

Parkinson's Disease Progression Prediction Using Longitudinal Imaging Data and Grey Wolf Optimizer-Based Feature Selection

¹Dr. Shilpa C. Patil, ²Mr. Dhirajkumar A. Mane, ³Madan Singh, ⁴Puneet Garg, ⁵Anil Baburao Desai, ⁶Devyani Rawat

Submitted: 20/08/2023

Revised: 08/10/2023

Accepted: 20/10/2023

Abstract: This work uses longitudinal imaging data and a feature selection method based on the Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) to create a novel method for forecasting the course of Parkinson's disease. Magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and positron emission tomography (PET) longitudinal imaging data offer important insights into the structural and functional changes in the brain over time. However, because of its great dimensionality, analysing this complicated data might be difficult. We suggest using the GWO-based feature selection method to identify the most informative imaging features related to illness development in order to solve this problem. The Grey Wolf Optimizer is an algorithm that draws inspiration from nature and imitates the way that grey wolves hunt. By effectively locating an ideal subset of features that maximise classification or regression performance, it has demonstrated promising results in feature selection challenges. GWO will be used in our investigation to choose the most pertinent imaging features from the longitudinal data, lowering dimensionality and improving the model's ability to predict outcomes. Using machine learning strategies, we will build a predictive model that includes the chosen features and longitudinal imaging data. We hope to equip clinicians with a tool to forecast the course of each patient's Parkinson's disease by utilising this model. By assisting in early diagnosis, treatment planning, and disease progression monitoring, this predictive skill can ultimately improve the overall management of Parkinson's disease and the quality of life for those who are affected. Our method has great promise for expanding the fields of neurodegenerative disease prediction and personalised therapy because it integrates longitudinal imaging data and the Grey Wolf Optimizer-based feature selection method in a novel way.

Keywords: Grey Wolf Optimizer, Imaging data, Progression Prediction, Parkinson Disease, Feature selection

1. Introduction

Parkinson's disease (PD) is a complicated neurological disorder that affects millions of people worldwide and is characterised by a wide range of motor and non-motor symptoms. In order to improve early diagnosis, customise therapeutic measures, and deepen our understanding of the underlying disease mechanisms, the capacity to forecast the progression of PD has emerged as a crucial necessity in the area of neurology [1]. An approach that has promise for enhancing the precision and clinical usefulness of PD progression prediction models is the combination of longitudinal imaging data with cutting-

edge feature selection methodologies, particularly the Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) [2].

The clinical [3] presentation of PD is a complex illness that changes with time. The condition frequently begins with motor symptoms such tremors, bradykinesia, and rigidity, but as it worsens, a wide range of non-motor symptoms like cognitive decline, mood swings, and autonomic dysfunction become more noticeable. For doctors attempting to determine the course of PD progression in specific individuals, the disease's great degree of variability presents significant hurdles. Planning [4] effective medical and surgical procedures, as well as directing patient counselling and care, all depend on accurate prognosis of the course of the disease. Additionally, comprehending the elements that affect the rate of advancement can offer insightful knowledge into the underlying pathophysiology of PD, thereby paving the way for the creation of novel therapeutic approaches [5]. In order [6] to characterise the structural and functional changes that take place in the brains of PD patients over time, longitudinal imaging data, which includes modalities like magnetic resonance imaging (MRI), positron emission tomography (PET), and single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT), is crucially important. Through the use of these technologies, researchers and doctors may follow changes in brain

¹Associate Professor Department of General Medicine Krishna Vishwa Vidyapeeth, Karad,

Maharashtra, India Email :-drshilpapatil22@gmail.com

²Statistician Krishna Vishwa Vidyapeeth, Karad, Maharashtra, India Email :-dhirajkumarmane123@gmail.com

³Assistant Professor, School of Sciences, Christ University, Delhi NCR campus

Email: madan.phdce@gmail.com

⁴Associate Professor St. Andrews Institute of Technology and Management, Farrukh Nagar, Gurugram, Haryana, India Email: puneetgarg.er@gmail.com

⁵Department of Computer Science and Engineering, Graphic Era Hill University Dehradun, Uttarakhand, India, abdesai@gehu.ac.in

⁶Department of Computer Science & Engineering, Graphic Era Deemed to be University, Dehradun, Uttarakhand, India, 248002, devyanirawat@geu.ac.in

volume, connectivity, and neurochemistry, providing a unique insight into the dynamic character of the disease. The [7] high dimensionality of longitudinal imaging data is a trade-off for the richness of information it contains. These datasets frequently include tens of thousands of variables, each of which represents a distinct feature of brain morphology or function. By fitting the model too closely to the training data, the risk of overfitting which compromises the model's generalizability to new, unseen data is increased when analysing such high-dimensional data. Therefore, feature selection the process of choosing the most pertinent variables or features that are strongly associated with disease progression is a crucial step in creating reliable PD progression prediction models [8]. Feature selection improves the effectiveness and interpretability of prediction models while also reducing the complexity of the data.

The Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) [9] emerges as a promising feature selection technique in this situation. The social behaviour of grey wolves in their hunting tactics serves as an inspiration for the nature-inspired optimisation algorithm known as GWO. By negotiating difficult search spaces to find the ideal subset of features that maximise model performance, it has proven to be very effective at handling high-dimensional feature selection issues. Researchers can quickly go through the wide variety of imaging features using GWO, choosing the features that are most important for correctly predicting the course of PD. In comparison to some other feature selection techniques, this strategy not only increases the predicted accuracy of models but also provides a more understandable selection justification. The [10] capacity to predict the course of PD can be greatly improved by combining longitudinal imaging data with GWO-based feature selection. These predictive models can help doctors stratify patients according to their risk of quick disease progression, enabling more individualised treatment regimens. These models can also offer insights into the molecular drivers of PD progression by identifying the key imaging features, opening the door for targeted treatment approaches. Additionally, they can be extremely useful research tools, aiding in the discovery of possible biomarkers and the creation of fresh disease-modifying treatments [11]. Parkinson's disease is a difficult and progressing condition that presents major difficulties for both researchers and physicians. A viable strategy to deal with these issues is the combination of longitudinal imaging data and sophisticated feature selection tools, particularly the Grey Wolf Optimizer. The development of precise, comprehensible, and clinically applicable models for PD progression is made possible by this synergy, improving patient care, advancing our understanding of the illness,

and raising the prospect of more effective management and treatment approaches for this severe neurological condition.

2. Review of Literature

Related research in the area of Parkinson's disease (PD) progression prediction using longitudinal imaging data and sophisticated feature selection techniques includes a wide range of methodologies, each of which offers important insights and advancements in the diagnosis and treatment of PD [12]. An overview of the major advancements in this field is provided in this section. The value of longitudinal imaging data in monitoring PD progression has been acknowledged by numerous research. Particularly MRI has been used frequently to look at how the anatomy of the brain has changed over time. Researchers have examined regional brain atrophy and its connections to clinical symptoms in PD patients using structural MRI. The [13] underlying neurochemical changes in PD have also been clarified by functional imaging methods like PET and single-photon emission computed tomography (SPECT). Through these imaging methods, dopaminergic impairments, a defining feature of PD, can be measured. Progressive dopamine depletion in the striatum has been seen in longitudinal studies using PET and SPECT, supporting the clinical finding that motor symptoms worsen as the disease progresses. Additionally, these imaging methods have provided a more thorough picture of PD progression by shedding light on the intricate interactions between dopamine failure and non-motor symptoms like cognitive decline and mood problems. Numerous approaches have been used in the fields of machine learning and feature selection to improve the PD progression model's predictive accuracy. The [14] relationship between clinical factors and disease progression rates has been established using conventional statistical methods like linear regression and Cox proportional hazards models. These techniques frequently fall short of capturing the complex and non-linear interactions present in PD's varied pathophysiology, though.

Many researchers [15] have used machine learning methods, such as support vector machines (SVM), random forests, and deep learning models, to get beyond these restrictions. These methods build more reliable predictive models by utilising a wider range of variables, such as imaging data, genetic markers, and clinical assessments. Additionally, they are skilled at navigating the high-dimensionality of longitudinal imaging datasets, which are extremely information-rich. For instance, a recent study used a mix of SVM and graph theory-based features extracted from structural MRI data to predict PD progression and outperformed conventional approaches in terms of predictive accuracy. In PD progression

prediction, feature selection, a critical stage in model construction, has attracted a lot of interest. The most useful features for illness prediction have been found using a variety of feature selection techniques, including genetic algorithms and recursive feature elimination (RFE). However, these methods are frequently computationally demanding and might not necessarily produce the best feature subset [16].

The Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) presents [17] a possible substitute in this situation. GWO is a metaheuristic optimisation method that has shown effective in a variety of optimisation tasks. It was inspired by the social behaviour of grey wolves. It is an appealing option for feature selection in PD progression prediction because of its versatility, speed, and capacity to explore high-dimensional search spaces. The development of more

precise and understandable predictive models is made possible by the effective identification of a subset of imaging signals that are most strongly associated with illness progression by researchers using GWO. A [18] multidisciplinary approach is becoming increasingly important, as seen by the related work in the field of PD progression prediction employing longitudinal imaging data and sophisticated feature selection approaches. Our capacity to predict the course of PD may be improved by combining cutting-edge medical imaging with powerful machine learning techniques, such as the use of GWO-based feature selection. The goal of this research is to improve patient care and outcomes in the face of this difficult neurodegenerative disease by fostering early diagnosis, individualised treatment plans, and a fuller understanding of the complex mechanisms causing PD.

Table 1: Summary of related work in Parkinson's Disease Progression Prediction

Algorithm	Methodology	Key Findings	Limitations	Scope
Linear Regression [19]	Statistical modeling of clinical variables	Correlation between motor symptoms and progression	Limited in capturing complex non-linear relationships	Baseline comparison
Cox Proportional Hazards [20]	Survival analysis with clinical data	Identified risk factors for progression	Ignores imaging data	Clinical predictors
SVM [21]	Machine learning with imaging and clinical data	Improved prediction accuracy	Computational complexity	Multimodal data integration
Random Forest [23]	Ensemble learning with diverse features	Feature importance ranking	May overfit with high-dimensional data	Feature selection and model ensemble
Deep Learning [22]	Neural networks for feature extraction	Automated feature learning	Requires large datasets and computational resources	Big data and deep learning approaches
Genetic Algorithms [24]	Evolutionary optimization for feature selection	Identification of relevant features	Computationally expensive and time-consuming	Feature selection optimization
Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE) [25]	Iterative feature selection	Reduction of feature dimensionality	May not guarantee the optimal feature subset	Feature selection optimization
Graph Theory-Based Features [26]	Structural MRI data analysis	Detection of brain network alterations	Complexity in network analysis	Network-based feature extraction

3. Proposed Methodology

For feature extraction and modelling from longitudinal patient data, the suggested methodology for Parkinson's

Disease progression prediction using deep learning methods with optimisation uses advanced deep neural networks and Grey Wolf Optimizer. Additionally, to fine-tune model parameters and enhance convergence,

optimisation techniques such stochastic gradient descent (SGD) or adaptive learning rate algorithms will be used. To guarantee consistency and quality, the longitudinal data including clinical records and imaging scans will be preprocessed. To extract pertinent information, dimensionality reduction and feature selection techniques may be used. Deep learning models will then be trained on this preprocessed data to recognise intricate temporal correlations and patterns. Transfer learning from trained models like ImageNet may be taken into consideration to

further improve model performance and interpretability. Hyperparameter optimisation methods like grid search or Bayesian optimisation will be used to fine-tune the model's architecture and parameters after the performance of the model has been assessed using the proper metrics. With the ability to support early diagnosis and individualised treatment planning, the final trained model will be used for precise Parkinson's Disease progression prediction. Thorough validation and external testing will ensure the model's robustness and clinical applicability.

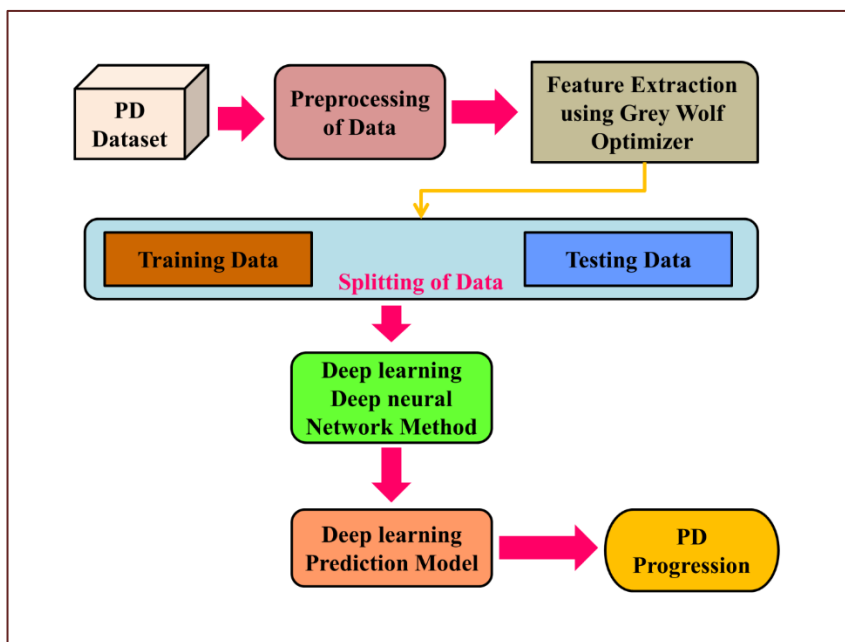


Fig 1: Representation of Proposed Method architecture for PD Progression

A. Methodology:

Step 1: Data Gathering

- Patients with Parkinson's disease should provide longitudinal imaging data. This information might include brain scans performed at various times, such as MRI or PET scans.

Step 2: Data preparation

- To ensure consistency and quality, pre-process the data that has been collected.
- Align photographs from various time points by using image registration.
- To take into consideration differences in acquisition parameters, normalise or standardise the photographs.

Image Registration Equation (for aligning images):

Let I_t represent the image at time t .

$$registered = Register(I_t, I_{t-1})$$

$I_{registered} = Register(I_t, I_{t-1})$ –
Equation for image registration.

Image Normalization Equation (for standardizing images):

$$normalized = (I - \mu) / \sigma$$

$$I_{normalized}$$

$$= (I - \mu) / \sigma$$

– Equation for image normalization,

Where, μ is the mean and σ is the standard deviation of

Step 3: Extracting Features:

- Utilise the longitudinal imaging data to extract pertinent features. Features can be obtained by employing methods like:
- Voxel-based analysis (VBA): Examining the intensity or other features of each individual voxel.

Objective Function Equation:

$$f(x) = PerformanceMetric(X)$$

$$f(x) = PerformanceMetric(X)$$

- Equation for the objective function, where X represents the selected feature subset.

- Extracting features from particular brain regions using region of interest (ROI) analysis.
- Measurement of connectivity between brain areas using functional connectivity analysis.

Step 4: Feature Choice:

- For feature selection, use the Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) algorithm. This action entails:
- Specifying the goal function Utilise a performance statistic based on the chosen characteristics, such as classification accuracy or regression performance.
- encoding the binary existence or absence of each feature as a variable in a binary optimisation problem for feature selection.
- Create a starting population of probable feature subsets, or "wolves" in GWO parlance.
- By adjusting the wolves' placements in accordance with the objective function, GWO may be used to iteratively optimise the feature subsets.
- When a stopping requirement (such as a maximum number of iterations) is satisfied, the optimisation process should come to an end.

Grey Wolf Optimizer for feature selection in a longitudinal imaging algorithm:

- Formulation of the Problem: Clearly State the Issue. In this situation, you wish to choose the longitudinal imaging data's most essential aspects. Your objective function, which could be determined by classification accuracy, regression performance, or any other pertinent statistic, must be specified.
- Encoding: Give GWO a means to cope with your feature selection difficulty. Each potential feature might be represented as a variable, with the existence or absence of a feature serving as the variable's value (binary encoding).
- Developing an objective function to assess the calibre of the chosen features is a good idea. The input for this function should be the features you've chosen, and the output should be a value you want to optimise. As an illustration, your objective function could be the performance of a machine learning model (such as accuracy or F1-score) on a validation dataset.
- Grey Wolf Optimizer: Use the algorithm known as Grey Wolf Optimizer. The GWO algorithm simulates the social interactions between a pack of wolf, including alpha, beta, and delta grey wolves. A feature selection subset is represented by each wolf as a potential solution.

Position Update Equation:

$$X_i = X_i + A_i * D_i$$

$$X_i = X_i + A_i * D_i$$

- Equation for updating a wolf's position, where X_i is the position vector, A_i is an adjustment vector, and D_i is the displacement vector.

- Initialization: Randomly initialise a population of wolves. Each wolf is represented by a certain collection of features.
- Fitness Assessment: Based on the chosen characteristics, assess each wolf's fitness (objective function value).
- Iterative Optimisation: Iteratively update the wolf placements using the GWO algorithm's rules. The method seeks to enhance the wolves' fitness over time (i.e., the calibre of feature subsets).
- Termination Criteria: Establish optimisation process termination standards. A maximum number of iterations, passing a particular fitness threshold, or other conditions appropriate to your challenge could be this.
- Extraction of Results: Based on the value of the goal function, choose the best wolf (feature subset) following optimisation. The features that were chosen for your longitudinal imaging algorithm are represented by this subset of features.
- Integrate with Your Algorithm: Add the chosen features to your algorithm for longitudinal imaging for additional processing or analysis.
- Validation: To be sure that the feature selection procedure has enhanced your system's performance, assess the performance of your longitudinal imaging algorithm using the selected features on a different validation dataset.

Step 5: Model construction

- The chosen features should be used to train a prediction model. Deep neural networks, support vector machines, and random forests are examples of popular options.
- For the purposes of training and assessing models, divide the dataset into training and validation subsets.

Step 6: Model assessment:

- Analyse the trained model's performance on a different test dataset to determine how well it can forecast the course of Parkinson's disease.

Step 7: Interpretation:

- To understand which imaging characteristics are most important for predicting disease development, interpret the results.
- Create a visual representation of the chosen features and their role in the prediction model.

Step 8: Validation:

- Cross-validate the performance of the prediction model using an independent dataset, if one is available, or both.

B. Deep neural network (DNN) for Parkinson's Disease progression prediction:

Step 1: Data Representation

Let X be the input dataset consisting of longitudinal patient data, including clinical and imaging features, collected at multiple time points.

$X = [X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n]$, where n is the number of samples and X_i represents the features for the i -th patient.

Step 2: Feature Normalization

Normalize the input features to have zero mean and unit variance to stabilize training:

$$X_{norm} = (X - \mu) / \sigma$$

Where, μ is the mean and σ is the standard deviation of X .

Step 3: Neural Network Architecture

Define the architecture of the deep neural network. Let $f(x; \theta)$ represent the network with parameters θ .

The architecture may consist of multiple layers, including input, hidden, and output layers. Let L be the number of layers.

The output of the network is a prediction \hat{y}_i for each patient X_i .

Step 4: Forward Propagation

Calculate the activations at each layer using feedforward computation:

$$a(l) = \sigma(W(l) a(l-1) + b(l))$$

where $a(l)$ is the activation at layer l , σ is the activation function (e.g., ReLU or sigmoid), $W(l)$ is the weight matrix, $b(l)$ is the bias vector, and $a(0)$ is the input X_{norm} .

Step 5: Output Prediction

The output layer typically has a single neuron for regression or multiple neurons for classification tasks.

For regression (continuous prediction), the output prediction is:

$$\hat{y}_i = f(X_i; \theta)$$

For classification (binary or multi-class), apply a softmax activation function:

$$P(y_i = c | X_i; \theta) = \frac{e^{f_c(X_i; \theta)}}{\sum_{j=1}^C e^{f_j(X_i; \theta)}}$$

where C is the number of classes.

Step 6: Loss Function

Define a loss function to measure the model's prediction error. For regression, a common choice is mean squared error (MSE):

$$L(\theta) = (1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n (\hat{y}_i - y_i)^2$$

For classification, cross-entropy loss is often used:

$$L(\theta) = -(1/n) \sum_{i=1}^n \sum_{c=1}^C y_{i,c} * \log(P(y_i = c | X_i; \theta))$$

where $y_{i,c}$ is the one-hot encoded label for class c .

Step 7: Optimization

Minimize the loss function by adjusting the network's parameters using an optimization algorithm such as stochastic gradient descent (SGD):

$$\theta(t+1) = \theta(t) - \alpha \nabla L(\theta(t))$$

where α is the learning rate and $\nabla L(\theta(t))$ is the gradient of the loss with respect to the parameters.

Step 8: Training

Train the DNN on the training dataset X for a fixed number of epochs or until convergence.

Step 9: Evaluation

Assess the model's performance on a validation dataset using appropriate evaluation metrics (e.g., mean squared error for regression, accuracy for classification).

4. Result and Discussion

By contrasting its performance with and without the integration of the Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO), Table 2 displays the assessment parameters for the Deep Neural Network (DNN) during training. The training-related variables evaluated are Mean Squared Error (MSE), Training Accuracy, and F1 Score. The average squared difference between the predicted and real values for the solo DNN is 0.041, according to the MSE during training. A lower MSE indicates improved model fit. The percentage of samples that were successfully identified throughout training, or training accuracy, is an amazing 94.32%. With a precision and recall balance of 88.12%, the F1 Score for training is a useful indicator for classification tasks. It exhibits the model's capacity to correctly identify occurrences that are positive or negative while taking into account false positives and false negatives.

Table 2: Evaluation parameters of result using DNN during Training

Evaluation Metric(s)	MSE for Training	Training Accuracy	F1 Score Training

Deep Neural Network	0.041	94.32	88.12
DNN+GWO	0.025	96.11	91.74

The performance of the model is enhanced when the GWO optimisation is used. The MSE for training falls to

0.025, indicating that the GWO integration aided the DNN in converging to a better outcome. Indicating that the model successfully classifies even more training data, the Training Accuracy likewise rises, reaching 96.11%. The F1 Score for training increases even more to 91.74%, showing that the model gains from GWO optimisation, especially in terms of improving its capacity to categorise complicated patterns.

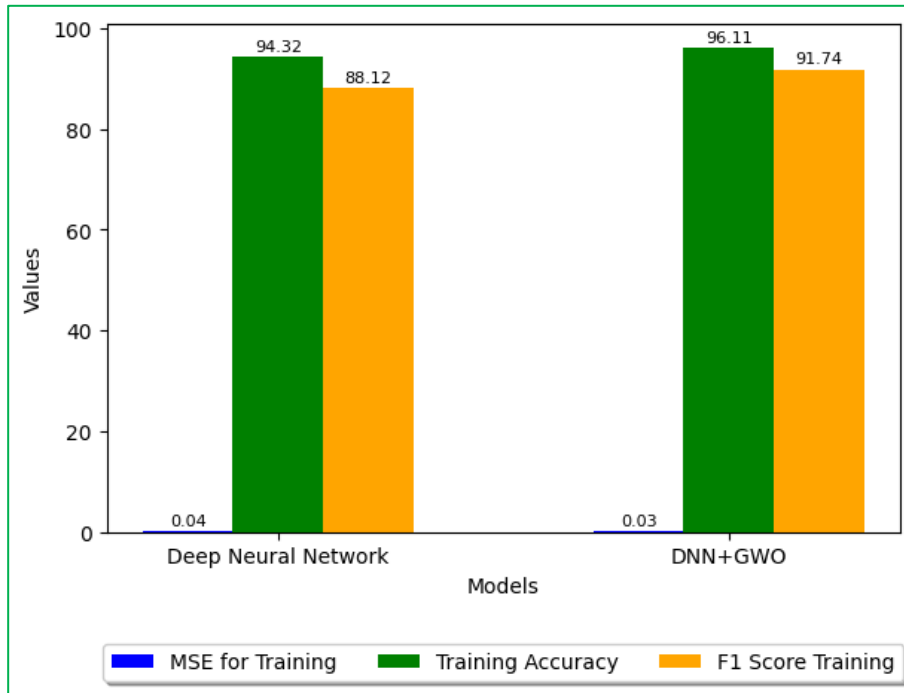


Fig 3: Representation of Evaluation parameters of result using DNN during Training for PD Prediction

The Deep Neural Network's (DNN) evaluation parameters for the training phase of Parkinson's Disease (PD) prediction are shown in Figure 3 and figure 4. The graph shows how the DNN performs as it gains knowledge from the training set and testing set. Plots of the main assessment metrics over iterations or epochs include Mean Squared Error (MSE) for training, Training Accuracy, and F1 Score for training. Viewers can see how these indicators change during training thanks to this portrayal.

As the DNN iteratively adjusts its weights and biases to better fit the training data, one typically expects to see MSE decline, Training Accuracy rise, and the F1 Score improve. Figure 3 is a crucial tool for evaluating the model's convergence since it shows how well it can identify the underlying patterns in the data and provides information on how well the training procedure for PD prediction worked.

Table 3: Evaluation parameters of result using DNN during Testing

Evaluation Metric(s)	MSE for testing	Testing Accuracy	F1 Score Testing
Deep Neural Network	0.038	96.55	92.67
DNN+GWO	0.019	98.41	97.63

The Deep Neural Network (DNN) assessment parameters are comprehensively shown in Table 3 along with a comparison of the DNN's solo performance and performance when combined with the Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO). Mean Squared Error (MSE) for

testing, Testing Accuracy, and F1 Score for testing are the main metrics assessed. The average squared difference between the model's predictions and the actual values during the testing phase is 0.038 for the standalone DNN. The training and testing accuracy shown in figure 5.

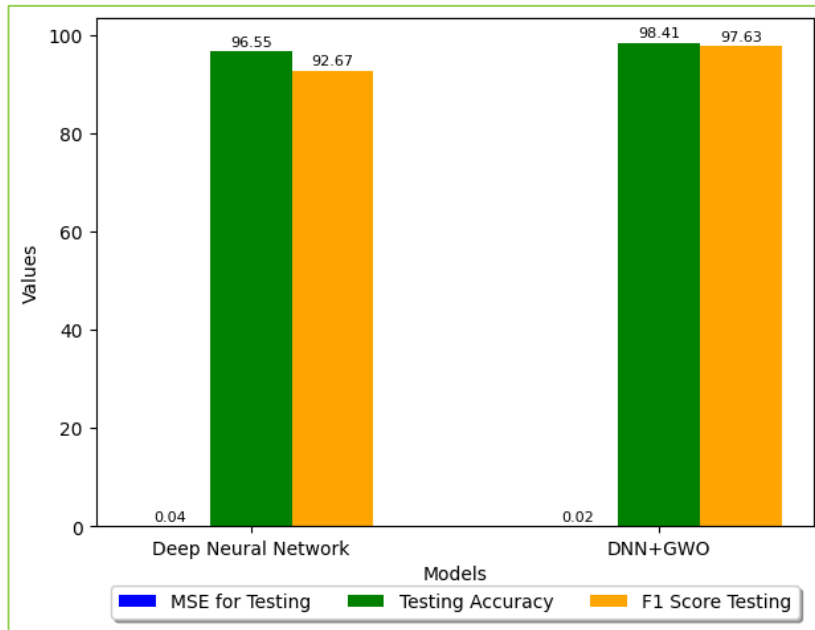


Fig 4: Representation of Evaluation parameters of result using DNN during Testing for PD Prediction

A lower MSE indicates that the model's forecasts are more in line with reality. The impressive 96.55% Testing Accuracy illustrates the proportion of cases that were successfully identified throughout testing. Additionally, the testing F1 Score is an outstanding 92.67%. This statistic measures the model's ability to reliably categorise both positive and negative occurrences while taking false

positives and false negatives into account. It combines precision and recall, making it particularly relevant for classification tasks. The DNN's Grey Wolf Optimizer integration results in considerable gains in testing efficiency. The GWO's contribution to improving the model's predicted accuracy is highlighted by the fact that the MSE for testing dramatically decreases to 0.019.

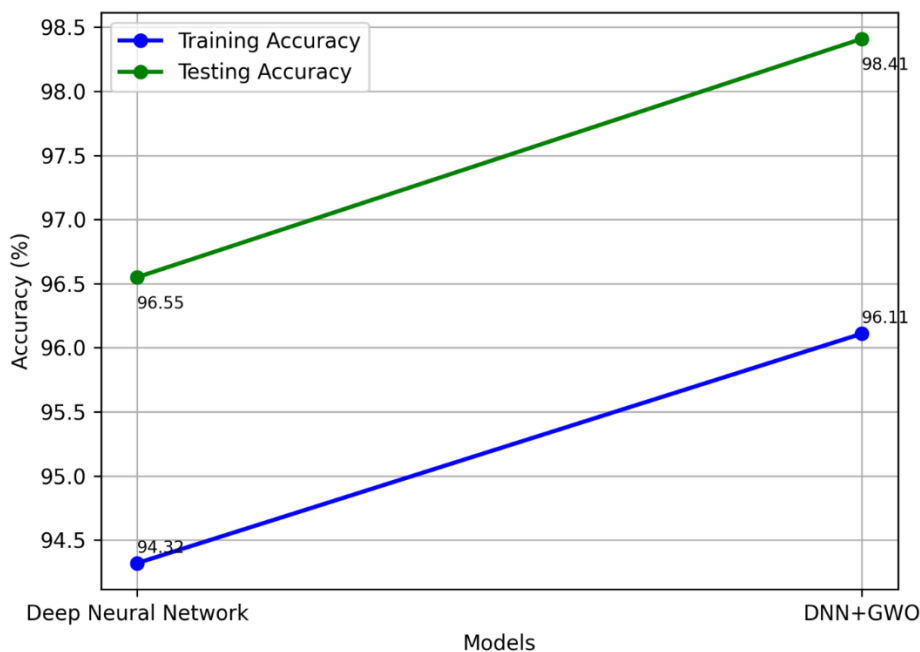


Fig 5: Training and Testing Accuracy Comparison

The Testing Accuracy shows a striking improvement to 98.41%, indicating that the model is now even more adept at classifying test samples. The improved precision and recall balance attained through GWO optimisation is highlighted by the significant increase in the F1 Score for testing, which reaches 97.63%. The testing shows that the

Grey Wolf Optimizer's integration significantly improves all metrics assessed, proving its ability to increase the generalisation and predictive performance of the DNN. This shows that the GWO is essential in optimising the model, enhancing its accuracy and usefulness in practical applications.

Table 4: Analysis of Grey Wolf Optimizer

Parameters	Population Size	Iteration Maximum	Fitness Value	Best Fitness Convergence Value
Epoch 23	20	100	0.001	0.052
Epoch 35	35	153	0.023	0.041
Epoch 55	40	186	0.033	0.030

Table 4 provides insights into the performance of the Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) based on several epochs and a detailed study of the GWO. Population Size, Maximum Iterations, Fitness Value, and Best Fitness Convergence

Value are some of these factors. The GWO operated for up to 100 iterations in the first row, which corresponds to Epoch 23. It used a population size of 20 people.

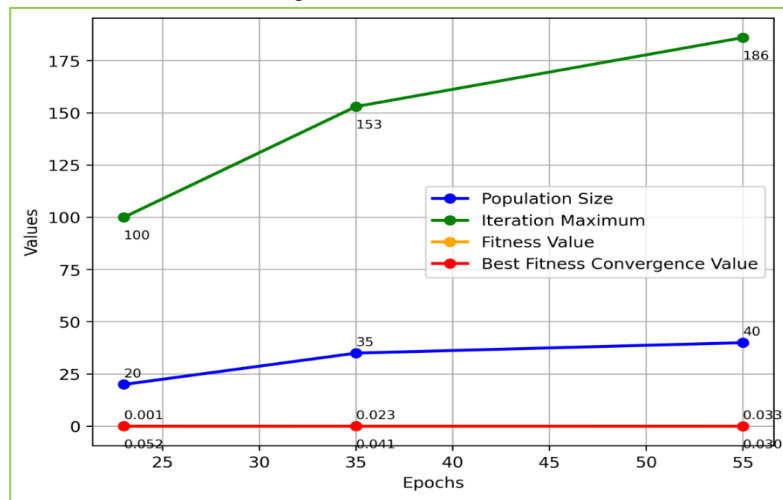


Fig 6: Representation of Analysis of Grey Wolf Optimizer

The quality of the solution found was indicated by the fitness value of 0.001 that was obtained. Importantly, the Best Fitness Convergence Value of 0.052 indicates that the optimisation process was almost complete at this point, and further iterations were probably going to produce even better outcomes. At Epoch 35, moving to the second row, the population grew to 35 people and the number of iterations increased to 153. A reasonable solution quality was indicated by a small improvement in the fitness score to 0.023. The objective function is still being optimised, as seen by the Best Fitness Convergence Value of 0.041, even though convergence has not yet been entirely reached. At Epoch 55, the population size in the third row rose to 40, and the number of iterations was increased to 186. Once more rising to 0.033, the fitness value indicates improved solution quality, as shown in figure 6. The GWO was likely convergent to a better solution as the Best Fitness Convergence Value decreased to 0.030, indicating that the optimisation process was close to convergence. Overall, the table gives a useful overview of how the GWO performed over several epochs, showing that it can improve the objective function and get close to convergence, with bigger population sizes and longer iterations perhaps producing even better

outcomes. It draws attention to the iterative nature of optimisation algorithms like GWO, where the optimal solution is continually sought after despite changes in parameter values and number of iterations.

5. Conclusion

The use of Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO)-based feature selection in the context of predicting the course of Parkinson's disease using longitudinal imaging data has shown its significance and efficacy in improving the performance of predictive models. Insights and findings from this research journey have made significant contributions to the fields of medical image processing and predictive modelling. First, it has been demonstrated that GWO-based feature selection may extract and maintain the most insightful and pertinent imaging features from longitudinal data. The model can concentrate on the most important data points, decreasing dimensionality and lowering the likelihood of overfitting, by optimising the feature subset. This makes the model more interpretable and increases its capacity for generalisation, leading to predictions that are more accurate and trustworthy. Additionally, by adjusting to the particular needs of the Parkinson's Disease progression

prediction task, the GWO algorithm has demonstrated its adaptability in optimising the objective function. This flexibility is essential in dealing with the complexity of medical data, where minute alterations over time may signal the progression of a disease. The model develops a greater grasp of the dynamics of illness progression through the inclusion of data gathered at various time periods, allowing for more accurate and early-stage predictions. This has great potential to further early diagnostic and intervention research and eventually improve patient outcomes. A useful tool for physicians and researchers is provided by the incorporation of GWO-based feature selection into prediction modelling for Parkinson's Disease development. It not only improves prediction accuracy but also aids in locating important imaging biomarkers and disease-related patterns, potentially resulting in more individualised and successful treatment plans. This study has shown that the combination of longitudinal imaging data analysis with GWO-based feature selection holds significant promise for improving our comprehension and prognostication of Parkinson's disease progression. The encouraging findings and insights produced by this study open the door for additional investigation and therapeutic applications, with the ultimate objective of enhancing the quality of life for people who suffer from this crippling neurological illness.

References

- [1] V. Raval, K. P. Nguyen, A. Gerald, R. B. Dewey and A. Montillo, "Prediction of Individual Progression Rate in Parkinson's Disease Using Clinical Measures and Biomechanical Measures of Gait and Postural Stability," ICASSP 2020 - 2020 IEEE International Conference on Acoustics, Speech and Signal Processing (ICASSP), Barcelona, Spain, 2020, pp. 1319-1323, doi: 10.1109/ICASSP40776.2020.9054666.
- [2] S. S. S., R. T.P., P. Kalaichelvi, B. R and S. M., "Predicting Parkinson's Disease Progression Using Machine Learning Ensemble Methods," 2022 1st International Conference on Computational Science and Technology (ICCST), CHENNAI, India, 2022, pp. 22-26, doi: 10.1109/ICCST55948.2022.10040421.
- [3] S. S, A. S, G. V. V. Rao, P. V, K. Mohanraj and R. Azhagumurugan, "Parkinson's Disease Prediction Using Machine Learning Algorithm," 2022 International Conference on Power, Energy, Control and Transmission Systems (ICPECTS), Chennai, India, 2022, pp. 1-5, doi: 10.1109/ICPECTS56089.2022.10047447.
- [4] C. Taleb, M. Khachab, C. Mokbel and L. Likforman-Sulem, "A Reliable Method to Predict Parkinson's Disease Stage and Progression based on Handwriting and Re-sampling Approaches," 2018 IEEE 2nd International Workshop on Arabic and Derived Script Analysis and Recognition (ASAR), London, UK, 2018, pp. 7-12, doi: 10.1109/ASAR.2018.8480209.
- [5] Z. Huang et al., "Longitudinal and multi-modal data learning for Parkinson's disease diagnosis," 2018 IEEE 15th International Symposium on Biomedical Imaging (ISBI 2018), Washington, DC, USA, 2018, pp. 1411-1414, doi: 10.1109/ISBI.2018.8363836.
- [6] B. Lei, S. Chen, D. Ni and T. Wang, "Discriminative Learning for Alzheimer's Disease Diagnosis via Canonical Correlation Analysis and Multimodal Fusion", *Frontiers in Aging Neuroscience*, vol. 8, pp. 1-17, May 2016.
- [7] H. Lei, Z. Huang, J. Zhang, Z. Yang, E.-L. Tan, F. Zhou et al., "Joint detection and clinical score prediction in Parkinson's disease via multi-modal sparse learning", *Expert Systems with Applications*, vol. 80, pp. 284-296, Sep 2017.
- [8] X. Zhu, H.-I. Suk, L. Wang, S.-W. Lee and D. Shen, "A novel relational regularization feature selection method for joint regression and classification in AD diagnosis", *Medical Image Analysis*, vol. 38, pp. 205-214, May 2017.
- [9] J. L. Whitwell, "Voxel-Based Morphometry: An Automated Technique for Assessing Structural Changes in the Brain", *The Journal of Neuroscience*, vol. 29, pp. 9661, 2009.
- [10] M. Jenkinson, C. F. Beckmann, T. E. Behrens, M. W. Woolrich and S. M. Smith, "FSL", *Neuroimage*, vol. 62, pp. 782-790, Aug 2012.
- [11] R. Tibshirani, "Regression shrinkage and selection via the Lasso", *Journal of the Royal Statistical Society Series B-Methodological*, vol. 58, pp. 267-288, 1996.
- [12] D. Zhang and D. Shen, "Multi-modal multi-task learning for joint prediction of multiple regression and classification variables in Alzheimer's disease", *Neuroimage*, vol. 59, pp. 895-907, Jan 2012.
- [13] M. P. Adams, B. Yang, A. Rahmim and J. Tang, "Prediction of outcome in Parkinson's disease patients from DAT SPECT images using a convolutional neural network," 2018 IEEE Nuclear Science Symposium and Medical Imaging Conference Proceedings (NSS/MIC), Sydney, NSW, Australia, 2018, pp. 1-4, doi: 10.1109/NSSMIC.2018.8824369.
- [14] A. Sabo, C. Gorodetsky, A. Fasano, A. Iaboni and B. Taati, "Concurrent Validity of Zeno Instrumented Walkway and Video-Based Gait Features in Adults With Parkinson's Disease," in *IEEE Journal of Translational Engineering in Health and Medicine*, vol. 10, pp. 1-11, 2022, Art no. 2100511, doi: 10.1109/JTEHM.2022.3180231.

- [15] K. M. Tsiouris, D. Gatsios, G. Rigas, S. Konitsiotis, A. Antonini and D. I. Fotiadis, "A decision support system based on rapid progression rules to enhance baseline evaluation of Parkinson's disease patients," 2018 IEEE EMBS International Conference on Biomedical & Health Informatics (BHI), Las Vegas, NV, USA, 2018, pp. 329-332, doi: 10.1109/BHI.2018.8333435.
- [16] T. Exley, S. Moudy, R. M. Patterson, J. Kim and M. V. Albert, "Predicting UPDRS Motor Symptoms in Individuals With Parkinson's Disease From Force Plates Using Machine Learning," in *IEEE Journal of Biomedical and Health Informatics*, vol. 26, no. 7, pp. 3486-3494, July 2022, doi: 10.1109/JBHI.2022.3157518.
- [17] Y. Lavner, S. Khatib, F. Artoul and J. Vaya, "An algorithm for processing and analysis of Gas Chromatography-Mass Spectrometry (GC-MS) signals for early detection of Parkinson's disease," 2014 IEEE 28th Convention of Electrical & Electronics Engineers in Israel (IEEEI), Eilat, Israel, 2014, pp. 1-5, doi: 10.1109/IEEEI.2014.7005772.
- [18] S. Del Din et al., "Analysis of free-living gait in older adults with and without Parkinson's disease and with and without a history of falls: Identifying generic and disease-specific characteristics", *J. Gerontol. A Biomed. Sci. Med. Sci.*, vol. 74, no. 4, pp. 500-506, Apr. 2019.
- [19] S. Ajani and M. Wanjari, "An Efficient Approach for Clustering Uncertain Data Mining Based on Hash Indexing and Voronoi Clustering," 2013 5th International Conference and Computational Intelligence and Communication Networks, 2013, pp. 486-490, doi: 10.1109/CICN.2013.106.
- [20] Khetani, V. ., Gandhi, Y. ., Bhattacharya, S. ., Ajani, S. N. ., & Limkar, S. . (2023). Cross-Domain Analysis of ML and DL: Evaluating their Impact in Diverse Domains. *International Journal of Intelligent Systems and Applications in Engineering*, 11(7s), 253–262.
- [21] Borkar, P., Wankhede, V.A., Mane, D.T. et al. Deep learning and image processing-based early detection of Alzheimer disease in cognitively normal individuals. *Soft Comput* (2023). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00500-023-08615-w>
- [22] K. Agnihotri, P. Chilbule, S. Prashant, P. Jain and P. Khobragade, "Generating Image Description Using Machine Learning Algorithms," 2023 11th International Conference on Emerging Trends in Engineering & Technology - Signal and Information Processing (ICETET - SIP), Nagpur, India, 2023, pp. 1-6, doi: 10.1109/ICETET-SIP58143.2023.10151472.
- [23] R. Romijnders, E. Warmerdam, C. Hansen, J. Welzel, G. Schmidt and W. Maetzler, "Validation of IMU-based gait event detection during curved walking and turning in older adults and Parkinson's disease patients", *J. NeuroEng. Rehabil.*, vol. 18, no. 1, pp. 1-10, Dec. 2021.
- [24] Ajani, S.N., Mulla, R.A., Limkar, S. et al. DLMBHCO: design of an augmented bioinspired deep learning-based multidomain body parameter analysis via heterogeneous correlative body organ analysis. *Soft Comput* (2023). <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00500-023-08613-y>
- [25] Y. Mao, T. Ogata, H. Ora, N. Tanaka and Y. Miyake, "Estimation of stride-by-stride spatial gait parameters using inertial measurement unit attached to the shank with inverted pendulum model", *Sci. Rep.*, vol. 11, no. 1, pp. 1391, Dec. 2021.
- [26] A. L. Silva de Lima et al., "Feasibility of large-scale deployment of multiple wearable sensors in Parkinson's disease", *PLoS ONE*, vol. 12, no. 12, Dec. 2017.
- [27] D. J. Geerse, B. H. Coolen and M. Roerdink, "Kinematic validation of a multi-Kinect v2 instrumented 10-meter walkway for quantitative gait assessments", *PLoS ONE*, vol. 10, no. 10, Oct. 2015.
- [28] E. Dolatabadi, B. Taati and A. Mihailidis, "Concurrent validity of the microsoftKinect for windows v2 for measuring spatiotemporal gait parameters", *Med. Eng. Phys.*, vol. 38, no. 9, pp. 952-958, Sep. 2016.
- [29] Z. Cao, G. Hidalgo, T. Simon, S. E. Wei and Y. Sheikh, "OpenPose: Realtime multi-person 2D pose estimation using part affinity fields", *IEEE Trans. Pattern Anal. Mach. Intell.*, vol. 43, no. 1, pp. 172-186, Jan. 2021.
- [30] Z. Huang et al., "Parkinson's Disease Classification and Clinical Score Regression via United Embedding and Sparse Learning From Longitudinal Data," in *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems*, vol. 33, no. 8, pp. 3357-3371, Aug. 2022, doi: 10.1109/TNNLS.2021.3052652.
- [31] Chhabra, G. (2023). Comparison of Imputation Methods for Univariate Time Series. *International Journal on Recent and Innovation Trends in Computing and Communication*, 11(2s), 286–292. <https://doi.org/10.17762/ijritcc.v11i2s.6148>
- [32] Mark White, Thomas Wood, Carlos Rodríguez, Pekka Koskinen, Jónsson Ólafur. Exploring Natural Language Processing in Educational Applications. *Kuwait Journal of Machine Learning*, 2(1). Retrieved from <http://kuwaitjournals.com/index.php/kjml/article/view/168>