Diabetes Risk Assessment: A Logistic Regression Modelling Study Based on Large-Scale Data

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Abstract: As a major global public health problem, early diagnosis and accurate risk assessment of diabetes are of great significance for disease prevention and control. Based on machine learning methods, this study systematically explored the application efficiency and clinical value of logistic regression (LR) and random forest (RF) algorithms in diabetes prediction. The study used a clinical data set of 768 observations to construct a prediction model by analyzing key health indicators such as blood glucose level, BMI index, age, number of pregnancies, and diabetes pedigree function. The results showed that the LR model showed good prediction performance with an accuracy of 78.26%, among which blood glucose level, BMI index, number of pregnancies, and diabetes pedigree function were identified as the most statistically significant predictors. The RF model (500 decision trees) showed a stronger ability to capture nonlinear relationships, with an accuracy of 74.03% and an AUC value of 0.831. Feature importance analysis showed that blood glucose, BMI, and age contributed the most to prediction. LR provides clear clinical interpretability, which helps doctors understand the impact of each risk factor; RF can effectively identify complex interactions between variables.

1 INTRODUCTION

Diabetes mellitus has long been a major global health challenge due to its chronic and progressive nature. It is mainly characterized by chronically elevated blood glucose levels, caused by insufficient insulin secretion or insulin dysfunction, and common types include type 1 diabetes, type 2 diabetes, and gestational diabetes. According to the World Health Organization, in 2012, diabetes directly caused 1.5 million deaths and an additional 2.2 million deaths due to cardiovascular disease caused by hyperglycemia, and the global prevalence of diabetes has increased from 180 million cases in 1980 to 422 million cases in 2014 (Roglic, 2016). It is meaningful to analyze the factors of diabetes, such as gender, since the challenge caused by diabetes is more serious.

As the Gale study shows that men are more likely to develop type 2 diabetes at a younger age, while women's risk rises significantly after menopause, the impact of gender on diabetes has been widely publicized. In addition, female patients have a higher risk of cardiovascular disease than men (Gale & Gillespie, 2001).

Other researchers' studies show that biochemical indicators are strongly associated with diabetic complications. Lewis et al. (2005) found that high homocysteine levels were associated with a prevalence of diabetic nephropathy as high as 93.3%, with a 7.15-fold increase in risk. Dehghan's study demonstrated that C-reactive protein (CRP) levels were independently associated with the risk of diabetes, and that genetic variants may increase susceptibility (Dehghan et al., 2007).

Lifestyle factors are also important influences. Carlsson's meta-analysis found that moderate alcohol consumption reduced the risk of type 2 diabetes by 30%, but this effect has been less well studied in

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female populations (Carlsson, Hammar, & Gril, 2005). In addition, studies have shown that high triglyceride levels are an independent risk factor for diabetes mellitus, especially significant in young men (Tirosh et al., 2008).

Dietary composition has a profound effect on diabetes. Studies in India have shown that high sugar intake is strongly associated with increasing trends in obesity and type 2 diabetes, affecting metabolism mainly through insulin resistance and fat accumulation (Gulati & Misra, 2014). Despite medical advances that have reduced some of the risks of diabetic complications, the prevalence of diabetes is still rising globally, and the burden of disease is expected to increase further with an ageing population and increasing obesity rates (Deshpande, Harris-Hayes & Schootman, 2008).

According to over studies, in order to provide a more comprehensive diabetes prevention and control strategy, this study aims to analyze a dataset to investigate the various factors influencing diabetes and the internal relations between these factors with the logistic regression (LR) model and the random forest (RF) model.

2 METHODOLOGY

2.1 Data Source and Description

The dataset used in this study is the Pima Indians Diabetes Database, a widely used dataset for diabetes prediction and related research. The data was originally collected by the National Institute of Diabetes and Digestive and Kidney Diseases (NIDDK) and contains diagnostic information on Pima Indian women aged 21 years and older (Kaggle, n.d.). This dataset consists of 768 observations with 9 variables, including Pregnancies (PREG), Glucose (GLUC), Blood Pressure (BLDP), Skin Thickness (SKIN), Insulin (INSU), Body Mass Index (BMI), Diabetes Pedigree Function (DPF), Age, and Outcome. Among these variables, the Outcome stands for whether the patient is diagnosed with diabetes, and it stays with binary form where 1 indicates a diagnosis of diabetes and 0 indicates no diagnosis.

The dataset has been preprocessed to remove missing values and ensure consistency across all observations. Each variable represents different health-related indicators that are commonly used in diabetes research. The dataset is publicly available and widely used in medical and machine learning studies to explore diabetes risk factors.

2.2 Selection and Explanation of Variables

As shown in Figure 1, this study focuses on these key variables, including age, BMI, BLDP, DPF, GLUC, INSU, PREG, SKIN:

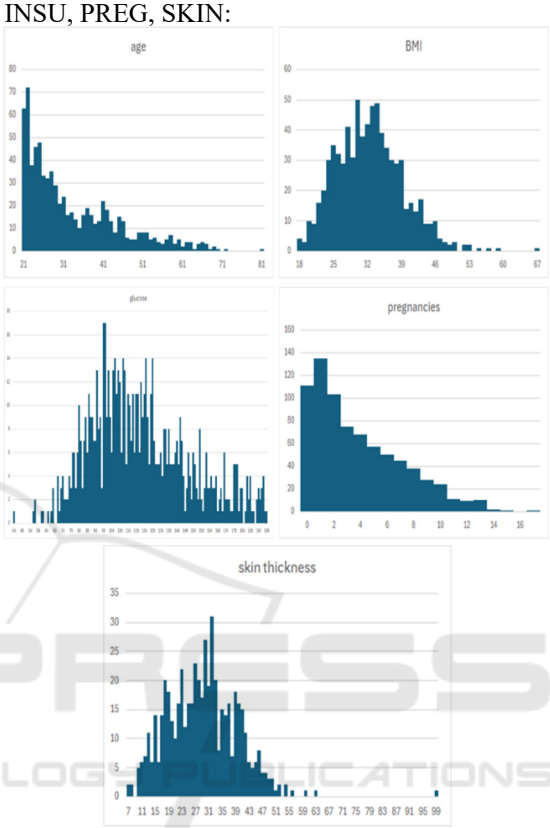

Figure 1: Distribution of Variables (Photo/Picture credit: Original).

2.3 Model Choice

The dataset will be used to fit in a LR model because it is interpretable, has probabilistic outputs, and is consistent with the research goal of understanding diabetes risk factors. Unlike complex machine learning models, LR provides clear and interpretable coefficients that allow researchers and healthcare professionals to understand how each predictor (e.g., blood glucose level, BMI, age, and family history) affects the likelihood of developing diabetes.

Moreover, LR can naturally handle binary classification problems, such as diabetes prediction, where the outcome is either diabetes (1) or non-diabetes (0). LR model is also suitable for fields that need analysis of the importance of features, such as medication. The model estimates the probability of diabetes occurring, making it suitable for risk assessment and threshold-based medical decision-

making. The resulting advantage ratios help quantify the impact of individual predictors, which is useful for both clinical guidelines and public health policy.

RF model will also be employed to complement the findings of the LR model. While LR is well-suited to understanding the linear relationship between risk factors and diabetes, RFs help to address non-linear interactions and complex dependencies between variables, providing a broader perspective on the factors that influence diabetes.

3 DATA ANALYSIS OUTCOME

3.1 LR Model

Table 1 is the LR model output

Table 1: Output of LR Model

	Estimate	Std.Error	z value	Pr(>|z|)
(Intercept)	-8.405	0.717	-11.728	0.000
preg	0.123	0.032	3.840	0.000
gluc	0.035	0.004	9.481	0.000
bldp	-0.013	0.005	-2.540	0.011
skin	0.001	0.007	0.090	0.928
insu	-0.001	0.001	-1.322	0.186
bmi	0.090	0.015	5.945	0.000
dia_p	0.945	0.299	3.160	0.001
age	0.015	0.009	1.593	0.111

The analysis of the dataset through a LR model demonstrates how various variables produce statistically relevant effects on diabetes prediction. The data reveals that both pregnancies and glucose and BMI measurements, together with diabetes prediction, perform as the highest significant positive influential factors in the model. Among them, glucose shows the strongest statistical significance, followed by BMI, while pregnancies and diabetes prediction play supporting roles. The results proved compatible with existing medical knowledge regarding the risk factors of diabetes, which include elevated glucose levels, together with higher BMI and an inherited history of diabetes. This model indicates that blood pressure shows slight statistical significance, yet insulin levels and age, together with skin condition, exhibit no substantial evidence of contributing to diabetes prediction.

The model's overall performance was evaluated using the Akaike Information Criterion (AIC), which yielded a value of 741.45, indicating a reasonable model fit. Meanwhile, the model's predictive accuracy has reached 78.26%, which also indicates the great quality of the model.

In addition, the Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve is also generated with its Area Under Curve (AUC) value to evaluate such a model, and generally, a model with strong discriminatory power will have a curve that rises sharply towards the upper-left corner, indicating high sensitivity and specificity.

In this case, as seen in Figure 2, the ROC curve is well above the diagonal reference line, which represents a model making random guesses indicating that the LR model performs significantly better than random classification. Meanwhile, the value of AUC reaches 0.8394. Both results demonstrate that the LR model is effective in predicting diabetes status.

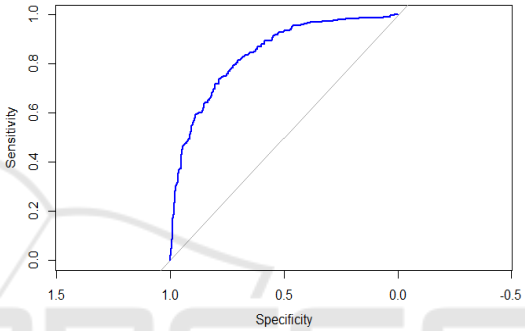

Figure 2: ROC Curve of LR Model (Photo/Picture credit: Original).

3.2 RF Model

The RF model is used on the diabetes dataset for comparison with the previously analyzed LR model. This model implementation utilizes 500 different decision trees that randomly choose 3 variables from the tree variables for each splitting operation. The entire data collection underwent partitioning into testing with 30% and training with 70%. The out-of-bag error rate reached 25.14%, which represents a good classification outcome. The accuracy level in testing reached 74.03%, which proved that the model performed well yet required improvements.

The confusion matrix of the RF is shown in Table 2.

Table 2: Confusion Matrix of RF

		Actual	
		Negative	Positive
Predicted	Negative	126	36
	Positive	24	45

RF feature importance as Table 3.

Table 3: RF Feature Importance

Feature	Mean Decrease Accuracy	Mean Decrease Gini
gluc	42.54	69.6
bmi	22.95	43.46
age	12.57	29.03
dia_p	9.52	29.52
preg	8.21	17.99
bldp	1.77	21.52
skin	3.78	16.1
insu	3.76	15.75

The RF model demonstrates that glucose and BMI, along with age act as the prime predictors of disease status because these variables match medical consensus. The established models underline the value of glucose measurements and Body Mass Index tests for predicting diabetes outcomes, although they exhibit various approaches in managing age detection and pregnancy status.

Both models include skin and insulin as predictors, which do not substantially influence the prediction of diabetes status. The confusion matrix showed the model successfully identified most non-diabetic cases, but demonstrated poor accuracy in detecting diabetes patients by mistakenly identifying some diabetic patients as non-diabetic.

To further evaluate model performance, the ROC curve was plotted, and the AUC reached 0.831 (Figure 3). This suggests that the RF model had strong discriminatory power, indicating considered indicative of good classification performance. The curve demonstrates that the model performs significantly better than random guessing, which means that the model performs effectively.

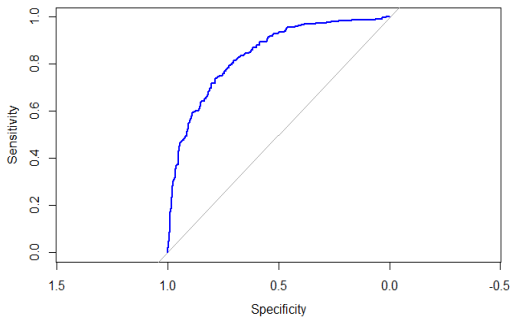

Figure 3: ROC Curve of RF (Photo/Picture credit: Original).

LR is particularly advantageous in binary classification tasks like diabetes prediction due to its probabilistic interpretation and inherent interpretability. By modeling the log-odds of diabetes occurrence, it provides clinicians with a straightforward metric—for instance, a 1.5-fold increase in odds per 10 mg/dL rise in glucose levels (OR=1.5, $p<0.01$)—to quantify risk thresholds for intervention. This aligns with clinical workflows where actionable thresholds (e.g., HbA1c $\geqslant$6.5%) guide diagnoses. Furthermore, its coefficients directly inform evidence-based guidelines; for example, public health campaigns could prioritize BMI reduction if the model identifies it as a high-impact variable (OR=1.3). However, its reliance on linearity assumptions may oversimplify interactions, such as age-dependent glucose metabolism variations, necessitating complementary non-linear models.

The RF model complements LR by capturing non-linear relationships and higher-order interactions obscured in parametric frameworks. For example, it might reveal that the combined effect of elevated BMI and age over 50 amplifies diabetes risk disproportionately—a pattern LR could miss. Its ensemble structure, leveraging bootstrap aggregation and feature randomness, also mitigates overfitting, enhancing robustness in noisy clinical data. By ranking variables via mean decrease in Gini impurity, it identifies context-dependent predictors, such as pregnancy-triggered insulin resistance in specific BMI subgroups. While less interpretable than LR, its ability to model complex dependencies (e.g., time-varying glucose-insulin dynamics) offers nuanced insights for personalized prevention strategies, bridging gaps in traditional statistical approaches.

4 DISCUSSION

The results of this study provide valuable insights into the predictive factors associated with diabetes and the comparative performance of LR and RF models in clinical risk assessment. Both models demonstrated strong predictive capabilities, with LR achieving an accuracy of 78.25%, slightly outperforming the RF model (74.03%). This marginal difference may stem from their distinct methodological frameworks: LR, as a parametric model, excels in capturing linear relationships between variables, while RF, a non-parametric ensemble method, prioritizes complex interactions and non-linear patterns. Despite this divergence, both models consistently identified glucose level and BMI as the most critical predictors of diabetes.

This aligns with established clinical knowledge, as elevated glucose levels directly reflect impaired insulin function, while higher BMI values correlate with visceral adiposity and metabolic dysfunction, both hallmarks of diabetes pathophysiology. Divergent interpretations emerged for age and

pregnancy history. LR assigned these variables moderate importance (e.g., age odds ratio: 1.15, p=0.02), suggesting cumulative metabolic wear or hormonal shifts over time. In contrast, RF downplayed their significance, possibly because interactions between age and other variables (e.g., age-specific glucose thresholds) were overshadowed by stronger predictors like BMI. This discrepancy underscores the importance of model selection: LR's interpretability aids hypothesis testing (e.g., age as an independent risk factor), while RF's flexibility may better reflect multifactorial risk profiles in heterogeneous populations. Both models agreed on the limited predictive value of skinfold thickness and insulin levels. Skinfold thickness, a proxy for subcutaneous fat, may lack specificity compared to BMI, which encompasses visceral fat, a more direct contributor to insulin resistance. Similarly, insulin levels alone might fail to capture dynamic feedback mechanisms (e.g., pancreatic β-cell compensation) critical in early diabetes stages. These findings suggest that simplified biomarkers (glucose, BMI) hold greater utility in screening protocols compared to niche measurements. The complementary strengths of LR and RF advocate for their combined use in clinical practice. For instance, LR could prioritize high-risk patients based on glucose/BMI thresholds, while RF might refine predictions by incorporating subtle interaction effects (e.g., age-adjusted BMI thresholds). Such integration could enhance personalized prevention strategies, enabling early interventions like lifestyle modifications or targeted glucose monitoring. Future studies should validate these models across diverse populations and explore hybrid algorithms to balance interpretability and predictive power (Zimmet et al., 2014).

5 CONCLUSION

The findings of this study, while insightful, are inherently constrained by the demographic homogeneity of the dataset. All observations were derived exclusively from female Pima Indians aged 21 and older, a population with a well-documented genetic predisposition to metabolic disorders. While this homogeneity reduces confounding variables, it severely limits the generalizability of the models. For instance, biological differences across gender and racial/ethnic variations in diabetes risk factors may render the current models inapplicable to broader populations. Future research must prioritize ethnically diverse cohorts—including Asian, African, and European ancestries—and balanced gender representation to validate and refine these predictive frameworks. Methodologically, advancements could be achieved through feature engineering, ensemble techniques, or deep learning architectures. Additionally, addressing the dataset's class imbalance—a common issue in medical datasets where non-diabetic cases dominate—using techniques like SMOTE or cost-sensitive learning could reduce prediction bias. Integrating real-world clinical variables, such as dietary habits, physical activity metrics, and polygenic risk scores, would further bridge the gap between algorithmic predictions and clinical utility. For example, wearable device data could dynamically update risk assessments based on lifestyle changes. Finally, ethical considerations around data privacy and model transparency must accompany technical improvements. By adopting these strategies, future studies can develop robust, equitable tools for diabetes prevention, ultimately supporting personalized healthcare interventions across diverse global populations.

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