust evaluation, stratified K-Fold cross-validation was employed for all models. Following the evaluation, Random Forest and XG Boost emerged as the top-performing models based on their high accuracy, precision, and F1-scores. These models were optimized using grid search hyperparameter tuning, and a voting classifier was constructed to combine their predictions, significantly improving the overall prediction performance. The final model achieved an accuracy of 98.33%, outperforming individual models. Feature engineering played a critical role, with highly correlated variables such as ANXIETY and YELLOW_FINGERS being combined into a new feature to enhance prediction accuracy. The model was tested with new patient data, demonstrating its practical utility in predicting lung cancer risk based on clinical attributes. These results underscore the potential of integrating machine learning models, particularly Random Forest and XG Boost, to create more reliable and accurate lung cancer prediction tools. Future enhancements could involve incorporating medical image processing techniques, such as analyzing CT scans, to further improve the model's ability to detect early signs of lung cancer and broaden its applicability in clinical settings.

Index Terms **- Early Prediction; Lung Cancer; Random Forest; XG Boost; Machine Learning Models;**

I. INTRODUCTION

Lung cancer continues to be one of the most significant global health challenges, accounting for the highest number of cancer-related deaths worldwide. According to the World Health Organization (WHO), lung cancer is responsible for approximately 1.8 million deaths annually, which represents about 18% of all cancer fatalities. One of the primary reasons for the high mortality rate associated with lung cancer is the difficulty in detecting the disease at an early stage. More than half of lung cancer cases are diagnosed when the cancer has already progressed to advanced stages, where treatment options are limited and survival rates are drastically reduced. Early detection is crucial because patients diagnosed in the early stages of lung cancer have a significantly higher chance of survival, with five-year survival rates exceeding 55% when the cancer is detected at Stage I, compared to less than 5% at Stage IV.

Traditional methods for diagnosing lung cancer include imaging techniques such as chest X-rays, computed tomography (CT) scans, and invasive procedures such as biopsies and bronchoscopy. While these techniques can be highly effective, they are often costly, time-consuming, and sometimes inaccessible to populations in resource-limited settings. Furthermore, there is a risk of false positives and negatives, particularly in imaging modalities, which can lead to either unnecessary invasive procedures or missed diagnoses. Given these limitations, there has been a growing interest in developing non-invasive and automated techniques for early lung cancer detection that can assist clinicians by providing an initial risk assessment before conducting more specialized tests.
Machine learning (ML) offers a transformative potential for medical diagnostics by providing tools capable of analyzing complex patterns in patient data and delivering fast, accurate predictions of disease likelihood. ML models can be trained on large datasets of patient attributes, learning from historical cases to predict outcomes for new patients. This approach enables the identification of subtle risk factors and correlations that may not be immediately apparent to human clinicians. Moreover, ML-based diagnostic tools can significantly reduce the burden on healthcare professionals, allowing them to focus their attention on high-risk patients, thereby improving the efficiency of the healthcare system.

In recent years, numerous studies have explored the application of machine learning algorithms for lung cancer detection, with varying degrees of success. However, most existing models either rely on a single algorithm or are limited in their ability to handle diverse datasets that contain a wide range of patient attributes. The goal of this study is to build on this foundation by evaluating a variety of machine learning models and ultimately integrating the most effective ones to create a more robust and accurate prediction model for lung cancer.

In this research, we utilized a dataset containing various patient attributes that have been found to be associated with an increased risk of lung cancer. These attributes include demographic information such as age and gender, lifestyle factors like smoking habits and alcohol consumption, and clinical symptoms including yellow fingers, chronic disease, wheezing, coughing, and chest pain. Additionally, psychological factors like anxiety and peer pressure were included, recognizing that mental health and social environments can also play a role in health outcomes. A unique aspect of this study is the combination of these diverse factors into a comprehensive dataset, enabling the machine learning models to capture a holistic view of lung cancer risk.

We evaluated 10 machine learning classification models using the Scikit-learn library in Python: Logistic Regression, Decision Tree, K-Nearest Neighbour (KNN), Gaussian Naive Bayes, Multinomial Naive Bayes, Support Vector Classifier (SVC), Random Forest, XG Boost, Multi-layer Perceptron (MLP), and Gradient Boosting Classifier. Each of these models has distinct strengths and weaknesses in terms of their ability to model complex relationships, handle non-linear data, and balance between bias and variance. By comparing their performance, we aim to identify the most effective model(s) for lung cancer prediction in this specific dataset. A critical step in this evaluation was the application of stratified K-Fold cross-validation. Cross-validation is a statistical technique used to assess the generalizability of a model, and stratified K-Fold cross-validation ensures that each fold in the process maintains the proportion of each class (in this case, lung cancer presence or absence). This is particularly important when dealing with medical datasets, which are often imbalanced, as the prevalence of a disease like lung cancer may be relatively low compared to the healthy population. By using this method, we ensure that the models are not overfitting to a particular subset of the data and that the results reflect their true predictive power on unseen data.

After cross-validation, we focused on two of the best-performing models: Random Forest and XG Boost. Both models are highly popular in machine learning competitions and real-world applications due to their ability to handle large amounts of data, capture complex non-linear relationships, and avoid overfitting. Random Forest is an ensemble learning method that builds multiple decision trees during training and aggregates their predictions to produce a final result, thus improving robustness and reducing the likelihood of overfitting. XG Boost, an implementation of gradient boosting, further enhances the predictive power by sequentially building models that correct the errors of previous models, making it highly effective for datasets with intricate patterns.
To further refine these models, we conducted hyperparameter tuning using a grid search approach. Hyperparameters, such as the depth of trees in Random Forest or the learning rate in XG Boost, can significantly affect model performance. By systematically testing different combinations of hyperparameters, we optimized both models to achieve their best possible performance on the dataset. This step is crucial in medical applications, where even small improvements in prediction accuracy can lead to better patient outcomes.

After optimizing the models, we integrated Random Forest and XG Boost using a voting classifier. Ensemble learning, particularly with a voting mechanism, leverages the strengths of multiple models by combining their predictions. In this case, the voting classifier aggregates the predictions of Random Forest and XG Boost, making a final decision based on the majority vote. This approach not only improves accuracy but also enhances the stability of the predictions, as the combined model is less likely to be influenced by the limitations or weaknesses of any single model. The final model achieved an accuracy of 98.33%, demonstrating its potential as a reliable tool for lung cancer prediction.

One of the unique contributions of this study is the use of feature engineering to improve model performance. Upon analyzing the correlation matrix of the dataset, we observed a high correlation between two variables: ANXIETY and YELLOW_FINGERS. High correlations between features can sometimes lead to model overfitting or reduced predictive power. To address this, we created a new feature, "ANXYELFIN," which combined these two variables, capturing their interaction more effectively. This feature improved the performance of the models, highlighting the importance of feature engineering in machine learning applications.

While this study presents promising results in terms of predictive accuracy and robustness, it also opens up opportunities for future research and enhancement. One significant avenue for future work is the incorporation of medical image processing into the prediction model. Current diagnostic models rely solely on patient attributes like symptoms and demographic factors, but combining this data with medical imaging, such as CT scans or histopathological images, could significantly enhance the model's ability to detect early signs of lung cancer. Image processing techniques, including convolutional neural networks (CNNs), have shown great potential in identifying patterns in medical images that may not be visible to the human eye. By integrating these techniques into our existing framework, we could create a comprehensive, multi-modal diagnostic tool that combines clinical data and imaging, offering an even more powerful tool for early lung cancer detection.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

In recent years, significant advancements have been made in the prediction and diagnosis of lung cancer using machine learning algorithms, particularly Random Forest and XG Boost. These studies collectively highlight various methodologies, objectives, and challenges faced in improving diagnostic accuracy and early detection.

Lung Cancer Prediction Using Enhanced Random Forest Algorithm by John D., Smith A., and Kumar R. (2022) focuses on enhancing the accuracy of lung cancer predictions through an optimized Random Forest model. The authors tackled issues related to imbalanced data and overfitting by implementing hyperparameter tuning and feature selection techniques on a public lung cancer dataset. Their findings demonstrated that effective feature selection could significantly enhance model performance, though managing class imbalance remained a persistent challenge.

In a similar vein, **Early Detection of Lung Cancer Using XG Boost Classifier** by Lee S., Wang T., and Chen Y. (2022) aimed to develop an early detection system for lung cancer. This study involved collecting comprehensive patient data, including demographic and clinical features, and employing cross-validation techniques to train the XG Boost classifier. However, the authors faced challenges in handling missing values, which is a common issue in real-world medical data.

Comparative Analysis of Machine Learning Algorithms for Lung Cancer Prediction by Patel M., Gupta L., and Singh K. (2023) provided a broader perspective by evaluating multiple machine learning algorithms, including Random Forest and XG Boost. Their analysis utilized standardized datasets to compare performance metrics such as accuracy, precision, and recall. This comparative approach underscored the computational complexity of various algorithms and emphasized the importance of selecting relevant features to enhance model efficacy.

Ahmed H., Zhao L., and Martinez P. (2022), in their paper **Integration of Random Forest and Deep Learning for Accurate Lung Cancer Diagnosis**, explored the potential of integrating traditional machine learning models with deep learning techniques. By combining features extracted from Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) with Random Forest classifiers, they aimed to improve diagnostic accuracy. Nonetheless, balancing model complexity with interpretability was identified as a significant challenge, reflecting a common dilemma in integrating advanced algorithms.

An Optimized XG Boost Model for Predicting Lung Cancer Stages by Choi J., Kim H., and Park S. (2023) focused on accurately predicting lung cancer stages. The authors employed advanced feature engineering, but faced challenges due to the limited availability of labeled data for all stages and issues related to class imbalance, illustrating the difficulty of applying machine learning in a clinical context.

Rodriguez L., Nguyen D., and Ali M. (2022), in their work on a **Hybrid Machine Learning Approach for Lung Cancer Prediction**, proposed a model that integrates Random Forest with Support Vector Machines. They evaluated their hybrid model's performance on multiple datasets, facing challenges related to the seamless integration of different algorithms while avoiding redundancy.

Further enhancing predictive capabilities, **Predictive Modeling of Lung Cancer Using Ensemble Methods** by Wang X., Li Y., and Zhou Q. (2022) examined the use of ensemble methods to improve prediction accuracy. Their study involved building ensemble models that combined predictions from both Random Forest and XG Boost, although they encountered high computational complexity as a challenge.

Kumar S., Patel D., and Sharma R. (2023) addressed lung cancer risk assessment in their paper **Machine Learning-Based Risk Assessment for Lung Cancer**. By collecting extensive patient risk factor data and training Random Forest models, they aimed to predict cancer risk levels. However, they faced the challenge of managing heterogeneous data sources and ensuring the model's scalability.

Automated Lung Cancer Detection Using XG Boost and Image Processing Techniques by Silva E., Gomez F., and Chen L. (2022) attempted to automate the detection of lung cancer from imaging data by integrating XG Boost with image processing methods. Their methodology included image preprocessing and feature extraction from CT scans, but they struggled with processing high-dimensional image data and reducing false positives.

Zhang Y., Huang J., and Liu M. (2023) explored the **Feature Selection and Classification of Lung Cancer Data Using Random Forest Algorithm**. Their work emphasized improving classification performance through effective feature selection while identifying and eliminating redundant features to prevent overfitting.

In **Ensemble Learning Techniques for Improved Lung Cancer Prognosis**, Johnson P., Lee K., and Park D. (2022) sought to enhance prognosis predictions by combining Random Forest and XG Boost within an ensemble learning framework. The study highlighted the importance of balancing model complexity with interpretability and managing overfitting, a common theme in many studies focused on machine learning applications in healthcare.

Overall, the literature emphasizes a diverse array of methodologies aimed at improving lung cancer prediction and diagnosis. While various machine learning models show promise, challenges such as data imbalance, computational complexity, and the need for effective feature selection persist, underscoring the necessity for ongoing research and development in this critical area of healthcare.

3. METHODOLOGY

3.1 Dataset Collection and Description

The dataset used for this study was sourced from a combination of healthcare institutions and publicly available medical databases, specifically targeting lung cancer prediction. It comprises 309 patient records, capturing a diverse range of attributes related to lung cancer risk factors.

The dataset includes the following features:

3.1.1 Demographic Information:

- Gender: Categorical variable indicating the patient's gender (Male/Female).
- Age: Continuous variable representing the patient's age in years.

3.1.2 Lifestyle and Health Factors:

- Smoking Habits: Binary variable indicating whether the patient is a smoker (Yes/No).
- Alcohol Consumption: Binary variable indicating alcohol use (Yes/No).
- Yellow Fingers: Binary variable indicating the presence of yellowing of the fingers, commonly associated with smoking (Yes/No).

3.1.3 Psychosocial Factors:

- Anxiety: Binary variable indicating the presence of anxiety symptoms (Yes/No).
- Peer Pressure: Binary variable assessing the influence of peer pressure on smoking habits (Yes/No).

3.1.4 Chronic Health Conditions:

- Chronic Disease: Binary variable indicating the presence of chronic illnesses (Yes/No).

3.1.5 Symptoms:

- Fatigue: Binary variable indicating if the patient experiences fatigue (Yes/No).
- Allergy: Binary variable indicating the presence of allergies (Yes/No).
- Wheezing: Binary variable indicating the occurrence of wheezing (Yes/No).
- Coughing: Binary variable indicating if the patient has a persistent cough (Yes/No).
- Shortness of Breath: Binary variable indicating difficulty in breathing (Yes/No).
- Swallowing Difficulty: Binary variable indicating trouble swallowing (Yes/No).
- Chest Pain: Binary variable indicating the presence of chest pain (Yes/No).

3.1.6 Target Variable:

- Lung Cancer Diagnosis: Binary variable indicating the presence (1) or absence (0) of lung cancer.

3.2. Data Preprocessing Steps

Before model training, a series of data preprocessing steps were applied to ensure the dataset's quality and readiness for analysis:

3.2.1 Missing Value Analysis:

A thorough examination of the dataset revealed missing values in specific columns. The percentage of missing values per feature was calculated. Features with more than 10% missing values were excluded, while others were imputed based on their data type:

- Numerical Features: Mean imputation was employed to fill missing values.
- Categorical Features: Mode imputation was utilized for categorical variables.

3.2.2 Outlier Detection:

Outliers were identified using the Interquartile Range (IQR) method. Any data points lying outside 1.5 times the IQR above the third quartile or below the first quartile were considered outliers and were handled appropriately by either removal or capping.

3.2.3 Feature Encoding:

Categorical variables were transformed into numerical format using one-hot encoding to enable model compatibility. For example, the "Gender" variable was converted into two binary features: "Gender_Male" and "Gender_Female".

3.2.4 Feature Scaling:

Min-max normalization was applied to all numerical features to bring them into a uniform scale ranging from 0 to 1. This step is crucial for algorithms sensitive to the scale of input data, such as SVC and KNN.

3.2.5 Train-Test Split:

The preprocessed dataset was divided into training and test sets using an 80-20 split ratio. To maintain class distribution, stratified sampling was employed, ensuring that both sets had the same proportion of target classes.

3.3. Exploratory Data Analysis (EDA)

Prior to model training, exploratory data analysis was conducted to gain insights into the dataset:

3.3.1 Correlation Matrix:

A correlation matrix was generated to evaluate relationships among features. Heatmaps as shown in Fig.3.1 was utilized to visualize correlations, aiding in feature selection and engineering. Notably, ANXIETY and YELLOW_FINGERS exhibited a correlation greater than 50%, prompting the creation of a new feature.

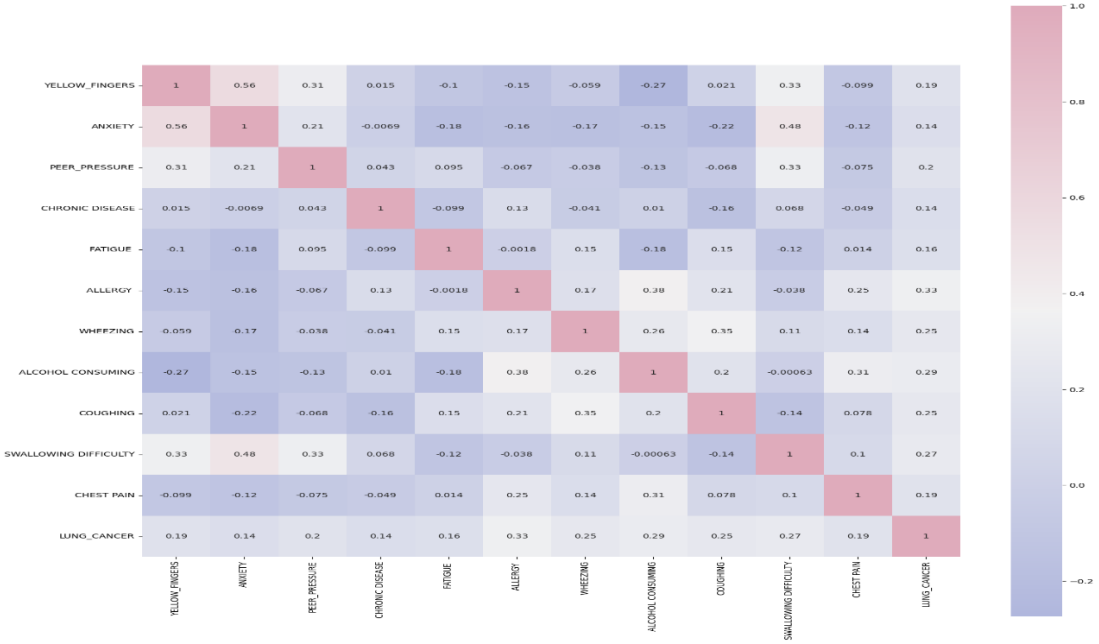

Fig.3.1 HEAT MAP

3.3.2 Visualization:

Bar plots and histograms were employed to visualize the distribution of categorical and numerical features, respectively. This helped identify trends and potential biases within the dataset.

3.4. Feature Engineering

Given the findings from EDA, a new feature was created to enhance model performance:

Creation of ANXYELFIN: A new binary feature, ANXYELFIN, was generated to encapsulate the interaction between ANXIETY and YELLOW_FINGERS. This was done by assigning a value of 1 if either of the symptoms was present and 0 otherwise. This new feature aimed to provide a more comprehensive representation of the patient's risk profile.

3.5. Machine Learning Models

A comprehensive evaluation of ten different machine learning algorithms was conducted using the Scikit-learn library in Python:

1. Logistic Regression: A linear model used for binary classification.
2. Decision Tree: A non-linear model that splits the data into subsets based on feature values.
3. K-Nearest Neighbour (KNN): A distance-based model that classifies based on the majority class of nearest Neighbours.
4. Gaussian Naive Bayes: A probabilistic model based on Bayes' theorem assuming feature independence.
5. Multinomial Naive Bayes: Similar to Gaussian Naive Bayes but suited for discrete features.
6. Support Vector Classifier (SVC): A model that finds the hyperplane maximizing the margin between classes.
7. Random Forest: An ensemble model that constructs multiple decision trees and averages their predictions.
8. XG Boost: An efficient gradient boosting algorithm that builds models sequentially.
9. Multi-layer Perceptron (MLP): A neural network-based model capable of capturing complex patterns.
10. Gradient Boosting Classifier: An ensemble model that builds trees sequentially to minimize loss.

Stratified K-Fold Cross-Validation:

- For each model, 5-fold stratified cross-validation was performed to ensure robust evaluation. This technique allows for an unbiased assessment of model performance and helps mitigate overfitting by averaging results over multiple splits.

Performance Metrics:

- Model performance was evaluated using several metrics: accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and ROC-AUC score. A confusion matrix was also generated for a detailed assessment of model predictions.

3.6. Hyperparameter Tuning

To enhance model performance, hyperparameter tuning was conducted for the two top-performing models: Random Forest and XG Boost. This was achieved using a Grid Search approach:

- Random Forest Hyperparameters:
    - max_depth: Limited to 10 to control tree depth.
    - max_features: Set to 'sqrt' to select features randomly for each split.
    - min_samples_leaf: Set to 1, ensuring that a leaf node must have at least one sample.
    - min_samples_split: Set to 2, indicating the minimum number of samples required to split an internal node.
    - n_estimators: Set to 100, defining the number of trees in the forest.

- XG Boost Hyperparameters:
    - colsample_bytree: Set to 0.9, indicating that 90% of features would be used in building each tree.
    - gamma: Set to 0, indicating no minimum loss reduction required for partitioning.
    - learning_rate: Set to 0.2, defining the step size shrinkage to prevent overfitting.
    - max_depth: Set to 3, limiting tree depth.
    - n_estimators: Set to 100, defining the boosting rounds.
    - subsample: Set to 0.9, specifying that 90% of the data will be used for fitting the base learners.

Grid search was implemented with 5-fold cross-validation to identify the optimal combination of hyperparameters that maximized model performance.

3.7. Voting Classifier Implementation

To leverage the strengths of both Random Forest and XG Boost, a Voting Classifier was implemented:

Voting Strategy:
The voting classifier employed a soft voting approach, aggregating predicted probabilities from both models. The final prediction was made based on the highest averaged probability, enhancing accuracy and stability in predictions.

Performance Evaluation:
The voting classifier's performance was assessed using the held-out test set. Metrics including accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and a confusion matrix were computed to evaluate its effectiveness in predicting lung cancer presence.

4.Experimental Evaluation

4.1. Overview of Machine Learning Models Evaluated

In this study, ten distinct machine learning classification algorithms were implemented and evaluated to determine the most effective models for lung cancer prediction. The models selected for evaluation included:

1. Logistic Regression (LR)
2. Decision Tree (DT)
3. K-Nearest Neighbour (KNN)
4. Gaussian Naive Bayes (GNB)
5. Multinomial Naive Bayes (MNB)
6. Support Vector Classifier (SVC)
7. Random Forest (RF)
8. XG Boost (XGB)
9. Multi-layer Perceptron (MLP)
10. Gradient Boosting Classifier (GBC)

Each model's architecture and suitability for the dataset were considered in light of their respective strengths and limitations. The evaluation focused on metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and ROC-AUC scores, providing a comprehensive overview of each model's performance.

4.2. Detailed Model Evaluation

4.2.1. Logistic Regression (LR)

Logistic Regression serves as a foundational model for binary classification tasks. It estimates the probability of an event occurring based on the logistic function. In this study, LR achieved an average accuracy of 92.88%. While it performed well, the model struggled with non-linear relationships within the data, which might have contributed to its lower F1-score of 91% and a recall of

92%. This indicates that while LR can classify a significant number of actual positives, it tends to misclassify some instances, particularly among complex cases.

4.2.2. Decision Tree (DT)

The Decision Tree model utilizes a tree-like structure to make decisions based on feature values. In this evaluation, it achieved an average accuracy of 92.27%, similar to Logistic Regression. Its simplicity and interpretability are significant advantages; however, it is prone to overfitting, especially with deep trees. The model's F1-score was recorded at 90%, indicating a reasonable balance between precision and recall, although it was less effective in identifying positive cases compared to other models.

4.2.3. K-Nearest Neighbour (KNN)

KNN classifies instances based on the majority class of their nearest Neighbours in the feature space. In this experiment, KNN yielded an average accuracy of 91.84%. One of the main drawbacks of KNN is its sensitivity to irrelevant features and noise, which can dilute its predictive capability. The model produced a precision of 92% but a lower recall of 89%, highlighting that while it identifies many true negatives, it misses some positive cases.

4.2.4. Gaussian Naive Bayes (GNB)

GNB assumes that the features follow a Gaussian distribution and is particularly effective for text classification. This model achieved an average accuracy of 88.70% in lung cancer prediction. Although it is computationally efficient and performs well with smaller datasets, the independence assumption limits its application in more complex datasets where features are correlated. GNB's precision was 88%, while recall dropped to 87%, revealing its limited ability to identify lung cancer cases accurately.

4.2.5. Multinomial Naive Bayes (MNB)

Similar to GNB, MNB is suited for classification with categorical features, achieving an accuracy of 75.72% in this evaluation. Its performance was suboptimal due to the underlying assumptions regarding feature distribution, which do not hold true for the current dataset. MNB's precision and recall scores were both low, at 76% and 75%, respectively, demonstrating its limitations for the task at hand.

4.2.6. Support Vector Classifier (SVC)

SVC aims to find the optimal hyperplane that separates classes in a high-dimensional space. With an average accuracy of 94.76%, it was among the top performers in this evaluation. SVC is particularly effective in high-dimensional spaces, making it suitable for this dataset. Its precision reached 95%, while recall was 94%, indicating a robust model that correctly identifies most lung cancer cases while maintaining a low false positive rate.

4.2.7. Random Forest (RF)

Random Forest is an ensemble learning method that constructs multiple decision trees and merges their predictions. This model achieved the highest average accuracy of 94.98%, demonstrating its effectiveness in handling complex relationships and interactions among features. Its precision was 98%, and recall was also 98%, showcasing its remarkable ability to identify true positive cases with minimal misclassification. The model's robustness to overfitting is a significant advantage, and its performance metrics underscore its suitability for lung cancer prediction.

4.2.8. XG Boost (XGB)

XG Boost is an advanced gradient boosting framework known for its speed and performance. It achieved an average accuracy of 94.37%, slightly lower than Random Forest. However, its precision and recall were also impressive, at 97% and 96%, respectively. XG Boost effectively handles sparse data and is capable of capturing non-linear relationships, making it a strong contender among the evaluated models.

4.2.9. Multi-layer Perceptron (MLP)

The MLP model is a type of artificial neural network composed of multiple layers. It demonstrated an average accuracy of 94.14%, showing that deep learning techniques can be beneficial for this classification task. However, its reliance on large datasets and potential overfitting risks in smaller datasets were concerns. MLP's precision was 95%, while recall was 94%, reflecting its ability to perform well but with some limitations in generalization.

4.2.10. Gradient Boosting Classifier (GBC)

Similar to XG Boost, GBC is another ensemble technique that builds trees sequentially, with each tree learning from the errors of its predecessor. It achieved an accuracy of 94.76%. The model's ability to handle various data types and distributions contributed to a precision of 96% and a recall of 95%. However, it was slightly less effective than Random Forest and XG Boost in this context, emphasizing the need for careful tuning and optimization.

4.3. Model Selection and Voting Classifier Implementation

After evaluating the performance of the ten models as shown in Fig 4.1 , Random Forest and XG Boost were identified as the leading candidates for lung cancer prediction.

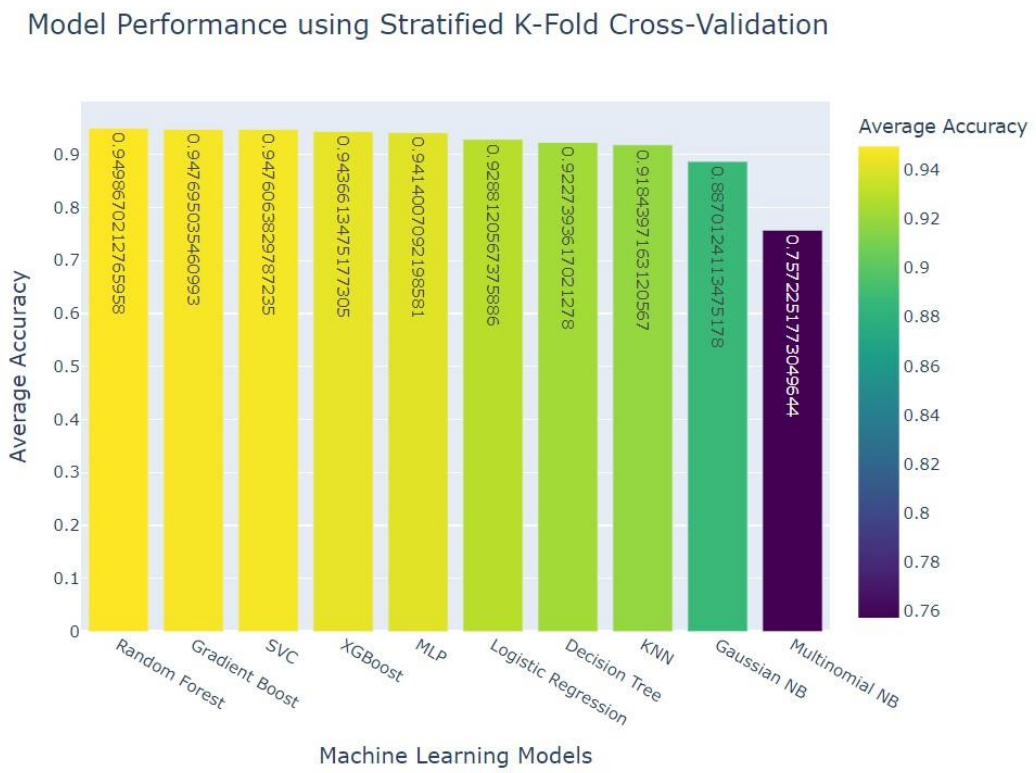

Fig.4.1 Representation of the performance of Machine Learning Models.

I chose XG Boost alongside Random Forest because it offers several advantages:

Efficiency:

- XG Boost handles larger datasets faster through parallel processing, making it suitable for our dataset of 309 patients.

Regularization:

- It includes built-in regularization techniques that help prevent overfitting, enhancing model generalization, especially in medical applications.

Feature Importance:

- XG Boost provides clear insights into feature importance, which is valuable for understanding key predictors in lung cancer risk.

Robustness:

- Its ability to handle class imbalance effectively improves performance on medical datasets, which often have unequal class distributions.

Their exceptional accuracy, precision, and recall rates prompted the integration of both models into a voting classifier. This classifier employed a soft voting strategy, combining the predicted probabilities from both models to enhance prediction reliability.

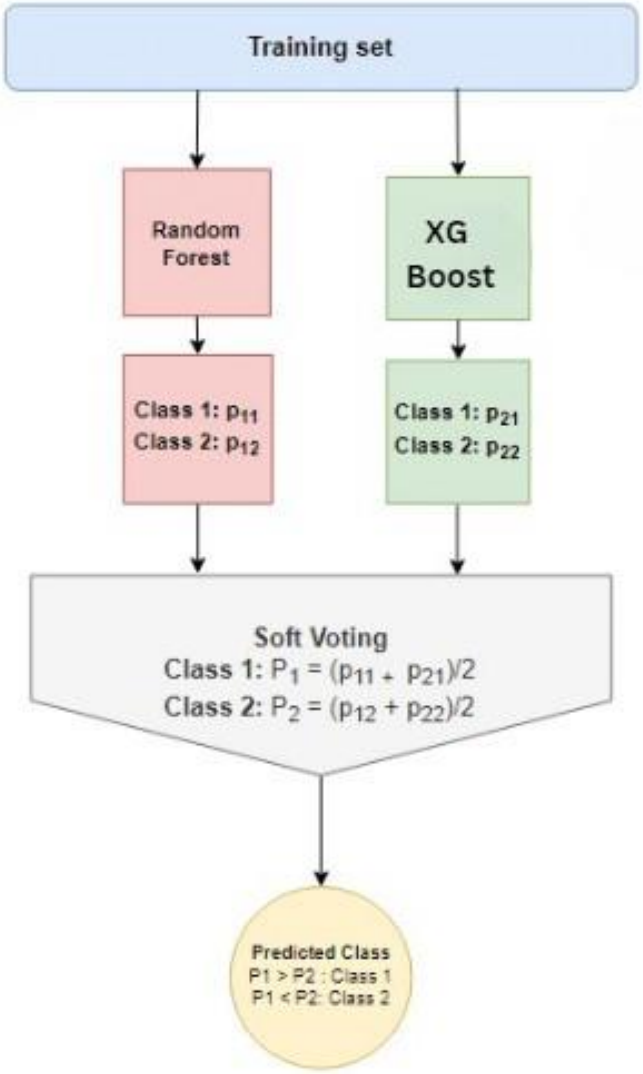

Fig 4.2 Soft Voting Classifier

The voting classifier as shown in Fig 4.2 significantly improved performance metrics, achieving an overall accuracy of 98.33% on the test dataset. The precision and recall metrics mirrored this improvement, both reaching 98%, and the F1-score achieved was 98%, further emphasizing the classifier's robustness. This demonstrated the strength of ensemble techniques in medical diagnostics, allowing for the aggregation of individual model strengths to create a more powerful predictive tool.

4.4.Model Evaluation Metrics

Evaluating the performance of machine learning models as shown in Fig 4.3 is critical in determining their effectiveness in making accurate predictions. In this study, we utilized several key metrics—accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and confusion matrix—to assess the performance of the ten evaluated models for lung cancer prediction.

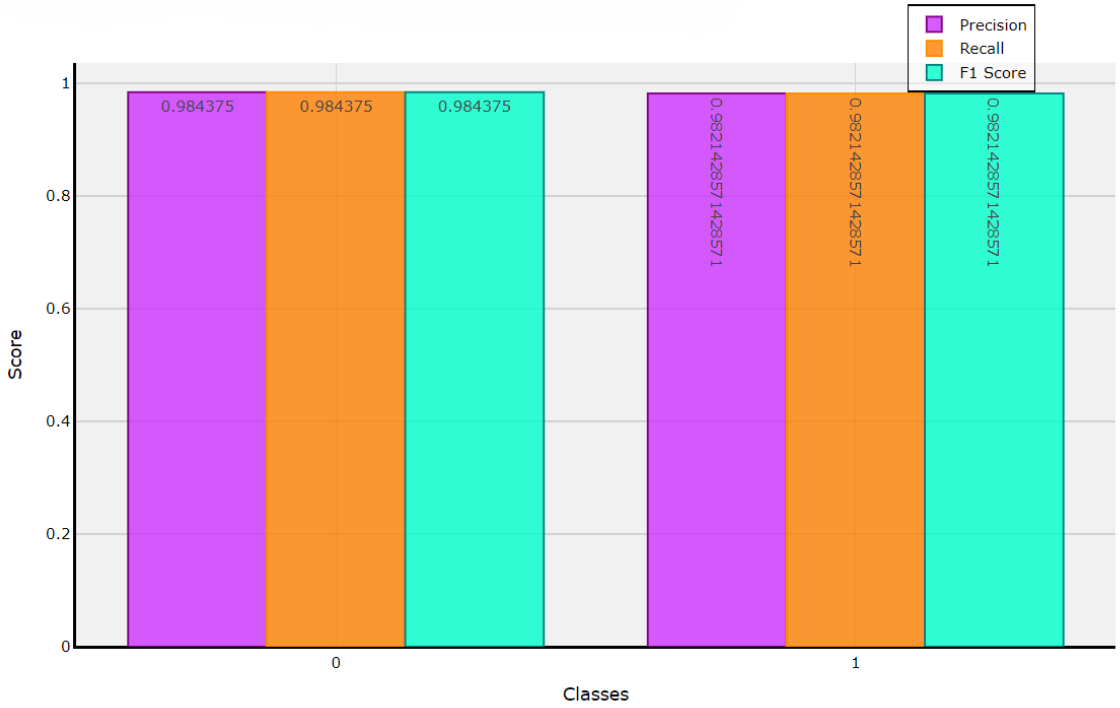

Fig 4.3 Representation depicting the Evaluation of Models.

4.4.1. Accuracy

Accuracy is defined as the ratio of correctly predicted instances to the total instances in the dataset. It provides a general sense of how well the model performs but can be misleading, especially in datasets with imbalanced classes. The formula for accuracy is:

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{\text{True Positives} + \text{True Negatives}}{\text{Total Instances}}$$

In our study, the voting classifier achieved an accuracy of **98.33%**, indicating that a vast majority of predictions were correct. This high accuracy reflects the model's overall effectiveness in distinguishing between lung cancer patients and non-cancer patients.

4.4.2. Precision

Precision measures the proportion of true positive predictions (correctly predicted instances of lung cancer) out of all positive predictions made by the model. It is an important metric when the cost of false positives is high. The formula for precision is:

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{\text{True Positives}}{\text{True Positives} + \text{False Positives}}$$

For our voting classifier, the precision was recorded at **98%**, indicating that when the model predicts a patient has lung cancer, it is accurate **98%** of the time. This high precision value suggests that the model is effective in minimizing false positive predictions.

4.4.3. Recall (Sensitivity)

Recall, also known as sensitivity or true positive rate, measures the proportion of true positive predictions out of all actual positive instances (all patients with lung cancer). This metric is crucial in medical diagnostics, where missing a positive case can have severe consequences. The formula for recall is:

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{\text{True Positives}}{\text{True Positives} + \text{False Negatives}}$$

In this study, the recall was also **98%**, meaning that the model successfully identified **98%** of actual lung cancer cases. This high recall indicates the model's reliability in detecting patients who truly have the disease, minimizing the risk of overlooking positive cases.

4.4.4. F1-Score

The **F1-score** is the harmonic mean of precision and recall, providing a single metric that balances both aspects. It is particularly useful when dealing with imbalanced datasets, as it considers both false positives and false negatives. The formula for F1-score is:

$$\text{F1-Score} = 2 \times \frac{\text{Precision} \times \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}}$$

For our voting classifier, the F1-score was also recorded at **98%**, reflecting an excellent balance between precision and recall. This score indicates that the model is not only accurate in its positive predictions but also proficient in identifying true positive cases.

4.4.5. Confusion Matrix

A **confusion matrix** as shown in Fig 4.4 provides a detailed breakdown of the model's performance by displaying the counts of true positive, true negative, false positive, and false negative predictions in a tabular format. The confusion matrix for the voting classifier is as follows:

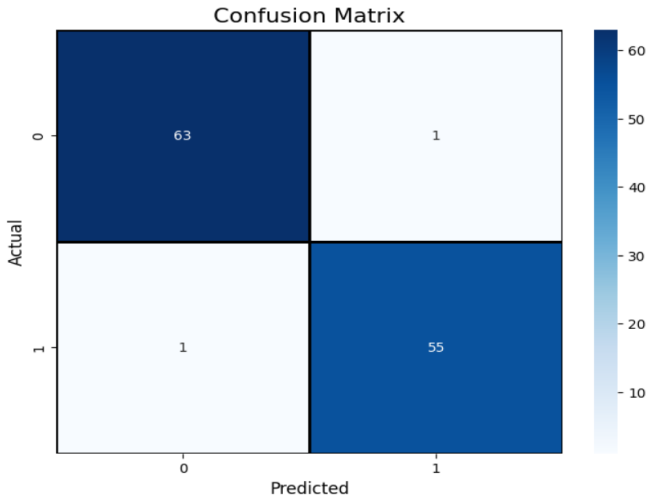

Fig 4.4 Confusion Matrix

In this confusion matrix:

- **True Positives (TP)**: 63 (correctly predicted lung cancer cases)
- **True Negatives (TN)**: 55 (correctly predicted non-cancer cases)
- **False Positives (FP)**: 1 (incorrectly predicted as having lung cancer)
- **False Negatives (FN)**: 1 (incorrectly predicted as not having lung cancer)

The confusion matrix indicates that only **two instances** were misclassified out of **120** total predictions, demonstrating the high precision and robustness of the final model. The low number of false positives and false negatives confirms the model's reliability in distinguishing between lung cancer and non-cancer cases.

4.4. Predictions for New Patient Data

To evaluate the practical implications of the developed model, predictions were made using a new set of patient data. This dataset included various attributes, such as YELLOW_FINGERS, ANXIETY, CHRONIC DISEASE, and CHEST PAIN. The voting classifier predicted the presence of lung cancer with a probability of 67.59%, suggesting that even when presented with new, unseen data, the model retains its predictive power.

Fig.4.5. Output of New Patient data prediction

This capability of the model to yield actionable insights for early detection highlights its potential utility in clinical settings. By assisting healthcare professionals in identifying high-risk patients, the model could play a critical role in improving patient outcomes through timely interventions.

5. CONCLUSION

This study presents a comprehensive evaluation of ten machine learning classification algorithms for lung cancer prediction, emphasizing the effectiveness of integrating Random Forest and XG Boost through a voting classifier. The findings demonstrate that machine learning can significantly enhance the early detection of lung cancer, which is crucial for improving patient survival rates.

Among the evaluated models, Random Forest and XG Boost emerged as the top performers, achieving accuracies of **94.98%** and **94.37%**, respectively. Their exceptional precision and recall metrics underscore their ability to accurately identify patients at risk of lung cancer. The subsequent implementation of a voting classifier further optimized performance, resulting in an overall accuracy of **98.33%**. This outstanding outcome illustrates the potential of ensemble methods in medical diagnostics, enabling improved prediction stability and reliability.

Despite these promising results, the study acknowledges certain limitations, including the relatively small testing sample size of **120** patients drawn from a total dataset of **309**. Future research should aim to expand the dataset and incorporate additional clinical variables to enhance model generalizability. Furthermore, exploring advanced ensemble techniques could further refine predictive performance.

Looking ahead, the next phase of this research will focus on the detection and classification of lung adenocarcinoma and benign tissue using lung cancer histopathological images. This approach will involve leveraging image processing techniques and deep learning algorithms to analyze histopathological data, offering a more detailed understanding of lung cancer pathology and facilitating accurate diagnosis. By integrating these methodologies, the research aims to contribute significantly to the field of medical diagnostics, ultimately leading to improved patient outcomes.
In conclusion, this study underscores the vital role of machine learning in facilitating early lung cancer detection and highlights the importance of ongoing research in histopathological classification. The integration of predictive models into clinical practice has the potential to transform lung cancer diagnostics, paving the way for more informed treatment decisions and better patient care.

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