



An Evaluation study of Oral Cancer Detection using Data Mining Classification Techniques

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Abstract: Cancer detection is one of the important research topics in medical science. Oral cancer is the sixth most common cancer in the world. It is one of the most prevalent cancers in the developing countries of South Asia accounting for one third of the world burden. In India oral cancer is the most common cancer that occurs. Sixty percent of the cancers are advanced by the time they are detected. In this paper we have implemented two techniques such as Naïve Bayesian and Support Vector Machine (SVM) and compared the results to show which technique is the best. Current predictive model design in medical oncology literature is dominated by linear and logistic regression techniques. In IPPSCD (Intelligent Prognosis Prediction System for Cancer Disease) a database of cancer patient performance is constructed. Data mining techniques will be used to analyze the database to predict disease based on causative factors. Both classification and regression algorithms are to be considered

Keywords: SVM, LIF, CCD, HPLC, MPM, SHG.

I. INTRODUCTION

In India, 320,000 new cancer cases are reported (males) every year and oral cancer accounts for 19% of them, while in women it accounts for about 7% of the total of 350,000 new cancer cases [1]. One third of world's oral cancer population resides in Indian subcontinent. This is due to the consumption of tobacco and alcohol. The worldwide annual incidence and mortality due to oral cancer is around 274,000 and 127,000 respectively [2]. Currently, the most widely used screening test for oral cancer is visual inspection of the oral cavity. Hence, need of the hour is a technology that's easy and simple (can be managed by less skilled providers at rural areas) aimed at screening of precancerous lesions so that it has a much wider population reach and acceptance. This proposed system envisages predicting oral cancer at an early stage. The system uses data attributes like person's id, person's name, age, gender, alcohol, smoking, ulcer status to predict oral cancer. Here we used Naïve Bayesian and Support vector machine (SVM) for classification. There are many classification algorithms. But Naïve Bayesian is a very simple, basic classification system and the SVM gives much more accurate results than most of the other classification algorithms [3].

II. OPTICAL SCREENING OF ORAL CANCER

Two different technologies LIF and HPLC-LIF have been developed for the early screening of oral cancer. LIF is being developed for in-vivo screening whereas HPLC-LIF is for in-vitro diagnostics.[4]

A. Laser Induced Fluorescence (LIF) Technology:

A laser beam is transmitted to the tissue through a laser carrying fiber. The tissue emits fluorescence with maximum emission for NADH at 440nm and for collagen at 400nm. Collection fibers in the probe carry the auto fluorescence signal of the tissue to the spectrograph. The fluorescence wavelength components dispersed by the spectrograph are recorded using a Charge Coupled Device (CCD) and the spectrum is recorded in the computer[5].

B. High Performance Liquid Chromatography-LIF:

HPLC-Biotechnology is used to generate protein profiles in the form of chromatogram from human serum and saliva, which can be used to screen oral cancer using the signatures of the unidentified tumor markers embedded in the chromatograms [6].

C. Imaging of human oral cancer using multiphoton microscopy:

TPM is a nonlinear high resolution optical method have been used in a variety of biological imaging applications, Two-photon interactions in MPM result in SHG and two photon excited fluorescence (TPF). The goal of this study is to investigate the application of a multimodal nonlinear Imaging approach. It is based on the integration of Multiphoton microscopy (MPM) with second harmonic generation microscopy (SHGM) for in vivo evaluation of oral tissue microstructure. This study chooses to use two-photon fluorescence and second-harmonic generation microscopy as imaging techniques. A difference in SHG and auto fluorescence images exists between normal and cancerous tongue tissues. Such differences may be used for

the in vivo diagnosis of normal and cancerous tongue tissues. This was planned to be extended into the multiphoton characterization of other oral diseases. This was thought to help in the diagnosis and treatment of oral diseases. The paper is organized in the following sequence. A brief literature survey of the oral cancer, etc. was presented in the previous paragraphs

III. NAÏVE BAYESIAN CLASSIFICATION

The naive Bayesian classifier, or simple Bayesian classifier, works as follows[7].

- A. Each data sample is represented by an n-dimensional feature vector, $X = (x_1; x_2; : : : ; x_n)$, depicting n measurements made on the sample from n attributes, respectively $A_1; A_2; : : ; A_n$.
- B. Suppose that there are m classes, $C_1; C_2; : : : ; C_m$. Given an unknown data sample, X (i.e., having no class label), the classifier will predict that X belongs to the class having the highest posterior probability, conditioned on X. That is, the naive Bayesian classifier assigns an unknown sample X to the class C_i if and only if :

$$P(C_i/X) > P(C_j/X) \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq m; j \neq i \text{ -- eq(2)}$$

Thus we maximize $P(C_i/X)$. The class C_i for which $P(C_i/X)$ is maximized is called the maximum posteriori hypothesis. By Bayes theorem (Equation (1))[12],

$$P(C_i/X) = P(X/C_i)P(C_i) / P(X) \text{ -- eq(3)}$$

- C. As $P(X)$ is constant for all classes, only $P(X_j/C_i)P(C_i)$ need be maximized. If the class prior probabilities are not known, then it is commonly assumed that the classes are equally likely, i.e. $P(C_1) = P(C_2) = : : : = P(C_m)$, and we would therefore maximize $P(X_j/C_i)$. Otherwise, we maximize $P(X_j/C_i)P(C_i)$. Note that the class prior probabilities may be estimated by $P(C_i) = s_i / s$, where s_i is the number of training samples of class C_i , and s is the total number of training samples.

Given data sets with many attributes, it would be extremely computationally expensive to compute $P(X_j/C_i)$.

- D. Given data sets with many attributes, it would be extremely computationally expensive to compute $P(X_j/C_i)$. In order to reduce computation in evaluating $P(X_j/C_i)$, the naive assumption of class conditional independence is made. This presumes that the values of the attributes are conditionally independent of one another, given the class label of the sample, i.e., that there are no dependence relationships among the attributes. Thus,

$$P(X|C_i) = \prod_{k=1}^n P(x_k|C_i). \text{ eq(4)}$$

The probabilities $P(x_1/C_i); P(x_2/C_i); : : : ; P(x_n/C_i)$ can be estimated from the training samples, where:

- a. If A_k is categorical, then $P(x_k/C_i) = s_{ik}/s_i$,

where s_{ik} is the number of training samples of class C_i having the value x_k for A_k , and s_i is the number of training samples belonging to C_i .

- b. If A_k is continuous-valued, then the attribute is assumed to have a Gaussian distribution. Therefore,

$$P(x_k|C_i) = g(x_k, \mu_{C_i}, \sigma_{C_i}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_{C_i}} e^{-\frac{(x_k - \mu_{C_i})^2}{2\sigma_{C_i}^2}}, \text{ -- eq(4)}$$

where $g(x_k, \mu_{C_i}, \sigma_{C_i})$ is the Gaussian (normal) density function for attribute A_k , while μ_{C_i} and σ_{C_i} are the mean and variance respectively given the values for attribute A_k for training samples of class C_i .

- E. In order to classify an unknown sample X, $P(X/C_i)P(C_i)$ is evaluated for each class C_i . Sample X is then assigned to the class C_i if and only if :

$$P(X/C_i)P(C_i) > P(X/C_j)P(C_j) \text{ for } 1 \leq j \leq m; j \neq i. \text{ --eq(5)}$$

In other words, it is assigned to the class, C_i , for which $P(X/C_i)P(C_i)$ is the maximum. Bayesian classifiers are also useful in that they provide a theoretical justification for other classifiers which do not explicitly use Bayes theorem.

IV. SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINE

SVM is a supervised learning methods used for classification and regression. In simple words, given a set of training examples, each marked as belonging to one of two categories, an SVM training algorithm builds a model that predicts whether a new example falls into one category or the other. Intuitively, an SVM model is a representation of the examples as points in space, mapped so that the examples of the separate categories are divided by a clear gap that is as wide as possible. A support vector machine constructs a hyperplane or set of hyper planes in a high or infinite dimensional space, which can be used for classification, regression or other tasks. Intuitively, a good separation is achieved by the hyperplane that has the largest distance to the nearest training data points of any class (so-called functional margin), since in general the larger the margin the lower the generalization error of the classifier.

Our task is to predict whether a test sample belongs to one of two classes. We receive training examples of the form: $\{x_i; y_i\}, i = 1, \dots, n$ and $x_i \in R^d; y_i \in \{-1, +1\}$. We call $\{x_i\}$ the co-variables or input vectors and $\{y_i\}$ the response variables or labels.

We consider a very simple example where the data are in fact linearly separable: i.e. I can draw a straight line $f(x) = w^T x - b$ such that all cases with $y_i = -1$ fall on one side and have $f(x_i) < 0$ and cases with $y_i = +1$ fall on the other and have $f(x_i) > 0$. Given that we have achieved that, we could classify new test cases according to the rule $y_{\text{test}} = \text{sign}(x_{\text{test}})$.

However, typically there are infinitely many such hyper-planes obtained by small perturbations of a given solution. How do we choose between all these hyper-planes which solve the separation problem for our training data, but may have different performance on the newly arriving test cases. For instance, we could choose to put the line very close to members of one particular class, say $y = +1$. Intuitively, when test cases arrive we will not make many mistakes on cases that should be classified with $y = +1$, but we will make very easily mistakes on the cases with $y = -1$ (for instance, imagine that a new batch of test cases arrives which are small perturbations of the training data). A sensible thing thus seems to choose the separation line as far away from

both $y = -1$ and $y = +1$ training cases as we can, i.e. right in the middle.

Geometrically, the vector w is directed orthogonal to the line defined by $w^T x = b$. This can be understood as follows. First take $b = 0$. Now it is clear that all vectors, x , with vanishing inner product with w satisfy this equation, i.e. all vectors orthogonal to w satisfy this equation. Now translate the hyperplane away from the origin over a vector a . The equation for the plane now becomes: $(x - a)^T w = 0$, i.e. we find that for the offset $b = a^T w$, which is the projection of a onto to the vector w . Without loss of generality we may thus choose a perpendicular to the plane, in which case the length $\|a\| = |b| / \|w\|$ represents the shortest, orthogonal distance between the origin and the hyperplane. We now define 2 more hyperplanes parallel to the separating hyperplane. They represent that planes that cut through the closest training examples on either side. We will call them “support hyper-planes” in the following, because the data-vectors they contain support the plane.

We define the distance between the these hyperplanes and the separating hyperplane to be d_+ and d_- respectively. The margin, γ , is defined to be $d_+ + d_-$. Our goal is now to find the separating hyperplane so that the margin is largest, while the separating hyperplane is equidistant from both.

We can write the following equations for the support hyperplanes:

$$w^T x = b + \delta \quad \text{-- (1)}$$

$$w^T x = b - \delta \quad \text{-- (2)}$$

We now note that we have over-parameterized the problem: if we scale w, b and δ by a constant factor α , the equations for x are still satisfied. To remove this ambiguity we will require that $\delta = 1$, this sets the scale of the problem, i.e. if we measure distance in meters or millimeters. We can now also compute the values for

$$d_+ = (|b+1| - |b|) / \|w\| = 1 / \|w\|$$

(this is only true if b not $\in (-1, 0)$ since the origin doesn't fall in between the hyperplanes in that case. If $b \in (-1, 0)$ you should use $d_+ = (|b+1| + |b|) / \|w\| = 1 / \|w\|$). Hence the margin is equal to twice that value: $\gamma = 2 / \|w\|$. With the above definition of the support planes we can write down the following constraint that any solution must satisfy,

$$w^T x_i - b \leq -1 \quad \forall y_i = -1 \quad (3)$$

$$w^T x_i - b \geq +1 \quad \forall y_i = +1 \quad (4)$$

or in one equation,

$$y_i(w^T x_i - b) - 1 \geq 0 \quad (5)$$

We now formulate the primal problem of the SVM:

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{Minimize } 1/2\|w\|^2 \\ &\text{subject to } y_i(w^T x_i - b) - 1 \geq 0 \quad \forall i \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

Thus, we maximize the margin, subject to the constraints that all training cases fall on either side of the support hyperplanes. The data-cases that lie on the hyperplane are called support vectors, since they support the hyper-planes and hence determine the solution to the problem.

The primal problem can be solved by a quadratic program. However, it is not ready to be kernelised, because its dependence is not only on inner products between data-vectors. Hence, we transform to the dual formulation by first writing the problem using a Lagrangian,

$$\mathcal{L}(w, b, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2}\|w\|^2 - \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i [y_i(w^T x_i - b) - 1]$$

The solution that minimizes the primal problem subject to the constraints is given by $\min_w \max_{\alpha} \mathcal{L}(w; \alpha)$, i.e. a saddle point problem. When the original objective-function is convex, (and only then), we can interchange the minimization and maximization. Doing that, we find that we can find the condition on w that must hold at the saddle point we are solving for. This is done by taking derivatives wrt w and b and solving

$$\begin{aligned} w - \sum_i \alpha_i y_i x_i &= 0 \Rightarrow w^* = \sum_i \alpha_i y_i x_i \\ \sum_i \alpha_i y_i &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

Inserting this back into the Lagrangian we obtain what is known as the dual problem,

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{maximize } \mathcal{L}_D = \sum_{i=1}^N \alpha_i - \frac{1}{2} \sum_{ij} \alpha_i \alpha_j y_i y_j x_i^T x_j \\ &\text{subject to } \sum_i \alpha_i y_i = 0 \\ &\alpha_i \geq 0 \quad \forall i \end{aligned}$$

The dual formulation of the problem is also a quadratic program, but note that the number of variables, α_i in this problem is equal to the number of data-cases, N . The crucial point is however, that this problem *only depends on xi through the inner-product* $x_i^T x_j$. This is readily kernelised through the substitution $x_i^T x_j \rightarrow k(x_i; x_j)$. This is a recurrent theme: the dual problem lends itself to kernelisation, while the primal problem is not kernelised.

V. PROPOSED WORK

The proposed system architecture consists of the following Phases (i) Data collection, (ii) preprocessing, (iii) implementation of naïve bayes algorithm, (iv) Implementation of SVM, (v) comparison of naïve bayes and SVM, (vi) cancer prediction.

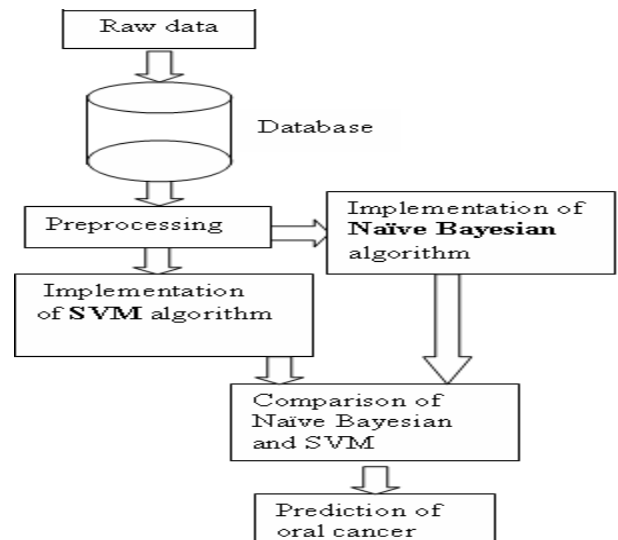


Figure1. System Architecture

A. Data Collection and Preprocessin:

In data collection module the following data like doctor name, doctor_id, patient_id, patient name, age, smoking, and alcohol and ulcer status are collected and stored in the database Oracle 10g. once the data is stored in the database it is just like a raw data and it is preprocessed for applying the machine learning algorithms in Clementine tool to predict the presence of cancer. in the preprocessing stage the data is stored in excel sheet as shown in Fig3 without any missing values and then stored in text file with delimiters as shown in Fig4.

DOCTOR NAME	PATIENT NAME	AGE	GENDER	SMOKING	ALCOHOL	ULCER STATUS	ancer Predic
Dr. WAFIA ABDEL-HADI	RAMLAL	60	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. TAMER FOJAD	KAVIYARMA	45	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. VINOD AGARWAL	ANDHIR KUMAR MONDAL	51	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. GAURAV BAHL	KALYANI MALLIK	47	MALE	NO	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. S.K. PATILNAK	DHANALAKSHMI	65	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. MAHADEVAN	CHALANI MANTHI	35	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. VAISHAL HIRANI	ROSE MARRY	72	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. MANU SHANKAR	BAJILAL	65	MALE	NO	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. G RAKESH GOPAL	RAMAPATI MUKHERJEE	72	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. ARUN KUMAR SUIA	NAGADHAR	65	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. SANDEEP PATIL	BADAR UDDIN AHAMED	32	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. C.S. NARAYANAN	ASIM KUNDU	22	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. RAJSHRI HANDEKAR	AHANTAKUMARI	31	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. RAKESH KUMAR	KALYANI MALLIK	49	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. RICHARD J KOZENI, MD	AHEO AHNKAR	48	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. LEONID M KOZER, MD	PARASURAM PANDA	67	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. RICHARD J KOZERA, MD	PURANGAR JHA	50	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. GORIS KOZISKI, DO	JAGADISH PODDAR	67	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. NODAR KOZHIN, MD	DEOKI NANDAN TIWARY	37	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. JOSEPH A KOZHMALA, MD	HABIBULLAH	65	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. ERIC S KOZIFKAY, DO	VENKATASAMA	44	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. JOHN D KOZJASKI, MD	CHELLAMMAL	72	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. ZELMIR KOZIC, MD	RAMDAL	60	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. DANIEL W KOZIE, MD	LILA RAM PUEBEL	37	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. HENRY KOZIO, MD	KASHINATH SAHA	60	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. SCOTT KOZIN, MD	SAMIR CHOLUCHARY	31	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. JONATHAN B KOZIN, MD	CHITAMANI	57	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. MALGORZATA KOZINSKI, MD	DILIP GOSWAMI	32	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. JENNIFER KOZIOLO, MD	VARADARAJAN	69	MALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. SCOTT KOZIN, MD	RAJKIRAN	53	MALE	YES	YES	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. STEPHEN RAJ	RAMKUMAR	24	MALE	NO	YES	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. ARJUN KUMAR	RANJINI	38	FEMALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. VIKAY KUMAR	LALITHA	42	FEMALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. HARIPRASAD	MANOVAR GANDHI	57	MALE	YES	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. RAJAMIRAN	RAJLITHA KUMAR	36	MALE	NO	YES	ABSENT	ABSENT

Figure3. Sample Data

Dr. KETAN A TRIVEDI,MS,MRCS,	KALPANA KOTHARI 34	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. KIRAN C KOTHARI,MD,	KRITI M PATEL 48	FEMALE	NO	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. MUKESH BHARWASI,MBBS,MD,DMB,	NATUBHAI PATEL 52	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. NATWAR GUPTA,MS,F.P.PATEL 51	MALE	NO	YES	ABSENT	ABSENT	
Dr. PRABHAKAR SHUKLA,MS,	RAJEN TANKSHALI 41	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. SHAKUNTALA VIREN SHAH,MBBS,MD,	SHILIN NANUBHAI25	FEMALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. SHRISH S ALURKAR,MS,FACS,	SHIVMANI 38	MALE	NO	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. SHREE KRISHNA,MBBS,MD,	SHAH PANKAJ.M 29	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. TARANG PATEL,MS,MCH,	TRIPATHI 56	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. VAIDYA JAGDISH CHANDELA,MS,	UMAPATHY 59	MALE	YES	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. UMANK B.TRIPATHI,MBBS,	SHANTHI 31	FEMALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. P.V.PRADEEP,DM,	SRIDHAR.B 30	MALE	NO	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. P.S.YENKATESH RAO,MS,MRCS,	PRABHA 25	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. N.E ELIYA SINGAN,MBBS,MD,	KUMARESH 44	MALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. KRISHNAHOORTHY,MBBS,MD,	RAJESWARI 48	FEMALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. JANAKIRAMAN,MS,	SUDIP CHATTERJEE52	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. K.P SINGH,MS,FACS,	ANISUR RAHMAN 55	MALE	NO	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. LAKSHMIPATIL,MD,	B.K ROY 40	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. VISHAL GAUR,MBBS,	A.K CHATTOPADHYAY 43	MALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. GANESH NARAIN SARKAR,MS,MRCS,	RAJALAKSHMI 27	FEMALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. SANJAY KALRA,DM,	SURESH 60	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. GAURAV AGARWAL,MS,MCH,	ANAND MIRSHA 34	MALE	NO	YES	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. DAWOOD M. YOUSUF,MRCS,	RAJASEKHAR 42	MALE	NO	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. H.M.JAIN,MD,	UMESH K. MALHOTRA 30	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. VIRENDAR K.SAHGAL,MBBS,MS,	ANOO MIRSA 47	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. A S LATA,MS,MCH,	VIVEK AGGARWAL 50	MALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. UDAY PADKE,MBBS,MD,DMB	SANJEEV BAKSHI 79	MALE	YES	NO	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. SHARMA,MS,MCH,	VELUMANI 60	MALE	YES	YES	PRESENT	PRESENT
Dr. VIVEK ARYA,MD,DM,	ASHA 31	FEMALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. SULTAN,MS,MRCS,	SAMIR META 47	MALE	YES	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. VINAY,MBBS,	P.BANSHALI 66	FEMALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. A.JITH KUMAR,MS,	DINESH 21	MALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. ANAND SHUJU,MD,	PRABHU 29	MALE	YES	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. MOHAN,E,MS,FACS,	RAKESH 22	MALE	YES	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. NA VEEN,T,MS,MCH,	KAVERI 36	FEMALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. SHOHIB,DM,	MATHIMARAN 25	MALE	NO	YES	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. SHAMIM,MS,MRCS,	PRADEEP 27	MALE	NO	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT
Dr. MUNAVAR,MD,	MITHUN 31	MALE	YES	NO	ABSENT	ABSENT

Figure4. Preprocessed Data

B. Implementation of Naïve Bayes Algorithm:

The Naïve Bayesian Network, the target prediction of oral cancer is calculated by the attributes displayed in Fig2 and the result is shown in Fig5.

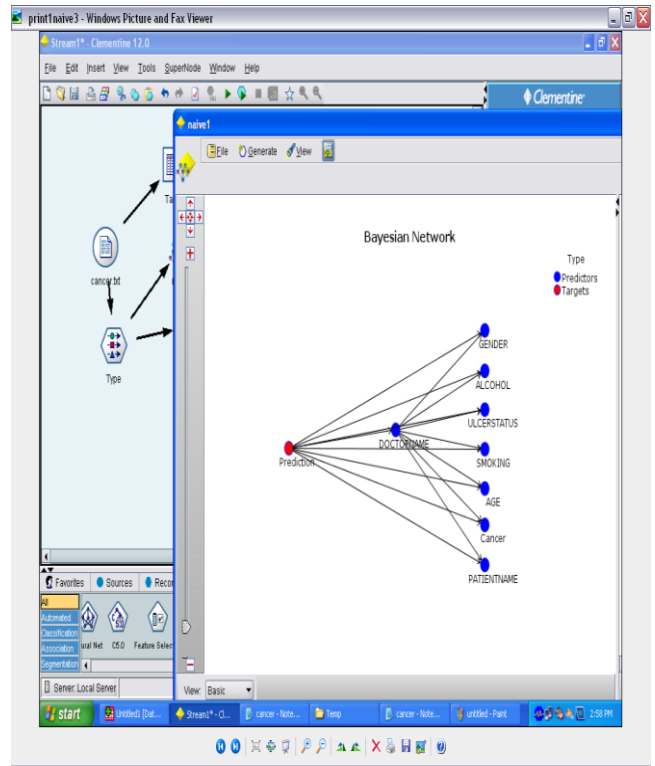


Figure5. Shows the working of Bayes Network.

The analysis of prediction in naïve bayes algorithm is shown below in Fig4.the analysis shows that for all the training tuples,the machine learning algorithm predicts the correct result. the results of the output prediction with the training tuples and testing tuples as shown in Fig6.

Performance Evaluation	Count	Percentage
Correct	241	100%
Wrong	0	0%
Total	241	

Figure6. Result in Bayes.

C. Implementation of SVM Algorithm:

The variable importance in support vector machine is shown in Fig7.

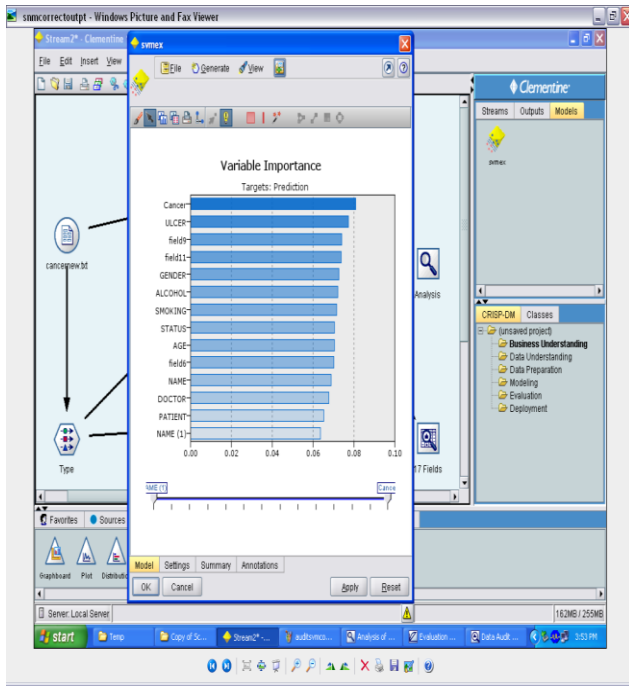


Figure7. Variable importance

In the SVM model we train the algorithm with the training data along with the training data the model is tested with the test data as shown in Fig7.in this model we have taken 139 training samples and 55 testing sample (i.e. wrong as shown in figure).

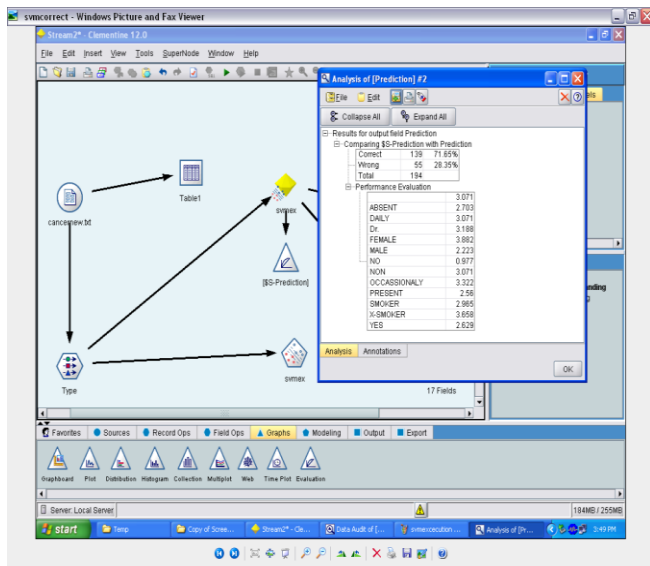


Figure7: Result in SVM.

D. Comparison Of Naïve Bayes And SVM:

The naïve bayes algorithm is not able to handle the data subject to the noise, where as the support vector machine can handle the data in case of noise. the result of the naïve bayes method is shown in fig5.the method is trained with out noise, it shows the correct result and it is also tested with noise also and we are achieving only 48.45%.with the same noise data with tested the support vector machine method and we get 71.65% accuracy result.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this paper we implemented two machine learning algorithms for predicting oral cancer in the early stage by using some symptoms as specified in the paper and the accuracy of the result can be achieved by applying some other machine learning algorithms.

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