

Impact of machine learning‑based imputation techniques on medical datasets‑ a comparative analysis

Shweta Tiwaskar1 · Mamoon Rashid[1](http://orcid.org/0000-0002-8302-4571) · Prasad Gokhale1

Received: 1 June 2023 / Revised: 1 February 2024 / Accepted: 27 March 2024 © The Author(s), under exclusive licence to Springer Science+Business Media, LLC, part of Springer Nature 2024

Abstract

In the realm of medical datasets, particularly when considering diabetes, the occurrence of data incompleteness is a prevalent issue. Unveiling valuable patterns through medical data analysis is crucial for early and precise medical predictions. However, the quality of data and the proper handling of missing data hold signifcant signifcance. To address this challenge, imputation stands as a robust approach. The main goal of this paper aims to provide a comprehensive investigation into the efects brought about by Machine Learning (ML) based imputation techniques, specifcally K Nearest Neighbor Imputation (KNNI), Multiple Imputation by Chained Equations (MICE), and MissForest. Results of all three techniques are compared with the complete dataset for fve missing rates (10% to 50%), and evaluated using four categories of evaluation criteria i.e. (1) model performance, (2) imputation error rate (Mean Absolute Error (MAE), Root Mean Squared Error (RMSE), Coefficient of Determination (R^2) values), (3) Pearson correlation analysis and, (4) model selection basis (Bayesian information criterion (BIC), Akaike information criterion (AIC), values). Model performance includes accuracy, precision, recall, F1 score, and Matthews Correlation Coefficient (Mcoff) score of four ML classifiers viz. (a) Random Forest (RF), (b) Support vector machine (SVM), (c) AdaBoost, (d) XGBoost (XGB). For all missing rate cases, the MissForest technique is better than the KNNI and MICE in accuracy and Mcoff in 80% of cases, precision in 40% of cases, recall in 60% of cases, F1 score, MAE, RMSE, R^2 in 100% of cases, AIC in 80% of cases, and BIC values in 100% of cases. Also, the correlation analysis confrms that the MissForest imputation preserves association between the variables, like the complete dataset. Overall, our fndings suggest that MissForest is a better machine learning-based imputation technique for handling missing data in diabetes research.

Keywords Missing data · Machine learning-based imputation techniques · Diabetes prediction

 \boxtimes Mamoon Rashid mamoon873@gmail.com

¹ Department of Computer Engineering, Faculty of Science and Technology, Vishwakarma University, Pune, India

1 Introduction

According to IDF (International Diabetes Federation) Diabetes Atlas, the worldwide occurrence rate of diabetes in the 20 to 79 age group was 10.5% in 2021, equivalent to approximately 536.6 million people. This fgure is projected to increase to 12.2% by 2045, reaching around 783.2 million individuals [\[1](#page-18-0)]. Diabetes is known to be associated with severe complications such as retinopathy, neuropathy, cancer, heart attacks, and potential fatality [[2,](#page-18-1) [3](#page-18-2)]. The high prevalence of diabetes, and the absence of intelligent techniques, cause delays and inaccuracies in the process of diagnosis. Medical data mining has the capability to uncover concealed patterns from vast amounts of data, leading to timely and precise medical decisions $[4, 5]$ $[4, 5]$ $[4, 5]$ $[4, 5]$ $[4, 5]$. This can be applied to accurate diabetes prediction as well if suffcient and quality data is available. Data quality and missing data are common problems, with real-world diabetes datasets, which affect the performance of intelligent techniques [\[6](#page-18-5), [7\]](#page-18-6). In the healthcare domain, patient records are frequently produced as a result of patient care activities, rather than being explicitly collected as part of a structured research protocol, resulting in the potential loss of valuable information [[8\]](#page-18-7). Hence, a signifcant portion of patient records exhibit missing values, as evidenced by the presence of datasets in the UCI (University of California Irvine) Machine Learning Repository that contain more than 40% missing values [[9](#page-18-8)]. There are many reasons for missingness in medical data such as unrecorded values, incorrect measurements, equipment errors, human errors, outliers, or wrong data. In handling missingness, it's important to know the missingness mechanism, or cause of missingness, and the missingness pattern, which can impact the choice of imputation techniques $[10]$ $[10]$ $[10]$. The existing literature categorizes missingness into three distinct categories, namely: (1) Missing Completely at random (MCAR), (2) Missing at random (MAR), and (3) Not missing at random (NMAR) $[10-12]$ $[10-12]$ $[10-12]$. Handling incomplete data is a vital step in the analysis of medical datasets [[13](#page-18-11)]. Among the various methods available, the simplest way to handle missingness is to delete records with the incomplete data and do the computation with complete records only. However, there are many drawbacks of this technique- it can lead to loss of information, it can afect the performance of classifers, as deleted variables might be the deciding factor in predicting the disease, and, the collection of medical data involves time, money, and human efforts $[14]$ $[14]$ $[14]$. Imputation is an alternative approach employed to address missing data. This technique involves substituting missing values with estimated or imputed values. Imputation has been widely adopted as an efficient approach for managing incomplete data $[15]$. The task of imputing missing data holds signifcant importance across various domains, particularly in the medical or healthcare feld. In this context, it becomes crucial to utilize all available data and avoid disregarding records solely due to the presence of missing values [[16](#page-19-1)]. The most common method of imputation is flling in the missing data, with an average value of the missing variable, in all the observed cases of that variable. For numerical attributes, the mean value is utilized to replace missing values within the dataset, while for nominal attributes, the mode is used as a substitution approach. The advantage of this method is that the sample mean of that variable (missing variable) is not changed. However, the mean imputation technique is not suitable for multivariate analysis, as it underrepresents the variability in the data, and attenuates any correlations involving the imputed variable(s). ML)-based imputation techniques utilize the available variables to make predictions and estimate the missing data $[14, 17]$ $[14, 17]$ $[14, 17]$ $[14, 17]$ $[14, 17]$. These techniques employ the development of a predictive model for determining missing values in the datasets. ML-based models offer significant benefits, including heightened fexibility compared to traditional statistical models, enabling them to capture intricate higher-order interactions within the data and consequently producing superior predictive outcomes.

The main contributions of this work include

- Comparison of three ML-based imputation techniques—KNNI, MICE, and MissForest.
- A comprehensive empirical analysis of three ML-based techniques-KNNI, MICE and MissForest, on UCI Diabetes Dataset for 10%-50% missing rate (MR).
- Performance analysis of the three imputation techniques is carried out on 16 datasets (one complete and ffteen imputed datasets), and evaluated using 11 evaluation criteria—accuracy, precision, recall, F1 score, Mcoff score, MAE, RMSE, R^2 values, Pearson correlation analysis, AIC, and BIC values.

The remainder of this paper is structured into five sections. Section [2](#page-2-0) provides the background of ML based techniques. Section [3](#page-3-0) provides a summary of the literature of diferent imputation techniques. In Section [4,](#page-7-0) the methodology employed in this study is presented and explained. The experimental setup, along with the results obtained and their analysis, is covered in Section [5.](#page-8-0) Impact of the work is covered in Section [6.](#page-16-0) In Section [7,](#page-17-0) we conclude by discussing our fndings and future scope.

2 Background

This work explores KNN, MICE, and MissForest ML-based techniques. K Nearest Neighbour (KNN) is a ML- based imputation method. It computes the k-nearest neighbour for each of the missing values and imputes values from them. In numerical imputation, mean and weighted mean is used to replace the missing value while mode is used for binary or categorical variable. In weighted mean, greater weights are given to closer neighbours. The idea of KNN is that objects close to each other are potentially similar [\[13,](#page-18-11) [16\]](#page-19-1). Challenging issue is the selecting optimal value of k, and the other is selecting neighbours In KNN algorithm, generally Euclidean, Manhattan, Pearson etc. are used as similarity measure. Selection of similarity measure also plays a very important role in the overall performance of the algorithm [[18](#page-19-3)]. The drawback of KNN is that it searches the whole databases to look for most similar instances. It is a limitation for large databases. Miss Forest is a machine learning-based imputation technique. It uses a Random Forest (RF) algorithm. It initializes the missing variables with mean or mode values. The variable under imputation is used as the target variable for building the RF model. The missing value is replaced by the prediction of the RF model. It is based on iterative approach, the process of looping through missing data points repeats several times [[13](#page-18-11)]. Multiple Imputation by Chained Equations (MICE) is a prevalent method for executing multiple imputation because of its fexibility. In MICE, multivariate missing data are imputed on a attribute by attribute basis. called fully conditional specifcation (Van Buuren, 2007). This means that per variable imputations are created, such that for each incomplete variable a specifed imputation model is required. In these imputation models, interactions can be modelled in two ways: frst, by specifying models including interaction efects manually and second by imputing subgroups of the data separately. MICE consist of 3 steps, step1 is generation of multiple imputation, step2 is analyzing the imputed data and step3 is pooling the analysis results. Let us take a set of attributes, X1…… Xn, in which, some or all contains missing values. Initially, all missing values are flled in at random. First attribute having missing value, In this example, X1 is regressed on the other attrbutes, X2,..., Xn. This is restricted to individuals with observed X1. The missing values in X1 are now replaced by simulated draws from the posterior predictive distribution of X1. This process is repeated for all other attributes X2…Xn. For attribute X2: X1, X3…Xn attributes will be considered. This cycle is repeated number of times, and creates one imputed dataset. The entire procedure is repeated m times, creating m imputed datasets. Each complete dataset is analyzed independently by MICE, then the results are pooled [\[19\]](#page-19-4).

In MCAR, missing values are randomly distributed. KNNI can be efective when the missing values are irregularly related to other variables in the dataset. KNNI works on the assumption that the structure of the data remains similar for close instances. This makes it suitable for MCAR situations where missingness is not structured. MICE can handle MCAR benefcially as it imputes missing values built on observed values and the connections present in the dataset. MCAR presumes that missing values are not systematically related to any variables. Also, MICE is fexible in incorporating variable relationships. Hence MICE is suitable for handling MCAR missingness. Miss Forest ML method is powerful and can grasp complex relationships in the data. They work well even when missingness is random, as they can utilize information from other variables to envision missing values. The aggregate nature of Random Forests helps mitigate overftting, making them suitable for imputation in datasets having a combination of MCAR and other missing data patterns.

The primary objective behind comparing machine learning-based imputation methods across four categories using 11 evaluation criteria in diabetes research is multifaceted, with key motivations including: a) The need to enhance data completeness and quality, b) The enhancement of predictive modeling for diabetes, c) The establishment of benchmark imputation methods tailored for diabetes research datasets, d) The utilization of standardized evaluation criteria to guarantee transparent and reproducible results when comparing imputation techniques, e) Empowering both clinicians and researchers with the requisite tools and knowledge to make well-informed decisions in the area of diabetes care and management.

3 Related work

In the existing literature, missing data in the medical feld has been addressed through the application of statistical and machine learning-based imputation techniques. Statistical imputation assumes a normal distribution of the data and predicts missing values from the available data distribution. ML-based imputation techniques do not assume any specifc data distribution and are capable of handling nonlinear relationships between variables [[16,](#page-19-1) [20](#page-19-5)[–24](#page-19-6)]. For instance, in a study on real breast cancer datasets, authors [[16\]](#page-19-1) employed statistical and ML-based methods to handle missing values. They utilized techniques like hot deck, mean, and hybrid imputation methods, as well as multilayer perceptron, K-nearest neighbor (KNN), and algorithms based on selforganizing map for handling missing data. In another study [\[25](#page-19-7)], researchers worked on medical datasets such as breast cancer, hepatitis, and diabetes datasets from the UCI repository. They proposed a novel hybrid prediction model that employed Simple K-means clustering to evaluate various imputation methods and select the superior one for flling in the missing data in the dataset. Similarly, in [[26\]](#page-19-8), the authors worked with the hepatitis dataset, which contained an arbitrary pattern of missing values. They utilized principal component analysis and multiple imputation to fll in missing values having arbitrary pattern. Moreover, in [[27](#page-19-9)], the authors also explored the hepatitis dataset and performed imputation using the bootstrap aggregating method. They compared the performance of this method with decision tree imputation, mode imputation, and mean imputation. The comparison demonstrated that the classifer yielded better results when using bootstrap aggregating imputation. Furthermore, in [[28\]](#page-19-10), researchers dealt with hepatitis and breast cancer datasets. They employed hot deck imputation for handling missing data and utilized an ensemble method for feature selection. By utilizing a neural network, the classifcation task was executed, resulting in an accuracy of 98.47% for the breast cancer dataset and 95.51% for the hepatitis dataset. Authors in [[29\]](#page-19-11) worked on a kidney dataset. They introduced the Weighted Average Ensemble Learning Imputation (WAELI) technique to fll in missingness and improve the disease prediction. RF classifcation and regression trees, and C4.5 were used to predict the missing values, and the resultant value was obtained by computing the weighted aver-age of every model. In [[30](#page-19-12)], a hybrid classifier was utilized for detecting retinal lesions caused by diabetic disease, where the dataset contained missing values. Another study [[31](#page-19-13)] employed a novel hybrid classifier for predicting diabetes and employed multiple imputations to handle missing values. This hybrid classifer combined an adaptive model and logistic regression based on a fuzzy inference system. The deletion method is commonly used in the literature for handling missing values when predicting diabetes diseases. However, authors in [[32\]](#page-19-14) utilized Bayesian networks and TensorFlow factorization to process missingness in breast cancer datasets. They employed KNN, decision trees, and SVM for breast cancer recurrence prediction. Furthermore, researchers in [[33\]](#page-19-15) worked on the Iran diabetes dataset and proposed a hybrid imputation method based on single and multiple imputation. They compared the outcomes using three classifers and evaluated the results based on accuracy, precision, recall, and F1 score. Lastly, in [\[34](#page-19-16)], a comparative study was conducted using decision trees, multilayer perceptron, KNN, and RF classifers to enhance the accuracy of diabetes prediction. Mean imputation was employed for handling missingness. The precision of the imputation process in the healthcare domain can be further improved by incorporating domain expert knowledge [[35\]](#page-19-17). The authors employed deep-learning techniques for predicting pneumonia [[42\]](#page-20-0). Various machine learning-based imputation techniques are employed for medical datasets in [[43](#page-20-1)[–45](#page-20-2)].

One signifcant weakness in the literature is the limited discussion and comparison of specifc machine learning algorithms and statistical methods used for imputation, which could be more detailed to enhance comprehensibility and applicability. Another critical issue is the lack of clear explanation and justifcation for the components and integration of the hybrid intelligent system, which hinders reproducibility. Finally, the complexity of the proposed model may limit its accessibility to researchers without specialized knowledge. Evaluating the performance of imputation methods can be challenging, as there is often no ground truth to compare against. This makes it difficult to assess the accuracy of imputed values. In the literature mostly model performance is selected as the evaluation criteria. Nevertheless, imputation fulflls a broader role within data analysis, and therefore, its efectiveness cannot be comprehensively assessed solely through model performance metrics. These metrics may fall short in encapsulating several critical aspects, including the extent of information loss, the introduction of bias, and the overall quality of imputed data (Table [1\)](#page-5-0).

11 criteria are used for the evaluation

4 Methodology

In this study, we used Pima Indians Diabetes Dataset, which is sourced from the UCI containing 768 records. However, 376 records had missing values in one or more variables, so we deleted those records, and processing was done using 392 complete records. Thereafter, we generated synthetic missingness in this dataset, using the MCAR mechanism, to generate fve incomplete datasets having 10%-50% MR. This missingness was generated in multivariate confguration, in more than one variable, using the binomial distribution. We used three ML-based imputation techniques- KNNI, MICE, and MissForest, to impute the missing data in fve incomplete datasets, to generate ffteen imputed datasets – fve datasets of KNNI imputation, fve datasets of MICE imputation and fve datasets of MissForest imputation. The design process for comparison of imputation techniques is shown in Fig. [1.](#page-7-1)

We evaluated the performance of KNNI, MICE, and MissForest in four categories- 1) Diabetes Prediction Model Performance, 2) Imputation error rate, 3) Correlation analysis, 4) Model selection basis.

- 1. Diabetes prediction model performance: This model was built with one complete dataset and ffteen imputed datasets using four classifers- RF, SVM, AdaBoost, and XGBoost (XGB). These four classifers are widely used for machine learning imputation techniques on medical datasets. RF is an ensemble method, SVM is a linear and non-linear classifer, AdaBoost is an ensemble boosting method, and XGB is a gradient boosting algorithm. This diversity helps assess how diferent types of classifers react to imputed data. The prediction performance of four classifers with imputed datasets is compared with one complete dataset, using five evaluation metrics- accuracy, precision, recall, F1 score, and Mcoff score.
- 2. Imputation error rate: We evaluated the quality of imputation of KNNI, MICE & Miss-Forest techniques using metrics-MAE, RMSE, and R^2, by comparing one complete dataset and ffteen imputed dataset values. MAE, RMSE, and R^2 values are calculated for KNNI, MICE & MissForest techniques for 10% to 50% MR.
- 3. Correlation analysis: It is performed to identify the imputation technique suitable to grasp the intricate connection among various variables in the diabetes dataset, and

produce more accurate results. The Pearson correlation coefficient of all the variables in the ffteen imputed datasets is calculated, and compared with the Pearson correlation coefficient values of all the variables, in one complete dataset.

4. Model selection basis: We selected the best model after calculating & comparing the AIC & BIC scores of the full model and step model of one complete and ffteen imputed datasets. The full model is constructed with all the variables, $\&$ step model is constructed using stepwise regression, which selects a subset of variables to improve the performance of the model, and build the step model.

5 Experimental setup and results

The objective of this experiment was to conduct a comparative analysis of MCAR (Missing Completely at Random) Multivariate Missing patterns and assess the efectiveness of three machine learning-based imputation techniques in addressing them for 10%—50% MR. This study evaluates the performance of KNNI, MICE, and MissForest using four categories- Diabetes Prediction Model Performance, Imputation error rate, Pearson Correlation analysis, and Model selection based on AIC and BIC scores. The Diabetes Prediction Model performance of KNNI, MICE, and MissForest is evaluated with four ML classifers namely RF, SVM, AdaBoost & XGB. Diabetes prediction is carried out for one complete dataset and ffteen imputed datasets by RF, SVM, AdaBoost, and SVM classifers. The performance of the imputation techniques with four classifiers is evaluated using five evaluation criteria- accuracy, precision, recall, relative F1 score, and Mcof score. Imputation error is evaluated using MAE and RMSE and R^{^2} values, Pearson correlation analysis of the variables of one complete dataset and ffteen imputed datasets is calculated, and compared to check the preservation of the relationship between variables, before & after imputation. Model selection is based on AIC and BIC scores. The experiments conducted in this study utilized the Pima Indians Diabetes dataset, obtained from the UCI repository [[36](#page-19-18)]. This dataset consists of a total of 768 patient records, all of which are female. Among these records, there are 268 cases of diabetic patients and 500 cases of non-diabetic patients. The dataset provided in Table [2](#page-8-1) consists of information on eight attributes, including glucose, blood pressure, skin thickness, insulin, and BMI. To handle missing values, records with missing entries were removed, resulting in a dataset containing 392 records that were processed for further analysis. Out of 392 patient records used for analysis, 130 records belong

| Attribute | Mean of attribute | Missing values | Missing $%$ | Correlation value with output class |
|------------------------------|-------------------|----------------|----------------|--|
| Pregnancies | 3.85 | $\mathbf{0}$ | $\overline{0}$ | 0.222 |
| Glucose | 120.89 | 5 | | 0.467 |
| Blood Pressure | 69.11 | 35 | 5 | 0.065 |
| Skin Thickness | 20.54 | 227 | 30 | 0.075 |
| Insulin | 79.80 | 374 | 49 | 0.131 |
| BMI (Body Mass Index) | 31.99 | 11 | | 0.293 |
| Diabetes Pedigree Function | 0.47 | $\mathbf{0}$ | Ω | 0.174 |
| Age | 33.25 | 0 | Ω | 0.238 |

Table 2 Overview Pima dataset attributes and missingness

to diabetes present cases and 262 records belong to diabetes absent cases. In the dataset containing 392 complete records, missingness was artifcially generated. The experimentations were accomplished using Python 3.8 on the Anaconda Jupyter Notebook platform.

To create fve incomplete datasets, various missing rates ranging from 10 to 50% were artifcially introduced into the input variables. It's important to note that the output variable remained intact and was not afected by the missing values. The next step involved imputing the missing values in these fve datasets using the KNNI, MICE, and MF techniques. As a result, there were fve imputed datasets for KNNI and MICE and MF imputations, amounting to a total of ffteen imputed datasets. Additionally, one complete dataset without any missing values was included, resulting in a total of sixteen datasets for experimentation. The sample size used for these experiments was 392. In these 392 samples of the Pima Indians Diabetes dataset, the generated artifcial missingness was produced through the MCAR mechanism, while the true data exhibits characteristics that fall in between MAR and MCAR [[7\]](#page-18-6). This missingness was generated randomly, in a multivariate pattern, which means missingness is present in more than one variable of the dataset, with the binomial distribution.

Results To evaluate the comparative efectiveness of KNNI, MICE, and MissForest imputation techniques, our experimental design was formulated. In this study, a comparative analysis was conducted to assess the performance of three imputation methods across four categories: Model Performance, imputation error rate (MAE, RMSE, R^2 values), Pearson correlation analysis, and Model Selection based on AIC and BIC values. To evaluate the model performance, a ten-fold cross-validation technique was employed. The entire dataset was subjected to 10 repetitions of the experiment, with each sample being tested. The average of the outcomes from all 10 iterations was then chosen as the ultimate result. The performance of the Diabetes Prediction Model was evaluated by considering metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, F1 score, and Mcoff score with RF, SVM, AdaBoost & XGB classifiers $(4.1–4.5)$, Imputation error rate, Coefficient of Determination of complete datasets and imputed datasets are compared (4.6), Correlation analysis (4.7), Model selection based on AIC & BIC values for various missing rate is carried out (4.8).

5.1 Relative performance analysis of prediction accuracy

Prediction accuracy is obtained by dividing the number of correct predictions by the size of the dataset.

$$
Accuracy = (TP + TN) \div (TP + TN + FP + FN)
$$

TP, TN, represents True Positive & True Negative and FP and FN represents False Positive & False Negative values respectively

Relative Accuracy =
$$
100 \times ((AO - (AO - AM))) \div AO
$$

In the context where all features are available and known, AO represents the prediction accuracy of the complete dataset, The prediction accuracy, denoted by AM, was measured after applying each respective imputation method to fll in missing data. As depicted in Fig. [2](#page-10-0), it is apparent that the MissForest algorithm outperforms other imputation techniques in four out of the fve cases i.e. in 80% of cases with varying percentages of missing data.

Fig. 2 Comparing relative diferences of prediction accuracy between Original and Imputed dataset for four classifers

5.2 Relative performance analysis of precision

Precision is a measure of how many of the positive predictions made are correct i.e. TP. TP+FP is the Number of patient models predicted with diabetes

$$
Precision = TP \div (TP + FP)
$$

Relative Precision Score =
$$
100 \times ((PO - (PO - PM)) \div PO)
$$

In the context where all features are available and known, PO denotes the precision score of the complete dataset, while PM represents the precision score measured after applying each respective imputation method to fll in missing data. From Fig. [3,](#page-10-1) it is evident that the KNNI algorithm performs better than other imputation techniques, in three out of fve missing % cases i.e., 60% of cases, and MissForest performance is better in 40% of cases.

Fig. 3 Comparing relative diferences of precision score between Original and Imputed datasets for four classifers

5.3 Relative performance analysis of recall

The recall is a measure of how many positive cases the classifer has accurately predicted, It is very important in medical domains as we want to minimize the chance of missing positive cases.

$$
Recall = TP \div (TP + FN)
$$

where TP (True Positive) is no. of correctly predicted patient with diabetes and $TP+FN$ (false Negative) is total no. of patients with diabetes in the dataset.

Relative Difference Recall Score = $100 \times ((RO - (RO - RM)) \div RO)$

In the context where all features are available and known, RO refers to the recall score of the complete dataset and RM represents the recall score after applying the corresponding imputation method to impute missing values. From Fig. [4](#page-11-0), it is evident that the Miss-Forest imputation technique outperforms other imputation techniques in three out of fve missing % of cases i.e., 60% of cases. It is also observed that the MissForest imputation technique gives the best performance with the SVM classifer.

5.4 Relative performance analysis of F1 score

The F1 score, a comprehensive evaluation metric, accounts for both precision and recall, making it suitable for imbalanced datasets where precision and recall must both be considered.

$$
F1 \text{ Score} = 2 \times ((precision \times recall)/(precision + recall))
$$

Relative Difference F1 Score =
$$
100 \times ((FO - (FO - FM)) \div FO)
$$

In the context where all features are available and known, FO refers to the F1 score of the complete dataset and FM is the F1 score after applying the corresponding imputation method to impute missing values. From Fig. [5](#page-12-0) it is evident that the MissForest algorithm performs better than other imputation techniques in 100% of cases. It is also observed that the MissForest imputation algorithm gives the best performance with the SVM classifer.

Fig. 4 Comparing relative diferences of recall scores between Original and Imputed datasets for four classifers

Fig. 5 Comparing relative diferences of F1 score between Original and Imputed datasets for four Classifiers

5.5 Relative performance analysis of Mcoff-score

Mcoff is considered a consistent evaluation metric since it yields a high score only when the prediction exhibits excellent performance across all four categories of the confusion matrix.

Relative Mooff Score =
$$
((MO - (MO - MM)) \div MO)
$$

In the context where all features are available and known MO refers the Mcoff score of the complete dataset, and MM is the Mcoff score after applying the corresponding imputation method to impute missing values. From Fig. [6](#page-12-1), it is evident that among the other imputation techniques, the MissForest algorithm shows better performance in four out of fve cases i.e., 80% of cases. It is also observed that the MissForest imputation algorithm gives the superior results with the SVM classifer. The overall performance of imputation techniques and classifers is shown in Figs. [7](#page-13-0) and [8](#page-13-1) respectively. After comparison of model performance across missing rates ranging from 10 to 50% [Figs. [2](#page-10-0), [3,](#page-10-1) [4,](#page-11-0) [5](#page-12-0), and [6](#page-12-1)], it becomes evident that the performance of four classifers, as evaluated using fve criteria, is better at the 50% MR compared to the 40% MR. Generally, classifer performance tends to decline as the missing rate increases. This occurrence could be attributed to the synthetic generation of MCAR-type missingness, where important predictive features might exhibit a higher degree of missingness in the case of the 40% MR.

Fig. 6 Comparing relative differences in Mcoff scores between original and imputed datasets for four classifers

Fig. 7 Comparing overall performance of Imputation techniques

Fig. 8 Comparing overall perfor-

mance of Classifiers

5.6 Relative performance analysis of imputation techniques by MAE, RMSE, R^2

The accuracy of the imputation method is evaluated using various metrics that assess the discrepancy between the imputed values and the actual values of missing data. One commonly used metric is the MAE, which calculates the average absolute diference between the imputed values and the true values. A lower MAE value indicates better performance. Another frequently employed metric is the RMSE, which measures the square root of the average of the squared diferences between the imputed values and the true values. A lower RMSE value indicates better performance in capturing the diferences between the modelpredicted values and the observed values. Additionally, R^2 is utilized to measure the proportion of the variance in the true values that can be explained by the imputed values. A higher R^2 value signifes a stronger correlation and a better representation of the true values by the imputed values. A higher value of R^2 indicates better performance. Complete dataset values are compared with ffteen imputed datasets of 10%-50% MR flled with KNNI, MICE, and MissForest techniques to calculate MAE, RMSE, and R^2 values.

values

Fig. 9 Comparison of MAE, RMSE and R^2 values for various Imputation techniques

Fig. 10 Comparison of Pearson correlation coefficient Values of Glucose, Age, Insulin & BMI for various Imputation techniques

It is observed that the MissForest Imputation method achieved lower MAE, and RMSE in 100% of MR cases and higher R^2 in 100% of MR cases, as compared to KNNI and MICE. This revealed that the performance of MissForest is better than the other two imputation techniques, in all of these three evaluation criteria as shown in Fig. [9.](#page-14-0)

5.7 Relative performance analysis of imputation techniques by correlation analysis

Correlation analysis quantifes the association between the imputed values and other variables within the dataset. We evaluated the performance of KNNI, MICE, and MissForest imputation techniques by comparing Pearson correlation coefficient values of Glucose, Age, Insulin, BMI, Pregnancies, skin thickness, Diabetes Pedigree Function, and BP variables of the complete dataset and ffteen imputed datasets, to check if the imputed values are correlated with other variables in the dataset. Correlation analysis of three imputation techniques shows that the MissForest imputation technique can capture the complex relationship between the variables, like the complete dataset, for all the variables, as compared to MICE and KNNI imputation techniques. Results are shown in Figs. [10](#page-14-1) and [11](#page-15-0).

Fig. 11 Comparison of Pearson correlation coefficient Values of Pregnancies, Skin Thickness, Diabetes Pedigree Function & BP for various Imputation techniques

5.8 Relative performance analysis of imputation techniques by AIC and BIC scores

5.8.1 AIC

It is a model selection principle proposed by Akaike in 1973. AIC helps in selecting a model, by estimating the quality of each model given as an input to it. AIC evaluates the efectiveness of a model based on the extent to which it preserves information, with higher quality models retaining less lost information. AIC accounts for the potential risks of overftting and underftting in model estimation, with lower AIC values indicating a more optimal model ft. AIC penalizes complex models less, so less score is given to the complex model, and fnally, a complex model is selected. The full model is the model with all the variables of the dataset $[37–39]$ $[37–39]$ $[37–39]$. The step model is constructed using stepwise regression which selects a subset of variables and builds the step model which gives the best performing model by iteratively adding. and deleting variables. Results are shown in Figs. [12](#page-15-1) and [13.](#page-16-1)

5.8.2 BIC

Schwarz proposed the Bayesian Information Criterion (BIC) in 1978 as a model selection principle, which serves as an asymptotic approximation to a transformed Bayesian posterior probability of a candidate model.

AIC = −2*ln*(*maximum likelihood*) + 2*m*

 $BIC = -2ln(maximum likelihood) + mln(n)$

The best model is selected based on the minimum value of AIC or BIC, where AIC and BIC are estimated using the number of estimated parameters (m) and the number of observations (n). BIC penalizes the model more as compared to AIC for its complexity, BIC selects the less complex one [\[40,](#page-19-21) [41](#page-20-3)].

The full model and stepwise regression model are constructed for the complete dataset and ffteen imputed datasets for 10–50% MR. AIC and BIC score comparison of the full model and step model is carried out for KNNI, MICE, and MissForest. AIC and BIC score analysis show that the performance of MissForest is better than MICE and KNNI imputation techniques, for the full and step model. Results are shown in Figs. [14](#page-17-1) and [15](#page-17-2).

6 Impact of the work

Diabetes is a chronic disease that requires continuous monitoring and management. Departments in large hospitals monitoring chronic diseases generate a lot of data with probability of missingness. Addressing missingness in a scientifc manner helps in reducing knowledge loss and accurate decision making in various healthcare domains. This work has assessed imputation techniques using 11 evaluation criteria which provided a holistic understanding of imputation techniques' performance. Conducting Pearson correlation analysis allows to understand the relationships between variables in the dataset before and after the imputation. Other 10 evaluation criteria also capture diferent aspects of imputation ofering a comprehensive view of strengths and weaknesses which can help identifying the best imputation technique and classifer which can ensure that datasets are more complete and

of higher quality which is crucial for accurate analysis, and also help in improving disease prediction models and accurate decision making.

7 Conclusion and future scope

In this work, a comparative analysis of three ML-based imputation methods was performed on the Pima Indian dataset. Experimental evidence confrmed that the MissForest imputation technique performed better in eleven evaluation criteria, as compared to the other imputation techniques. It was also found that the SVM classifer performed better than RF, XGB, and AdaBoost classifers in the precision, recall, F1 score, and Mcof. The empirical analysis for all fve MR (10% to 50%) cases, using MissForest, KNNI, and MICE techniques, revealed that the MissForest method performed better in accuracy $\&$ Mcoff in 80% of cases, better in precision & recall in 60% of cases, better in F1 score, MAE, RMSE, R^2 , AIC, BIC values in 100% of cases. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient analysis of the input variables also revealed that MissForest techniques were able to capture the complex relationship between all the variables in the diabetes dataset. Overall, our empirical evidence confrms that MissForest is a better ML-based imputation technique, for handling missing data in diabetes datasets. The use of accurate imputation techniques can improve the quality of diabetes research, by ensuring that missing data does not compromise the validity of research results. In this work, we exclusively addressed the MCAR missing mechanism. However, we intend to address this limitation in the future by incorporating methods to handle the MAR mechanism as well as introducing an ensemble imputation approach and explore other ML based methods that is capable of efectively managing both MCAR and MAR missingness in diferent diseases. Also, future direction of this study involves enhancing imputation by integrating medical expertise and developing real-time imputation applications for missing data, in clinical settings where prompt decision-making is essential.

Data availability The data used in this article will be shared on request made to the corresponding author.

Declarations

Conficts of interest The authors declare no confict of interest.

References

- 1. Sun H, Saeedi P, Karuranga S, Pinkepank M, Ogurtsova K, Duncan BB, Stein C et al (2022) IDF Diabetes Atlas: Global, regional and country-level diabetes prevalence estimates for 2021 and projections for 2045. Diabetes Res Clin Pract 183:109119
- 2. Harding JL, Pavkov ME, Magliano DJ, Shaw JE, Gregg EW (2019) Global trends in diabetes complications: a review of current evidence. Diabetologia 62:3–16
- 3. Madan P, Singh V, Chaudhari V, Albagory Y, Dumka A, Singh R, Gehlot A, Rashid M, Alshamrani SS, AlGhamdi AS (2022) An optimization-based diabetes prediction model using CNN and Bi-directional LSTM in real-time environment. Appl Sci 12(8):3989
- 4. Fasihi M, Nadimi-Shahraki MH (2020) Multi-class cardiovascular diseases diagnosis from electrocardiogram signals using 1-D convolution neural network. In: 2020 IEEE 21st International Conference on Information Reuse and Integration for Data Science (IRI). IEEE
- 5. Zamani H, Nadimi-Shahraki MH (2016) Swarm intelligence approach for breast cancer diagnosis. Int J Comput Appl 151(1):40–44
- 6. Nadimi-Shahraki MH et al (2021) B-MFO: a binary moth-fame optimization for feature selection from medical datasets. Computers 10(11):136
- 7. Ramli MNN et al (2013) Roles of imputation methods for flling the missing values: A review. Adv Environ Biol 7(12 S2):3861–3870
- 8. Cios KJ, William Moore G (2002) Uniqueness of medical data mining. Artif Intell Med 26(1–2):1–24. [https://doi.org/10.1016/s0933-3657\(02\)00049-0](https://doi.org/10.1016/s0933-3657(02)00049-0)
- 9. Newman CBD (1998) UCI repository of machine learning databases. Retrieved from [http://www.ics.](https://www.ics.uci.edu/~mlearn/MLRepository.html) [uci.edu/~mlearn/MLRepository.html](https://www.ics.uci.edu/~mlearn/MLRepository.html)
- 10 Liu Y, Brown SD (2013) Comparison of fve iterative imputation methods for multivariate classifcation. Chemom Intell Lab Syst 120:106–115
- 11. Rubin DB (1976) Inference and missing data. Biometrika 63:581–592
- 12. Beaulieu-Jones BK, Lavage DR, Snyder JW, Moore JH, Pendergrass SA, Bauer CR (2018) Characterizing and managing missing structured data in electronic health records: data analysis. JMIR Med Inform 6(1):e11.<https://doi.org/10.2196/medinform.8960>
- 13. Lin WC, Tsai CF (2020) Missing value imputation: a review and analysis of the literature (2006– 2017). Artif Intell Rev 53:1487–1509. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10462-019-09709-4>
- 14. Zhang S (2011) Shell-neighbor method and its application in missing data imputation. Appl Intell 35:123–133.<https://doi.org/10.1007/s10489-009-0207-6>
- 15. Thomas RM, Bruin W, Zhutovsky P, van Wingen G (2020) Dealing with missing data, small sample sizes, and heterogeneity in machine learning studies of brain disorders. In Machine learning. Academic Press, pp 249–266
- 16. Jerez JM et al (2010) Missing data imputation using statistical and machine learning methods in a real breast cancer problem. Artif Intell Med 50(2):105–15
- 17. Zhang h (2012) Nearest neighbor selection for iteratively kNN imputation. J Syst Softw 85(11):2541– 2552. ISSN 0164–1212
- 18. Zeng, Xie D, Liu R, Li X (2017) Missing value imputation methods for TCM medical data and its efect in the classifer accuracy. 2017 IEEE 19th International Conference on e-Health Networking, Applications and Services (Healthcom). pp 1–4. <https://doi.org/10.1109/HealthCom.2017.8210844>
- 19. Doove LL et al (2014) Recursive partitioning for missing data imputation in the presence of interaction efects. Comput Stat Data Anal 72:92–104
- 20. Little RJ, Rubin DB (2019) Statistical analysis with missing data. John Wiley & Sons
- 21. Schafer JL (1999) Multiple imputation: a primer. Stat Methods Med Res 8(1):3–15
- 22. Buuren SV (2018) Flexible imputation of missing data. CRC Press
- 23. Azur MJ, Stuart EA, Frangakis C, Leaf PJ (2011) Multiple imputation by chained equations: what is it and how does it work? Int J Methods Psychiatr Res 20(1):40–49
- 24. Kim J, Kim H (2018) Comparison of statistical and machine learning methods for imputing missing data in electrical impedance tomography. Comput Biol Med 92:8–15
- 25. Purwar A, Singh SK (2015) Hybrid prediction model with missing value imputation for medical data. Expert Syst Appl. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2015.02.050>
- 26. Ramezani R, Maadi M, Khatami SM (2018) A novel hybrid intelligent system with missing value imputation for diabetes diagnosis. Alex Eng J 57(3):1883–1891. ISSN 1110–0168
- 27. Radhakrishnan S, Priyaa DS (2015) An ensemble approach on missing value handling in hepatitis disease dataset. Int J Comp Appl 130:23–27. <https://doi.org/10.5120/ijca2015907197.> Sridevi Radhakrishnan and Shanmuga D Priyaa. Article: An Ensemble approach on Missing Value Handling in Hepatitis Disease Dataset. International Journal of Computer Applications 130(17):23–27, November 2015. Published by Foundation of Computer Science (FCS), NY, USA
- 28. Elgin Christo VR, Khanna Nehemiah H, Minu B, Kannan A (2019) Correlation-based ensemble feature selection using bioinspired algorithms and classifcation using backpropagation neural network. Comput Math Methods Med 2019:7398307.<https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/7398307>
- 29. Arasu SD, Thirumalaiselvi R (2017) A novel imputation method for efective prediction of coronary Kidney disease. In: 2017 2nd International Conference on Computing and Communications Technologies (ICCCT), Chennai, India. pp 127–136. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ICCCT2.2017.7972256>
- 30 UsmanAkram M, Khalid S, Tariq A, Khan SA, Azam F (2014) Detection and classifcation of retinal lesions for grading of diabetic retinopathy. Comp Biol Med 45:161–171. ISSN 0010-4825
- 31. Ramezani R, Maadi M, Khatami SM (2018) A novel hybrid intelligent system with missing value imputation for diabetes diagnosis. Alex Eng J 57(3):1883–1891
- 32. Vazifehdan M, Moattar MH, Jalali M (2019) A hybrid Bayesian network and tensor factorization approach for missing value imputation to improve breast cancer recurrence prediction. J King Saud Univ - Comp Inf Sci 31(2):175–184. ISSN 1319-1578
- 33. Nadimi-Shahraki MH, Mohammadi S, Zamani H, Gandomi M, Gandomi AH (2021) A hybrid imputation method for multi-pattern missing data: A case study on type II diabetes diagnosis. Electronics 10(24):3167
- 34. Saxena R, Sharma SK, Gupta M, Sampada GC (2022) A novel approach for feature selection and classifcation of diabetes mellitus: machine learning methods. Comput Intell Neurosci 2022:3820360. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/3820360>
- 35. Abawajy J et al (2013) Predicting cardiac autonomic neuropathy category for diabetic data with missing values. Comp Biol Med 43(10):1328–33. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compbiomed.2013.07.002>
- 36 Liew AW-C et al (2011) Missing value imputation for gene expression data: computational techniques to recover missing data from available information. Brief Bioinform 12(5):498–513. [https://doi.org/10.](https://doi.org/10.1093/bib/bbq080) [1093/bib/bbq080](https://doi.org/10.1093/bib/bbq080)
- 37. Learning UM (2016) Pima indians diabetes database. kaggle. [com/uciml/pima-indians-diabetes-datab](https://www.com/uciml/pima-indians-diabetes-database) [ase](https://www.com/uciml/pima-indians-diabetes-database)
- 38. Rekabdar B, Albright DL, McDaniel JT, Talafha S, Jeong H (2022) From machine learning to deep learning: a comprehensive study of alcohol and drug use disorder. Healthcare Analytics 2:100104
- 39. An H, Gu L (1989) fast stepwise procedure of selection of variables by using AIC & BIC criteria. Acta Math Appl Sin 5(1):60–67
- 40. Yamashita T, Yamashita K, Kamimura R (2007) A stepwise AIC method for variable selection in linear regression. Comm Statist Theory Methods 36(13):2395–2403
- 41. Chakrabarti A, Ghosh JK (2011) AIC, BIC and recent advances in model selection. Philos Stat 583–605
- 42. Swetha KR, Niranjanamurthy M, Amulya MP, Manu YM (2021) Prediction of pneumonia using big data, deep learning and machine learning techniques. In: 2021 6th International Conference on Communication and Electronics Systems (ICCES). IEEE 1697–1700. [https://doi.org/10.1109/ICCES51350.](https://doi.org/10.1109/ICCES51350.2021.9489188) [2021.9489188](https://doi.org/10.1109/ICCES51350.2021.9489188)
- 43. Reshma VK, Khan IR, Niranjanamurthy M, Aggarwal PK, Hemalatha S, Almuzaini KK, Amoatey ET (2022) Hybrid block-based lightweight machine learning-based predictive models for quality preserving in the Internet of Things- (IoT-) based medical images with diagnostic applications. Comput Intell Neurosci 2022:Article ID 8173372, 14 pages. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2022/8173372>
- 44. AkkemY, BiswasSK, Varanasi A (2023) Smart farming using artifcial intelligence: A review. Eng Appl Artif Intell 120:105899. ISSN 0952–1976. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.engappai.2023.105899>
- 45. Akkem Y, Biswas SK, Varanasi A (2023) Smart farming monitoring using ML and MLOps. In: Hassanien AE, Castillo O, Anand S, Jaiswal A (eds) International Conference on Innovative Computing and Communications. ICICC 2023. Lecture Notes in Networks and Systems, vol 703. Springer, Singapore. https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-99-3315-0_51

Publisher's Note Springer Nature remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

Springer Nature or its licensor (e.g. a society or other partner) holds exclusive rights to this article under a publishing agreement with the author(s) or other rightsholder(s); author self-archiving of the accepted manuscript version of this article is solely governed by the terms of such publishing agreement and applicable law.