

19

Impact of IoT in Biomedical Applications Using Machine and Deep Learning

Rehab A. Rayan¹, Imran Zafar², Husam Rajab³, Muhammad A. M. Zubair⁴, Mudasir Maqbool⁵, and Samrina Hussain⁶

¹Department of Epidemiology, High Institute of Public Health, Alexandria University, Alexandria, Egypt

²Department of Bioinformatics, Virtual University of Pakistan, Lahore, Punjab, Pakistan

³Department of Telecommunications and Media Informatics, Faculty of Electrical Engineering and Informatics, Budapest University of Technology and Economics, Hungary

⁴The Islamia University of Bahawalpur, Pakistan

⁵Department of Pharmaceutical Sciences, University of Kashmir, Hazratbal, Srinagar, India

⁶Department of Biotechnology, Lahore College for Women University, Pakistan

19.1 Introduction

As we move into the 2020s, more devices than ever are connected to the internet, and this will continue. Accordingly, more than 21 billion devices will be connected to the internet around the world by 2020, which is five times as many as there were four years ago [1]. The internet of things (IoT) is, at its most basic, a network that connects items that can be used to identify them to the internet. This lets them send, store, and collect information. IoT can be defined in terms of healthcare as any device that can collect health data from people. This includes mobile phones, computers, wearables and smart bands, surgical devices, digital medications that are implanted in the body, and other portable devices that can measure health data and connect to the internet [2].

As IoT technology has grown, it has garnered attention in a number of health practices that aim to improve the health of the population as a whole [3]. In recent reviews, the many services, and uses of IoT in healthcare have been discussed viz mobile health (mHealth), eHealth, semantic devices, ambient assisted living, smartphones and wearable devices, and community-based healthcare [2, 4]. These solutions have been described in great detail and can be used for a wide range of single-condition and cluster-condition management purposes, such as letting health-care professionals monitor and track patient's condition from a distance, making it easier for people with chronic conditions to take care of themselves, helping to spot problems early, identifying symptoms and clinical diagnoses faster, and so on. These apps can help make better use of healthcare resources while still giving high-quality and low-cost care [5, 6].

IoT is a complicated network of “things” that each has a unique identifier and connects to a server that provides the right services. They can talk to each other and people in the real world by sharing relevant information from the real and virtual worlds. These things can react on their own to things that happen around them. Some of these processes can be started by people or by machines talking to each other. They can also provide services. IoT opportunities will soon change the way healthcare is done. This technology will be a big part of tele-monitoring patients in hospitals and, even more important, at home [6–8]. By capturing illnesses and hazardous situations early and helping people avoid them, remote patient monitoring is a wonderful way to improve the quality of healthcare and lower costs at the same time [9, 10].

Machine Learning Algorithms for Signal and Image Processing, First Edition.

Edited by Deepika Ghai, Suman Lata Tripathi, Sobhit Saxena, Manash Chanda, and Mamoun Alazab.

© 2023 by The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers, Inc. Published 2023 by John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

2 | 19 Impact of IoT in Biomedical Applications Using Machine and Deep Learning

19.1.1 Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning

Artificial intelligence (AI) is a field that includes machine learning (ML). The main goal of ML is to learn from past situations and patterns. Instead of just making code, big data is fed into a generic algorithm, and analysis is done using the available data. IoT and ML systems can quickly train a system to spot medical abnormalities by using simple data and big data. The accuracy of predictions is related to how much big data has been taught [11–13]. As a result, big data improves the predictive accuracy of ML algorithms used in healthcare prediction platforms. Professionals now have access to a vast array of biological data, including diagnostic metrics and assessments, socio-demographic factors, and diagnostic imaging technologies, because of advances in technology and research. Biomedical data is unbalanced and nonstationary, with a prominent level of complexity, due to the abundance of data and the veracity of certain circumstances [14]. In this situation, ML is still especially important to: (i) To help doctors, naturalists, and health experts use and process substantial amounts of medical information much better; (ii) To reduce the chances of medical mistakes; and (iii) make sure that predictive and therapeutic rules and procedures work well together. Deep learning (DL) and artificial neural networks (ANNs) are the two data-mining algorithms that are most often used for image processing and finding flaws. DL algorithms are used at all levels of medicine in biomedical fields, from genomics tasks like figuring out how genes are expressed to global health-management tasks like predicting population growth or the spread of a virus [15]. In recent years, ML systems have been used in healthcare increasingly. ML techniques are used by several clinical decision support systems to create enhanced learning models that can be used to improve health-care service applications [13, 16–18]. ANNs and support vector machines (SVMs) are two applications of ML in health. Such models are used to accurately diagnose the type of cancer in a number of cancer classification applications. These algorithms work by analyzing data from sensors and other sources to find a patient's clinical problems and patterns of behavior [19]. Like noticing changes in a patient's behavior, in their daily routine, in how they sleep, eat, drink, and digest, and in how they move around. Then, health-care apps and clinical decision-support systems can use these algorithms to suggest changes to a patient's lifestyle and routines, as well as to prescribe various kinds of specialized therapies and health-care programmers. This lets doctors make a caring plan to support patients make the necessary changes to their lives [13, 16, 17, 20, 21]. ML is used to make patient load prediction techniques, which makes it easy for hospitals to share information about how many patients they have. In a hospital, past data is used to predict how many patients will come so that the right plans can be made. IoT devices with built-in ML techniques are used to make a classifier that spots certain health incidents, like falls, in older people. The clustering algorithms could find forms of patient's unruly behavior and let health-care workers know about them. In the same way, IoT microchips are used to keep track of what a patient does every day through daily habit modeling. The information is used to find things that are different about older people. Many countries have created new skills and laws to make the most of the IoT in biomedical systems. Because of this, modern biomedical research is now more interesting to investigate. This study aims to give a full review of innovative studies in biomedical systems based on the IoT and a summary of how advanced studies in biomedical systems based on the IoT have grown over time [22].

This chapter introduces the basic concepts of IoT, ML, and DL. Then it discusses the history of DL and ML in Section 19.2. Next, it reviews ML and DL algorithms and classifications, emphasizing DL architectures in Section 19.3. Further, it presents applied ML and DL techniques in the biomedical field in Section 19.4. Moreover, it highlights some IoT-based ML and DL case studies in biomedical systems in Section 19.5. Finally, it concludes with opportunities and challenges along with future insights in Section 19.6.

19.2 History of DL and ML

ANN was inspired by biological systems in the 1960s when it was discovered that different cells in the visual cortex were active when cats looked at different objects. These tests showed that the eyes and cells in the visual cortex

were connected and that the visual cortex processed data in layers. ANNs could copy the way we see things by connecting artificial neurons in layers that could help us find out what they are.

After the 1960s, ANN development stopped because it could not do enough because its structures were too shallow, and computers could not do enough computing. Thanks to improvements in computing and technology, effective back propagation (BP) of RNA made it possible for pattern recognition studies [23]. First, the categorizations were done with an ANN model in a neural net with BP. Then, the parameters were changed by comparing the predicted class labels to the real ones. Even though it helped to reduce mistakes by using gradient descent, BP seemed to only work for some types of ANN. BP, adaptive learning rate, momentum, quasi-Newton methods, least-square techniques, and conjugated gradients (CGs) methods were all suggested as ways to improve steeper gradients through learning. Because ANN is so complicated, other fundamental ML approaches, like SVM support machines, random forests, and k -nearest neighbor (k -NN) algorithms, have quickly caught up with it [24].

When an ANN has more hidden layers, it is much easier to figure out what its functions are. When RNA has deep and complicated roles, it often sticks to what is best locally or moves through a gradient of spread. When a gradient is passed backward through the layers, the slope quickly loses its steepness. This means that the weights of the layers closest to the entry do not change much. After that, a deep automatic encoder (AE) network for advanced stock levels was suggested, bringing ANN into a new age. The layers of this network are trained by reducing the difference between the original data and the data that has been recovered. Layered pre-training gets around the gradient diffusion barrier and helps deep neural networks (DNNs) choose better weights. This keeps reconstructed data from reaching a local optimum, which is often caused by choosing random weights at the start [25]. Graphics processing units (GPUs) have given academics a new reason to be interested in DL. Deep understanding has become more popular in recent years because people are paying more attention and putting in more effort. It is used a lot in business right now. Deep belief networks (DBNs) and limited Boltzmann machine stacks (RBM) have been used to recognize audio and video and to process natural language. Convolutional neural networks (CNNs) have been used a lot in image recognition, image segmentation, video recognition, and natural language processing since they were first made to better mimic how animals see the world. In recurrent neural networks (RNNs), which are a type of ANN, artificial neural cells are linked to time steps and show dynamic activity. RNN has been used to handle sequential data in natural-language processing and document identification. In recent years, sparse EAs, stacked EAs (SAEs), and denoising EAs have become more popular as part of in-depth online training [26].

19.3 Methods of ML and DL Algorithms and Classification

ML can frequently better explain data than model systems, giving technological answers as well as a helpful benchmark. It may also be utilized to assist people in their learning. A DNN is an ANN having multiple layers between the input and output layers (DNN). Neurons, synapses, weights, biases, and functions are all core elements of ML, which exist in various forms and dimensions [27].

ML allows a machine to autonomously analyze and understand a set of inputs as an experience without the need for external help [13, 28]. The training and testing phases are crucial in the development of an effective ML model. The training phase (which requires a lot of studies) entails giving the system labeled or unlabeled inputs. The algorithm afterward keeps the training feeds in the feature space for future predictions to regard. Ultimately, the system is inputted an unlabeled input and should expect the proper result in the testing phase. Simply defined, ML predicts outcomes for unlabeled input by using known data in its feature space. As a result, a good ML model can predict outputs by referring to prior encounters. The precision of this model is determined by the correctness of the output and the training.

Advanced biological and medical technologies have provided us with explosive volumes of physical and physiological data, medical imagery, functional magnetic resonance imaging, genomic, and protein complexes are just a few examples of the ability to understand public health and illness is made more accessible by using this data [29].

4 | 19 Impact of IoT in Biomedical Applications Using Machine and Deep Learning

CNNs-based DL approaches offer a lot of potential for extracting functions and predicting outcomes from massive datasets. In biomedicine, ML and DL techniques enhance clinical care by utilizing the enormous volume of medical information given by IoT technology [30]. Although these techniques have a lot of promise, they also have several shortcomings. ML is measured in three realms: image acquisition, computational linguistics of hospital data, and genetic data. These areas are concerned with diagnosing, discovering, and predicting outcomes [31]. A massive infrastructure for medical devices provides data because there is rarely any standard framework to use such health information efficiently. Health records are available in multiple forms, which could also store future formatting more challenging and raise distortion [32]. We study the history of ML and DL and the fundamentals of techniques and technology in biomedical applications.

ML algorithms use patterns and experiences to improve the efficiency of activity. ML could be divided into three types: supervised learning, unsupervised learning, and improved learning. Unsupervised learning, for example, focuses on finding similarities in datasets while pooling samples [33]. Supervised learning is concerned with identifying the best or most appropriate behavior to execute in a situation to maximize a reward, via putting it differently. Semi-supervised learning is a technique of learning that falls in between supervised and unsupervised. Here, the algorithm can operate with both labeled and unlabeled data. When the data given is scarce and learning interpretations are necessary, this collection of methods is extraordinarily successful [34].

DL is a field of ML that is still relatively young and quickly expanding. It represents large-scale data abstraction with deep multilayer neural networks (DNNs), which generate a sense of the data as pictures, audio, and text. DL includes two attributes: multiple layers of irregular processing elements, each with a supervised or unsupervised learning function. In the 1980s, ANNs were employed to establish the groundwork for DL, but it was not until 2006 that the true impact of DL was realized. DL has since been used in various fields, including automatic voice recognition, picture recognition, natural language processing, drug development, and bioinformatics [35].

19.3.1 Deep Learning Architectures

19.3.1.1 Auto Encoders

Auto encoders (AEs) take features from unlabeled data and set target values identical to the inputs, unlike regular ANNs. Given the input vector $\{X^1, X^2, X^3 \dots X^n\}$, $X^{(i)} \in R^n$, the AE tries to learn the model and is given by Eq. (19.1):

$$h_{w,b}(x) = g(Wx + b) \approx x \quad (19.1)$$

where W and b are the model's parameters, g is the activation function (exact definition as in the following context), and $h_{w,b}$ is the hidden units. The AE achieves a reduction of data dimensionality comparable to principal component analysis when the number of hidden units, which reflects the dimension of features, is lower than the input dimension. An AE with a classifier in the last layer may also do classification tasks and pattern recognition [36].

19.3.1.2 Deep Multilayer Perceptron

The well-known Rumelhart neural network, invented in 1986 and taught using the training algorithm approach, was the forerunner to DL details mentioned in Figure 19.1. Simultaneously, the most concealed levels were at least two or three, each containing only a few units [37]. Due to the advancement of various methods for training big architectures, including GPU technologies, the NN scale can currently reach multiple concealed layers with a little over 650 000 neurons and 630 million learned elements (e.g. AlexNet).

19.3.1.3 Deep Auto-encoders

A one hidden layer MLP is a particular instance of an auto-encoder. The goal of an AE is to reproduce the input vector $x^{\wedge} = F(x)$, where x and x^{\wedge} are the input and output vectors, respectively. In an AE, the input/output layers have the same number of units as the hidden layer, but the hidden layer has fewer units. By stacking many AEs, deep AEs may be created. DAEs are utilized in DL for feature extraction/reduction and pre-training elements for compound networks [38].

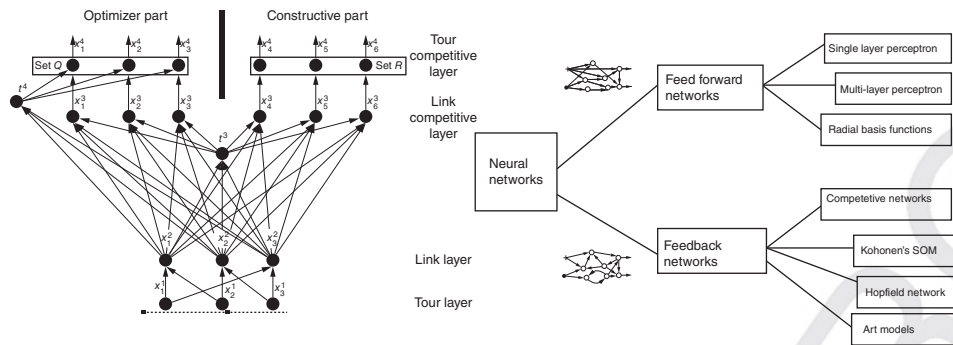


Figure 19.1 Most common neural network structures applied in biomedical: (optimized and forward) feedforward neural networks with various depths (one concealed layer, two concealed layers, and a deep structure with several concealed layers); $(X_1, X_2, \text{ and } X_n)$ an auto-encoder and a deep auto-encoder, respectively; referrals to a confined Boltzmann machine and a deep belief network, respectively; and an AlexNet, respectively.

19.3.1.4 Restricted Boltzmann Machine and Deep Belief Networks

A bounded Boltzmann machine is a dynamic probabilistic system that consists of a visible layer and a hidden layer with no linkages (RBM). In other words, the observational and functional applicators are represented by the visible and hidden layers, respectively. While the final model is a lower generic than a Boltzmann machine, it may teach you how to extract critical functions [39]. In RBM, an energy-derived model, the energy throughout the combined arrangement of transparent and concealed storage units is expressed as a Kohonen dynamical system. This energy role allocates a probability to every pair of seen and concealed vectors in the modeled network. RBM typically replicated the probability of input data or the combination of data input and target classes as a combined distribution. In DL, RBM, like EA, may perform the characteristics of a complex network. A deep belief network is a stack of RBMs, with the concealed conditions of every RBM serving as training data for a second RBM. Consequently, each RBM recognizes pattern expressions at the lowest level and learns to code patterns independent monitoring [40].

19.3.1.5 Convolutional Neural Networks

CNNs portray multidimensional networks that include input data, such as two-dimensional pictures with three datasets. They are motivated via the visual cortex's neurobiological model in which cells are liable to limited visual field areas. The multilayer perceptron and the clustering layer are the three types of layers in CNN design, as mentioned in Figure 19.2. Several neural maps, also known as function maps or filters, make up a precipitation layer. In contrast to a highly centralized repository, every neuron in a function map is just linked to a small patch

Figure 19.2 The multilayer perceptron and the clustering layer of the CNN design.

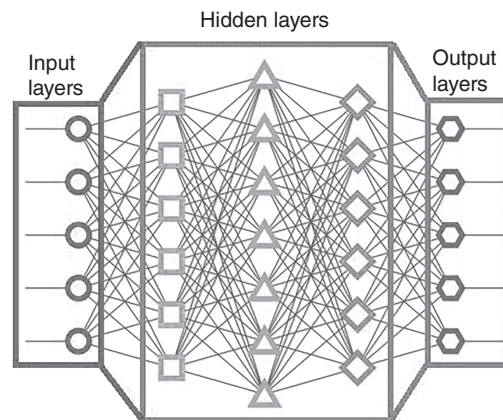


Table 19.1 Review of the examined ML and DL algorithms.

Algorithm	Scope	Learning type	Uses	Applied technique	Pros	Cons
Support vector machine (SVM) [47]	ML	Supervised	Binary classification, nonlinear classification	Decision boundary, soft margin, kernel trick	SVM is very successful in three-dimensional spaces. The fundamental strength of SVM rests in its application of the kernel's strategy.	Selecting the appropriate hyperplane and kernels approach is difficult.
Random forest [48]	ML	Supervised	Classification, regression	Bagging	In the context of random forest, the correlation coefficients among decision trees (DTs) are weaker.	Random forest performs badly when dealing with high-dimensional, data sparsity.
Naïve Bayes (NB) [17]	ML	Supervised	Probabilistic classification	Continuous variables (maximum likelihood)	Data scanning in which each attribute is checked individually. Acquiring simple data from each characteristic helps to improve the accuracy of the premises.	A modest quantity of instructional analysis is required. This function simply computes the parameters' eccentricities for each categorization.
Gradient boosted decision trees [49]	ML	Supervised	Classification, regression	Strong pre pruning	GBDT is used to investigate and progressively improve forecasting accuracy.	In GBDT training takes an extended period and requires constant varied modification. It struggles with sparse, high-dimensional data.
Decision trees (DTs) [50]	ML	Supervised	Prediction, classification	Continuous target variable (reduction in variance) Categorical target variable (Gini impurity)	The design is straightforward. It is applicable toward both discrete and continuous characteristics. Synthesis of content is low to non-existent.	The skewed dataset and interference influence the testing dataset, making it more expensive and using more RAM.
K-nearest neighbor (K-NN) [51]	ML	Supervised	Classification, regression	Continuous variables (Euclidean distance) Categorical variables (Hamming distance)	K-NN decided to use a stochastic technique. Simple to understand. It is simple to implement. There is no need for formal education. Changes may be easily implemented by integrating them into the current collection of labeled data.	K-NN takes an exceptionally long time to compute the comparison across databases. The main disadvantage is that the numbers are skewed. Productivity is affected by the classifier chosen (K value). We must use homogenous features since knowledge may be forgotten.

<p>Convolutional neural network (CNN) [52]</p>	<p>DL</p>	<p>Spatial features</p>	<p>Facial recognition systems Analyzing and parsing through documents Smart cities (traffic cameras, for example) Recommendation systems, among other use cases</p>	<p>Convolution operation</p>	<p>CNN is unable to handle regionally fluctuating Gaussian noise, which is common in fuzzy pictures.</p>
<p>Recurrent neural networks (RNNs) [53]</p>	<p>DL</p>	<p>RNN is created by implementing a repeating constraint on an ANN's hidden layers. Extension of recurrent neural networks (RNNs)</p>	<p>Time Series data Text data Audio data</p>	<p>Vanishing gradient</p>	<p>All forms of neural network models are affected by the disappearing and expanding potential problems.</p>
<p>Long short-term memory (LSTMs) Networks [54].</p>	<p>DL</p>	<p>In sequential logistic regression, acquiring configuration dependence is crucial.</p>	<p>Common applications are cursive recognition and production, knowledge representation and interpretation, speech acoustic modeling, voice recognition, protein conformational predictions, and interactive multimedia information processing.</p>	<p>Long-term contextual connections may be represented without having to cope with the minimization concerns that beset the main, resulting in a greater performance</p>	<p>Require many resources and time to be trained and become ready for real-world applications. They respond identically to a feed-forward neural system as a measure of the initialization of several unrelated weights.</p>
<p>Acquire the parameters dynamically without saying anything explicitly. These conduct a search and users retrieve useful information from data streams.</p>	<p>DL</p>	<p>It captures the chronological data provided in the inputs, such as the dependency of terms in this case, while making assumptions. Distribute the parameters over a number of time steps. This reduces the number of features to train as well as the computational complexity.</p>	<p>Provide a diverse model parameter, such as data for training as well as input and output preconceptions.</p>	<p>backpropagation through time (BPTT) and LSTMs lower the difficulty of maintaining individual weighting to $O(1)$.</p>	<p>Acquire the parameters dynamically without saying anything explicitly. These conduct a search and users retrieve useful information from data streams.</p>

(continued)

Table 19.1 (Continued)

Algorithm	Scope	Learning type	Uses	Applied technique	Pros	Cons
Stacked auto-encoders [55].	DL	Unsupervised pre-training. Supervised fine-tuning	A study on P300 Segment Identification and Tracking of 3D Spine Modelling in Adolescent Idiopathic Scoliosis was published.	Random over-sampling	Reducing the dimensionality of the data we are using, as well as the learning time for your cases. The compactness and speed in coding using backpropagation.	Processing time, hyperparameter tuning, and model validation before you even start building the real model. Prone to overfitting, though this can be mitigated via regularization.
Deep Boltzmann machine (DBM) [56]	DL	Markov random field with multiple layers of hidden random variables	Application in linguistics, robotics, computer vision, and artificial intelligence.	Backpropagation method	An appropriate selection of interactions between visible and hidden units can lead to more tractable versions of the model. Can capture many layers of complex representations of input data, and they are appropriate for unsupervised learning since they can be trained on unlabeled data.	The high computational cost of inference, which is almost prohibitive when it comes to joint optimization in sizable datasets.
Deep belief networks (DBN) [57]	DL	Unsupervised, probabilistic generative model	Aircraft engine fault diagnosis	Used in a feed-forward neural network and fine-tuned to optimize discrimination	Show a higher classification capability to multiple features of input patterns hierarchically. With the pre-trained RBM. Training time is short on GPU-powered machines. Exactly accurate compared to a shallow net.	The approximate inference procedure is limited to a single bottom-up pass. Ignoring top down influences on the inference process are that the mode can fail to account for uncertainty when interpreting ambiguous sensory inputs.

of neurons in the preceding layer, named receptive field. Following that, various precipitation filters are used to corrupt the input data, progressively changing the convolution layers [41].

The precipitation filters employ the same settings in each tiny region of the picture, reducing hyperparameters in the model. A clustering layer leverages the image's stationing feature to decrease variance and capture essential functions by taking the average, max, or other parameters for the functionalities at many sites on the function maps. A CNN is made up of numerous unions and grouped layers that allow for the learning of increasingly abstract data. In the final layers of a CNN, a totally linked classification is utilized to categories the information retrieved by earlier aggregated and precipitated levels [42]. The most often used CNNs in ML applications are AlexNet, Clarifai, VGG, and GoogleNet.

19.3.2 Findings of Applied ML and DL Techniques

ML is a connected field of AI. ML is a system based on AI algorithms that analyzes and interprets a collection of inputs to determine knowledge without the need for human participation [28]. Classifiers and training models are two essential components to develop an effective training model for learning approaches. During the training phase, the machine may receive scored or unacknowledged inputs. After that, in the function area, the system creates such instruction signals to represent forecasts. The logistics network appears to have used an unidentifiable input during the validation method to predict the correct results. The employment of diverse ML techniques in transportation, for instance, proposes to suffice the challenges of rising travel requirements, safety concerns, energy consumption, radiations, and environmental degradation [43]. As a result, an effective learning algorithm may anticipate outcomes by highlighting its prior beliefs and viewpoints. A model's efficiency is determined by its output reliability and model design. Researchers have previously built and deployed several well-known ML algorithms for categorization.

The modern development in AI and large medical datasets has driven significant interest in developing DL algorithms that would more quickly and accurately distinguish diagnostic tests than subjective evaluation and other traditional methods. DL is a subgroup of ML, which performs excellent power and versatility by representing the world as a nested scale of notions [44–46]. We examined ML and DL algorithms and summarized them in Table 19.1 presenting the advantages and disadvantages along with techniques applied and deployment.

19.4 ML and DL Applications in Biomedicine

The field of medication gets advantages due to the structure of IoT that helps in the coordination of IoT technology and cloud computing. The situation additionally spreads out conventions for spread of the patient's information from various sensors and clinical tools to a specified medical care organization. The geography of IoT is a plan of various segments of an IoT medical care framework/network that are soundly associated with the medical care climate [58]. An IoT system consists of three main components such as the publisher, broker, and subscriber.

An organization of associated sensors and other clinical gadgets that might work separately or in a group to record a patient's fundamental data. The data might be temperature, a saturation of oxygen blood pressure, heart rate, EMG, electrocardiograph (ECG), electroencephalogram (EEG), etc. [2]. These pieces of information can be sent consistently through an organization to a specialist. The broker is liable for the preparation and storage of obtained information in the cloud. In the end, the patient's data can be observed and taken through a phone, PC, tablet, etc. the distributor can deal with this information and give criticism after getting the perception of any humiliation or physiological peculiarity in the patient's ailment. The IoT adopts distinct parts into an amalgam grid, where a reason for the existence of every segment on the IoT organization and cloud in the medical services organization is committed [59].

Table 19.2 Review of the examined ML and DL applications.

Application	Description	Algorithm	Solved problems	Obstacles	Future insights
ECG monitoring [62]	ECG stands for electrocardiogram, and it is the movement of heart due to the depolarization and repolarization of atria and ventricles.	Deep learning based on bio potential chip to assemble virtuous eminence ECG data	Used for the initial detection of heart aberrations with the help of ECG monitoring.	There is a problem of power consumption linked with an ECG monitoring system that is wearable.	The ECG and accelerometer data of elderly patients will be real-time monitored using this system.
Diagnosis of disease [63]	The interventions that need to be attempted are determined by this. It is applied to determine the hazard elements related to the condition, also the signs and symptoms, to enhance accuracy and detection proficiency	Convolutional neural networks, and back propagation networks	Diseases are diagnosed using this that includes deep-learning systems and support vector machines. Diagnosis of wrong patients can become the cause of incongruous mediations and adversarial consequences.	The sound legislation that defines the use of ML in healthcare. Obtaining well-annotated data for supervised learning is challenging	To support the correct and timely diagnosis of diseases, the ML will be assimilated into medical records
Medical imaging [64]	ML has several applications in the field of medical imaging. Medical imaging is the process and method for the diagnosis and treatment by creating images of body parts. The health professional then manually examines these images to detect the abnormalities.	ANNs (artificial neural networks) and CNNs (convolutional neural networks).	In manual imaging, the use of ML resolves the issues of efficiency and accuracy.	Time-consuming and prone to errors. Also, the outputs of deep learning techniques are difficult to explain logically. Great dependency on the volume of training sets and the quality.	To improve patient-centeredness by improving the quality of training datasets.
Behavioral modification or treatment [65]	Encompasses helping a patient change undesirable behavior. The amalgamation of ML into behavioral alteration programs can be helpful for the determination of what works.	Several reasoning and machine learning techniques, containing natural language administering	The incompetence for the evidence that to be synthesized and delivered on behavioral changes involvements and perspective to recover the expediency of evidence.	The deficiency of a change in behavior intrusion awareness system consists of ontology, process and assets for marking reports, a computerized annotator, machine learning and intellectual algorithms and user interface.	The consumption of substantiation from ML programs for the guidance of change in behavior mediations.
Clinical trial studies [5]	There is an urge to advance ML algorithms accomplished for ceaseless gaining from medical information	Methods of DL	The trouble of drawing bits of knowledge from huge measures of clinical information utilizing human abilities.	The issue of using reflective learning models to composite clinical datasets. Preparing datasets that are well categorized marks are required.	The proceeded assortment of preparing datasets for advanced relevance of deep learning in clinical exploration preliminaries.

Smart electronic health records [66]	The consideration of ML in digital wellbeing records makes shrewd frameworks with the ability to achieve a finding of diseases, movement expectation, and hazard assessment.	DL, usual language dispensation, and administered ML	The electronic well-being records stock clinical information yet does not help dynamic.	Planning information before they are taken care of into a machine learning algorithm remnant, a thought-provoking job. Furthermore, it is troublesome to consolidate patient-explicit elements in ML models.	Far-reaching selection of shrewd electronic wellbeing records, so it can help the administration.
Epidemic outbreak prediction [67]	Scrutiny of disease can be beneficial from ML as it considers the forecast of epidemics, henceforth, empowering the execution of proper protections.	DNN (deep neural network), LSTM (long short-term memory) learning, and ARIMA (autoregressive integrated moving average)	The trouble of getting ready for and managing irresistible ailments because of the deficiency of information.	Low precision of prescient models. The trial indicating constraints to exploit with ML models	To predict a variety of transferable diseases, the usage of prognostic models
Diagnostic and prognostic models for COVID-19 [68]	This study scrutinized the forecast simulations for COVID-19 and concluded that they are not well-designed.	DL models	There is a need to review forecast simulations	The established simulations are challenging.	Assemble quality and high-volume datasets to train COVID-19 prediction models.
Personalized care [69]	ML algorithms run an opportunity for contribution of person-centered care.	Deep neural networks (DNN), deep learning (DL)	The incapability to offer adapted care despite the mounting amassing of data.	It is essential for the sustained accumulation of elevated-quality training datasets.	Making frameworks that could be coordinated into digital wellbeing records to advance customized medication.

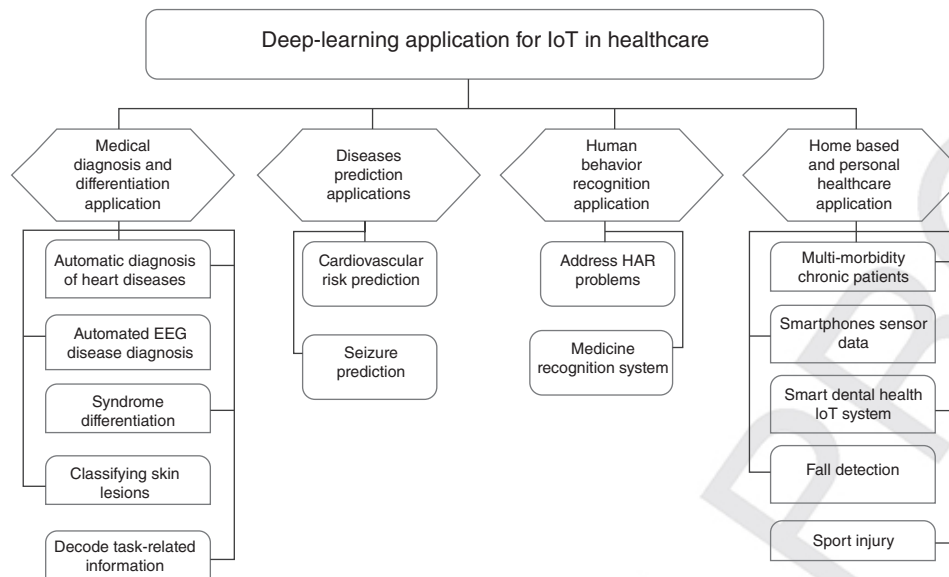


Figure 19.3 Categorization of DL applications for IoT in the medical industry.

Since the connection of the devices for IoT relies upon the interest and application of the medical services, it is difficult to recommend a comprehensive design for IoT. Various underlying changes have been embraced in the past for an IoT framework [60]. It is pivotal to drill down completely related exercises identified with the ideal wellbeing application while planning another IoT-based medical services' framework for continuous patient observing. The accomplishment of the IoT framework relies upon how it is fulfilling the prerequisites of medical care suppliers. Every disease needs devastating methods of medical services exercises; the topology should keep the clinical guidelines and steps in the diagnosis system [61]. Distinguishing the right issue to be addressed utilizing ML is the initial phase in building an ML product. Even though a model can be made to deliver understanding, it can affect patient contemplation. Useful applications are listed below (Table 19.2).

Figure 19.3 shows a thorough categorization of DL applications for IoT in the medical industry, which includes applications for medical forecasting, disparity, personal health-care programs, disease prediction technologies, and disease human behavior tracking apps [70]. We looked at publications that dealt with DL applications in the medical field in complicated subjects such as smartphone anomaly detection, chronic multi-morbidity, learning the patient's biological signal, perceptive dental health IoT systems, case identification models, injuries in sports, and nutritional monitoring systems in the health and lifestyle and home automation systems section [71].

19.5 Discussions of IoT-Based ML and DL Case Studies in Biomedical Systems

The internet of health things (IoHT) concept was investigated. By collecting and combining data on critical signs required in hospitals, the exchange of objects leads to regulating patients' physical conditions. IoT includes four steps: collection, storage, processing, and presentation. IoT has two advantages: it can eliminate service interruptions and efficiently distribute limited resources [72]. The number and intricacy of the data collected in this study are the study's principal flaws, making it a challenging chore for caretakers.

Tuli et al. anticipated HealthFog, a DL and IoT-based solution for automatic heart disease diagnosis. HealthFog delivers a light mist and effective administration of data from numerous IoT devices relevant to heart disease patients. The benefits of a new pattern for fog and edge equipment include energy-saving options and low-latency data processing systems [73]. In terms of fog's flaws in medical applications, it is crucial to understand the response and latency and how difficult it is to make the best use of the Quality of Service (QoS) characteristics in real-time fog.

Sarraf and Tofighi clarified that DL technologies have enabled neoteric technological improvements in the EEC's automated disease detection and diagnosis systems. The excellent efficiency of EEC deciphering due to the autonomous extraction feature is one of the study's positive findings. In addition, assessing your CEE can reveal unique health concerns [74]. Moreover, finding EEC pathology datasets will be difficult because although some are available online, most are small and inadequate for DL models.

Cerebral vascular accident (CVA), also known as cerebrovascular accident, is a condition in which specific brain areas cease to function due to ischemia or blood clots. This issue can be resolved with prompt diagnosis. To diagnose a stroke, CT scans and MRIs are often employed [75]. IoT frameworks can also be used to identify strokes based on CT images distributed by CNNs to determine whether the brain is robust, the stroke is ischemic, or a hemorrhage causes the stroke. The advantages of implementing IoT in healthcare include regions that are less reliant on humans, resulting in fewer human errors. The proposed architecture cannot be used in other medical imaging. Hence, this study's limitation is that it must expand.

Faust et al. established using pulse signals, the researcher created a DL model centered on long short-term memory (LSTM) to detect atrial fibrillation (AF) episodes. With tagged heart rate signal data from Physio Net's Atrial Fibrillation Database, evaluated the DL LSTM-based system in 20 individuals. The enactment of ML methods is more limited than that of the DL model. Additionally, it can extrapolate the knowledge derived from a restricted data set to a more extensive collection. The problem with this study is that it ignores the crucial concept of education [76].

Differentiation of the thymus is a fundamental aspect of Chinese medicine, used to treat infectious fevers. In old classical Chinese medicine, it is difficult to distinguish between infectious febrile disorders and their complications. Through convergence, DL is a promising approach for determining computer-assisted conditions from contagious fever. The proposal is for a stacked automatic encoder with an adaptive abandon function [77]. The strengths of this study are considered to prevent over-assembly and increase classification accuracy, however, deficiency in many clinical instances, infectious fever that it cannot distinguish.

Bray et al. investigated BP learning models for computer-assisted lung cancer diagnostic and therapeutic applications. Lung cancer is a severe concern to humanity today. Lung tumors can be benign or cancerous, and many patients have both. Deep enhancement models can detect lung cancers and provide a reliable outcome. To cure lung cancer utilizing deep reinforcement learning models, the most challenging part is developing an appropriate function to update the Q value of each metric [78].

Ma and Tavares stated that melanoma is a dangerous kind of skin cancer that is more prone to spread. There are three main types of melanocytic lesions: common nevi, atypical nevi, and melanoma. The skin lesions in this study are classified using an IoT-based approach. To obtain images, the suggested method used CNN models on the ImageNet dataset. The benefits of this strategy can be used in a variety of situations and are convenient [79].

Respecting internet access: A good connection must connect to the LINDA API (application programming interface) and send photos. ConvNets learn to employ a wide range of power at high alpha, beta, and gamma frequencies, according to Schirrmmeister et al., who also gave unique methods for visualizing functions. Furthermore, the research depicts the ConvNets design process, which decodes the information and is linked to a task derived from a smooth EEG without artisan functions [80]. One of the benefits is being able to provide edge learning and scalability for massive amounts of data. ConvNets have the flaw of displaying erroneous predictions and need training data.

19.6 Opportunities and Challenges

Biomedical systems have had substantial expansion in recent years, contributing significantly to income and employment. Few years back, diseases and irregularities in the human body could be diagnosed only through a physical examination in a hospital. During the duration of therapy, most patients were required to stay in the hospital [81]. As a result, biomedical prices have risen and biomedical institutions in rural and isolated areas have been overburdened. The technical advancements accumulated over the past have now enabled the diagnosis of different ailments and the surveillance of health using tiny, embedded sensors in wristbands.

Furthermore, development has revolutionized the biomedical system from a hospital-centered to a patient-centered approach. Various diagnostic tests, for example, can be conducted at home without the assistance of a biomedical specialist (such as measuring pO_2 , blood-glucose level, and blood pressure). Advanced computing technologies also can be used to send clinical data to biomedical centers from remote locations. The accessibility of biological resources has a qualitative part in the usage of various communication services in conjunction with advancements in technology (e.g. big data analytics, cloud computing, mobile computers, IoT, wireless sensing, and ML) [82].

In recent decades, advances in high-throughput technologies have resulted in a considerable rise in biomedical data, including genetic sequences, protein structures, and medical imaging. Efficient and effective computation techniques are necessary to store, analyze, and comprehend this flow of massive biological data. DL-based algorithmic frameworks emphasize these challenging difficulties.

IoT has not only increased independence but has also broadened human capabilities to interact with the outside world. IoT is a significant means of global communication by employing futuristic algorithms and protocols. It connects many items to the internet, including wireless sensors, home appliances, and electrical devices [83]. The IoT is gaining popularity due to its advantages of improved accuracy, reduced cost, and the capacity to better forecast events in the future [84]. Increased knowledge of computing technologies, software, apps, quick access to wireless technology, the modernization of mobile, and a broader digital economy have all benefited the IoT's rapid development [83]. Sensors, actuators, and other IoT devices have been combined with some further physical gadgets to exchange and monitor data via communication decorum, such as IEEE 802.11 Wi-Fi, Zigbee and bluetooth. Sensors incorporated or transportable in the human body are often used in biomedical applications to capture physiological data from the body of the patient, such as ECG, EEG, pressure frequency, and temperature [85].

Furthermore, environmental conditions such as humidity, temperature, time, and date can be captured. Such data assist in drawing relevant and accurate extrapolations about a patient's health condition. Since much information is acquired from a wide range of sources, storage capacity, and accessibility are especially vital in the IoT system (sensors, mobile phones, email, software, and applications). Physicians and other authorized individuals have access to the data collected by the above-mentioned sensors. Interacting with biomedical practitioners via the cloud/server allows for faster patient diagnosis and, if necessary, medical intervention.

For a practical and secure transfer, coordination among users, patients, and the communication unit is preserved [86]. Most IoT systems have a user experience that serves as a console for caregivers and allows them to regulate, visualize, and be concerned about their data. Many studies on the advancement of the IoT system in biological superintend, security, control, and integrity have been discovered in the literature [87]. These accomplishments demonstrate the value of IoT in the biomedical field and its promising future. However, maintaining the quality of the service matrix, which includes the integrity, security, cost, dependability, and availability of the information exchange, is crucial in designing an IoT device [88].

Computer-based intelligence, and explicitly DL, upholds the formation of dynamic IoT frameworks both on the plan of the correspondence foundation and on the investigation of information [89].

In any case, the huge measure of information gathered by IoT frameworks considers the neural networks' preparation that can oversee the exhibition and security of the framework. Such points require added consideration from

scholastic and modern specialists. It is true that QoS does not just affect the clients' experience yet, additionally assumes an urgent part in the administration of crisis of basic situations. The devices are required to have the option to recognize between the high-need, crisis-related traffic, and ordinary traffic. Solid prioritization of the network traffic and utilization of systems administration devices to satisfy certain QoS guidelines is still, an open matter for a large part, that DL can explain with significant outcomes [90].

Besides, DL bids should be examined in the entire correspondence stack, from an actual level where sign aggregation, encoding, and disaggregation of channels might be concluded because of AI models, conversely with customary unequivocal improvement approach, at the level of application. Additionally, the organization layer requires novel methods for choosing and adjusting steering calculations that might be absolutely or unconscious of the organizations geography and state [91].

Without a doubt, the IoT networks development is frequently uncontrolled, and the circumstances of certain regions are exceptionally unpredictable. Simulated intelligence will help in the plan or initiative-taking responsive systems focused on guaranteeing the base QoS even in the event of irregularities. IoT security frameworks are another area that will attract several examination endeavors before exceedingly long [92].

Scientific literature has received some interesting contributions due to the utilization of DL in IoT networks. Still, abundant area for enhancements and additional directions needs to be investigated, comprising the conservation of classification, and versatility to assaults that destabilize portions of the correspondence foundation (e.g. sticking assaults, etc.).

The biggest region for upcoming placement of DL in IoT is the undeniable level applications, i.e. the examination of IoT gathered information [93]. The developed range of IoT devices considers a substantial number of contextual analyses pointed toward making our social orders more comprehensive, secure, and, as a rule, vivid. In the following several years, one critical difficulty that many societies must confront is the population aging and the resulting distributed support and monitoring that vulnerable, many elders, and no autonomous citizens will require.

Dependable and secure IoT structures furnished with AI are the central progression to disseminate observing of individuals needing consideration, identification of peculiarities (e.g. circulatory strain issues, falls strokes), and giving data to a better life (e.g. calculation of person on foot courses without architectural obstruction). The high transmission capacity needed by interactive media streams and the QoS severe prerequisites of these types of uses present significant issues to the current IoT foundations, and advancement, both from the hypothetical and practical are necessary [94].

19.6.1 Future Insights

In many cases, our health-care services are now more expensive than at any time before, and many patients are compelled to be hospitalized for the length of their treatment. These difficulties can be overcome by using technologies that can remotely monitor patients. IoT technologies will cut the cost of health-care services by gathering real-time medical data from patients and passing it to health-care providers. This will allow for the cure of health problems before they become critical.

In the coming years, IoT technology will be extensively used in healthcare. The health-care industry is continually in the search for innovative methods to deliver services while reducing costs and quality improvement; consequently, this sector's dependency on IoT technology will continue to grow [95–97]. Patients are more able to follow self-care principles using such technologies, resulting in improved cost-effectiveness of health services, better self-management, and increased patient satisfaction.

IoT-based solutions can also be used for remote surveillance of physiological status in patients needing constant supervision. Rapprochement of multiple IoT designs has also recently allowed the development of intelligent health-care systems. IoT-driven solutions can be advantageous in developing a consistent system by the interconnection of varied objects to gain a comprehensive picture of the patient's health status [98–101].

19.6.2 Conclusions

The biomedical field is among the greatest tangled regarding the degree of responsibility and rigorous commands that makes it a relevant and indispensable field for creativity. Biomedical systems have had substantial expansion in recent years, contributing significantly to income and employment. The technical advancements accumulated over the past have now enabled the diagnosis of different ailments and the surveillance of health using tiny, embedded sensors in wristbands. This development has revolutionized the biomedical system from a hospital-centered to a patient-centered approach. Moreover, advances in high-throughput technologies have resulted in a considerable rise in biomedical data, including genetic sequences, protein structures, and medical imaging. Efficient and effective computation techniques are necessary to store, analyze, and comprehend this flow of massive biological data. DL-based algorithmic frameworks emphasize these challenging difficulties.

The IoT has presented a realm of opportunities in the medical field and might be the answer to several dilemmas. Introducing the IoT has not only increased independence but has also broadened human capabilities to interact with the outside world. IoT is a significant means of global communication by employing futuristic algorithms and protocols. Using the medical IoT would produce great possibilities for telemedicine, distant supervision of patients' status, among other applications. This might be with the sides of ML and DL frameworks. Computer-based intelligence, and explicitly DL, upholds the formation of dynamic IoT frameworks both on the plan of the correspondence foundation and on the investigation of information. However, the development of IoT networks is frequently uncontrolled, and the conditions of certain regions are exceptionally erratic. The security of IoT frameworks is another field that will draw many examination endeavors before exceedingly long.

The utilization of DL in IoT networks has led to some interesting contributions in the scientific literature. Still, abundant space for enhancements and further directions still needs to be investigated, including the conservation of classification, and the versatility to assaults that destabilize portions of the correspondence foundation (e.g. sticking assaults, etc.). In this chapter, we reviewed the commonly dominant ML and DL algorithms, named some ML and DL applications in the biomedical domain, and examined IoT-based ML and DL applications in the medical system.

References

- 1 Kelly, J.T., Campbell, K.L., Gong, E., and Scuffham, P. (2020). The internet of things: impact and implications for health care delivery. *Journal of Medical Internet Research* 22: e20135. <https://doi.org/10.2196/20135>.
- 2 Dang, L.M., Piran, M.J., Han, D. et al. (2019). A survey on internet of things and cloud computing for healthcare. *Electronics* 8: 768. <https://doi.org/10.3390/electronics8070768>.
- 3 Saarikko, T., Westergren, U.H., and Blomquist, T. (2017). The internet of things: are you ready for what's coming? *Business Horizons* 60: 667–676. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.bushor.2017.05.010>.
- 4 Nazir, S., Ali, Y., Ullah, N., and García-Magariño, I. (2019). Internet of things for healthcare using effects of mobile computing: a systematic literature review. *Wireless Communications and Mobile Computing* 2019: e5931315. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2019/5931315>.
- 5 Yin, Y., Zeng, Y., Chen, X., and Fan, Y. (2016). The internet of things in healthcare: an overview. *Journal of Industrial Information Integration* 1: 3–13. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jii.2016.03.004>.
- 6 Jara, A.J., Zamora-Izquierdo, M.A., and Skarmeta, A.F. (2013). Interconnection framework for mHealth and remote monitoring based on the internet of things. *IEEE Journal on Selected Areas in Communications* 31: 47–65.
- 7 Tundis, A., Kaleem, H., and Mühlhäuser, M. (2020). Detecting and tracking criminals in the real world through an IoT-based system. *Sensors* 20: 3795. <https://doi.org/10.3390/s20133795>.

- 8 Trinugroho, D. and Baptista, Y. (2014). Information integration platform for patient-centric healthcare Services: design, prototype and dependability aspects. *Future Internet* 6: 126–154. <https://doi.org/10.3390/fi6010126>.
- 9 Ahmadi, H., Arji, G., Shahmoradi, L. et al. (2019). The application of internet of things in healthcare: a systematic literature review and classification. *Universal Access in the Information Society* 18: 837–869. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s10209-018-0618-4>.
- 10 Taylor, R., Baron, D., and Schmidt, D. (2015). The world in 2025 – predictions for the next ten years. In: *2015 10th International Microsystems, Packaging, Assembly and Circuits Technology Conference IMPACT*, 192–195. <https://doi.org/10.1109/IMPACT.2015.7365193>.
- 11 Hung, C.-Y., Chen, W.-C., Lai, P.-T. et al. (2017). Comparing deep neural networks and other machine learning algorithms for stroke prediction in a large-scale population-based electronic medical claims database. In: *2017 39th Annual International Conference of the IEEE Engineering in Medicine and Biology Society (EMBC)*, 3110–3113. <https://doi.org/10.1109/EMBC.2017.8037515>.
- 12 Ngiam, K.Y. and Khor, I.W. (2019). Big data and machine learning algorithms for health-care delivery. *The Lancet Oncology* 20: e262–e273. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045\(19\)30149-4](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1470-2045(19)30149-4).
- 13 Al Dhahiri, A., Alrashed, B., and Hussain, W. (2021). Trends in using IoT with machine learning in health prediction system. *Forecast* 3: 181–206. <https://doi.org/10.3390/forecast3010012>.
- 14 Yue, L., Tian, D., Chen, W. et al. (2020). Deep learning for heterogeneous medical data analysis. *World Wide Web* 23: 2715–2737. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11280-019-00764-z>.
- 15 Mahmud, M., Kaiser, M.S., McGinnity, T.M., and Hussain, A. (2021). Deep learning in mining biological data. *Cognitive Computation* 13: 1–33. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12559-020-09773-x>.
- 16 Alharbi, R. and Almawashi, H. (2019). The privacy requirements for wearable IoT devices in healthcare domain. In: *2019 7th International Conference on Future Internet of Things and Cloud Workshops (FiCloudW)*, 18–25. <https://doi.org/10.1109/FiCloudW.2019.00017>.
- 17 Kaur, G. and Oberoi, A. (2020). Novel approach for brain tumor detection based on Naïve Bayes classification. In: *Data Management, Analytics and Innovation* (ed. N. Sharma, A. Chakrabarti and V.E. Balas), 451–462. Singapore: Springer https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-32-9949-8_31.
- 18 Ibrahim, N., Akhir, N.S.M., and Hassan, F.H. (2017). Predictive analysis effectiveness in determining the epidemic disease infected area. *AIP Conference Proceedings* 1891: 020064. <https://doi.org/10.1063/1.5005397>.
- 19 Huang G, Hu J, He Y, Liu J, Ma M, Shen Z, et al. Machine learning for electronic design automation: a survey 2021.
- 20 Raeesi Vanani, I. and Amirhosseini, M. (2021). IoT-based diseases prediction and diagnosis system for health-care. In: *Internet of Things for Healthcare Technologies* (ed. C. Chakraborty, A. Banerjee, M.H. Kolekar, et al.), 21–48. Singapore: Springer https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-15-4112-4_2.
- 21 Deshields, T.L., Wells-Di Gregorio, S., Flowers, S.R. et al. (2021). Addressing distress management challenges: recommendations from the consensus panel of the American Psychosocial Oncology Society and the Association of Oncology Social Work. *CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians* <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21672>.
- 22 Issac, A.C. and Baral, R. (2020). A trustworthy network or a technologically disguised scam: A bibliomorphological analysis of bitcoin and blockchain literature. *Global Knowledge, Memory and Communication* 69: 443–460. <https://doi.org/10.1108/GKMC-06-2019-0072>.
- 23 Orhororo, E.K., Ebunilo, P., and Sadjere, G. (2017). Development of a predictive model for biogas yield using artificial neural networks (ANNs) approach 2017. <https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Development-of-a-Predictive-Model-for-Biogas-Yield-Orhororo-Ebunilo/d65df521b9feceb147a01ca0949f318463bce7a9> (accessed 5 August 2021).
- 24 Khan, G.M. (2018). *Evolution of Artificial Neural Development: In Search of Learning Genes*. Springer International Publishing <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-67466-7>.

AQ6

AQ7

18 | 19 Impact of IoT in Biomedical Applications Using Machine and Deep Learning

- 25 Zhang, L., Tan, J., Han, D., and Zhu, H. (2017). From machine learning to deep learning: progress in machine intelligence for rational drug discovery. *Drug Discovery Today* 22: 1680–1685. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.drudis.2017.08.010>.
- 26 Zhou, X., Li, Y., and Liang, W. (2021). CNN-RNN based intelligent recommendation for online medical pre-diagnosis support. *IEEE/ACM Transactions on Computational Biology and Bioinformatics* 18: 912–921. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TCBB.2020.2994780>.
- 27 Zendesk (2022). Deep learning vs. machine learning: what's the difference? <https://www.zendesk.com/blog/machine-learning-and-deep-learning> (accessed 5 August 2021).
- 28 Dike, H.U., Zhou, Y., Devarasetty, K.K., and Wu, Q. (2018). Unsupervised learning based on artificial neural network: a review. In: *2018 IEEE International Conference on Cyborg and Bionic Systems (CBS)*, 322–327. <https://doi.org/10.1109/CBS.2018.8612259>.
- 29 Holzinger, A., Haibe-Kains, B., and Jurisica, I. (2019). Why imaging data alone is not enough: AI-based integration of imaging, omics, and clinical data. *European Journal of Nuclear Medicine and Molecular Imaging* 46: 2722–2730. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s00259-019-04382-9>.
- 30 Srivastava, A., Jain, S., Miranda, R. et al. (2021). Deep learning based respiratory sound analysis for detection of chronic obstructive pulmonary disease. *PeerJ Computer Science* 7: e369. <https://doi.org/10.7717/peerj-cs.369>.
- 31 Myszczyńska, M.A., Ojamies, P.N., Lacoste, A.M.B. et al. (2020). Applications of machine learning to diagnosis and treatment of neurodegenerative diseases. *Nature Reviews Neurology* 16: 440–456. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41582-020-0377-8>.
- 32 Bote-Curiel, L., Muñoz-Romero, S., Guerrero-Curienes, A., and Rojo-Álvarez, J.L. (2019). Deep learning and big data in healthcare: a double review for critical beginners. *Applied Sciences* 9: 2331. <https://doi.org/10.3390/app9112331>.
- 33 Bao, W., Lianju, N., and Yue, K. (2019). Integration of unsupervised and supervised machine learning algorithms for credit risk assessment. *Expert Systems with Applications* 128: 301–315. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2019.02.033>.
- 34 Lai, W.-S., Huang, J.-B., and Yang, M.-H. (2017). Semi-supervised learning for optical flow with generative adversarial networks. In: *Advances in Neural Information Processing Systems*, vol. 30. Curran Associates, Inc.
- 35 Lee, J.H., Shin, J., and Realf, M.J. (2018). Machine learning: overview of the recent progresses and implications for the process systems engineering field. *Computers and Chemical Engineering* 114: 111–121. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.compchemeng.2017.10.008>.
- 36 Won, Y.-S. and Bhasin, S. (2021). On use of deep learning for side channel evaluation of black box hardware AES engine. In: *Industrial Networks and Intelligent Systems*. (ed. N.S. Vo, V.-P. Hoang and Q.-T. Vien), 185–194. Cham: Springer International Publishing https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-77424-0_15.
- 37 Yao, X., Wang, X., Wang, S.-H., and Zhang, Y.-D. (2020). A comprehensive survey on convolutional neural networks in medical image analysis. *Multimedia Tools and Applications* <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11042-020-09634-7>.
- 38 Shao, H., Jiang, H., Lin, Y., and Li, X. (2018). A novel method for intelligent fault diagnosis of rolling bearings using ensemble deep auto-encoders. *Mechanical Systems and Signal Processing* 102: 278–297. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ymsp.2017.09.026>.
- 39 Liu, R., Rong, Z., Jiang, B. et al. (2018). Soft sensor of 4-CBA concentration using deep belief networks with continuous restricted Boltzmann machine. In: *2018 5th IEEE International Conference on Cloud Computing and Intelligence Systems (CCIS)*, 421–424. <https://doi.org/10.1109/CCIS.2018.8691166>.
- 40 Li, Z., Wang, Y., and Wang, K. (2020). A data-driven method based on deep belief networks for backlash error prediction in machining centres. *Journal of Intelligent Manufacturing* 31: 1693–1705.
- 41 Yamashita, R., Nishio, M., Do, R.K.G., and Togashi, K. (2018). Convolutional neural networks: an overview and application in radiology. *Insights Into Imaging* 9: 611–629. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s13244-018-0639-9>.

- 42 Ulku, I. and Akagunduz, E. (2021). A survey on deep learning-based architectures for semantic segmentation on 2D images. *ArXiv191210230 Cs*.
- 43 Abduljabbar, R., Dia, H., Liyanage, S., and Bagloee, S.A. (2019). Applications of artificial intelligence in transport: an overview. *Sustainability* 11: 189. <https://doi.org/10.3390/su11010189>.
- 44 Asaoka, R., Murata, H., Hirasawa, K. et al. (2019). Using deep learning and transfer learning to accurately diagnose early-onset glaucoma from macular optical coherence tomography images. *American Journal of Ophthalmology* 198: 136–145. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ajo.2018.10.007>.
- 45 Shibata, N., Tanito, M., Mitsuhashi, K. et al. (2018). Development of a deep residual learning algorithm to screen for glaucoma from fundus photography. *Scientific Reports* 8: 146–165. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-018-33013-w>.
- 46 Hood, D.C. and De Moraes, C.G. (2018). Efficacy of a deep learning system for detecting glaucomatous optic neuropathy based on colour fundus photographs. *Ophthalmology* 125: 1207–1208. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ophtha.2018.04.020>.
- 47 Zhou, X., Zhang, X., and Wang, B. (2016). Online support vector machine: a survey. In: *Harmony Search Algorithm* (ed. J.H. Kim and Z.W. Geem), 269–278. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer 10.1007/978-3-662-47926-1_26.
- 48 Khan, Z., Gul, A., Perperoglou, A. et al. (2020). Ensemble of optimal trees, random forest and random projection ensemble classification. *Advances in Data Analysis and Classification* 14: 97–116. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11634-019-00364-9>.
- 49 Shadkani, S., Abbaspour, A., Samadianfard, S. et al. (2021). Comparative study of multilayer perceptron-stochastic gradient descent and gradient boosted trees for predicting daily suspended sediment load: The case study of the Mississippi River, U.S. *International Journal of Sediment Research* 36: 512–523. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijsrc.2020.10.001>.
- 50 Sen, P.C., Hajra, M., and Ghosh, M. (2020). Supervised classification algorithms in machine learning: a survey and review. In: *Emerging Technology in Modelling and Graphics* (ed. J.K. Mandal and D. Bhattacharya), 99–111. Singapore: Springer https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-13-7403-6_11.
- 51 Hussain, W. and Sohaib, O. (2019). Analysing cloud QoS prediction approaches and its control parameters: considering overall accuracy and freshness of a dataset. *IEEE Access* 7: 82649–82671. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2019.2923706>.
- 52 Li, Z., Liu, F., Yang, W. et al. (2021). A survey of convolutional neural networks: analysis, applications, and prospects. *IEEE Transactions on Neural Networks and Learning Systems* <https://doi.org/10.1109/TNNLS.2021.3084827>.
- 53 Alkhodari, M. and Fraiwan, L. (2021). Convolutional and recurrent neural networks for the detection of valvular heart diseases in phonocardiogram recordings. *Computer Methods and Programs in Biomedicine* 200: 105940. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmpb.2021.105940>.
- 54 Lindemann, B., Müller, T., Vietz, H. et al. (2021). A survey on long short-term memory networks for time series prediction. *Procedia CIRP* 99: 650–655. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.procir.2021.03.088>.
- 55 Azarbik, M. and Sarlak, M. (2020). Real-time transient stability assessment using stacked auto-encoders. *COMPEL - The International Journal for Computation and Mathematics in Electrical and Electronic Engineering* 39: 971–990. <https://doi.org/10.1108/COMPEL-12-2019-0477>.
- 56 Gm, H., Gourisaria, M.K., Pandey, M., and Rautaray, S.S. (2020). A comprehensive survey and analysis of generative models in machine learning. *Computer Science Review* 38: 100285. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosrev.2020.100285>.
- 57 Sohn, I. (2021). Deep belief network based intrusion detection techniques: a survey. *Expert Systems with Applications* 167: 114170. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2020.114170>.
- 58 Oryema, B., Kim, H.-S., Li, W., and Park, J.T. (2017). Design and implementation of an interoperable messaging system for IoT healthcare services. In: *2017 14th IEEE Annual Consumer Communications & Networking Conference (CCNC)*, 45–52. <https://doi.org/10.1109/CCNC.2017.7983080>.

20 | 19 Impact of IoT in Biomedical Applications Using Machine and Deep Learning

- 59 Birje, M.N. and Hanji, S.S. (2020). Internet of things based distributed healthcare systems: a review. *Journal of Data, Information and Management* 2: 149–165. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s42488-020-00027-x>.
- 60 Ahad, A., Tahir, M., and Yau, K.-L.A. (2019). 5G-based smart healthcare network: architecture, taxonomy, challenges and future research directions. *IEEE Access* 7: 100747–100762. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2019.2930628>.
- 61 Kadhim, K.T., Alsahlani, A.M., Wadi, S.M., and Kadhun, H.T. (2020). An overview of patient's health status monitoring system based on internet of things (IoT). *Wireless Personal Communications* 114: 2235–2262. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s11277-020-07474-0>.
- 62 Tekeste, T., Saleh, H., Mohammad, B., and Ismail, M. (2019). Ultra-low power QRS detection and ECG compression architecture for IoT healthcare devices. *IEEE Transactions on Circuits and Systems I: Regular Papers* 66: 669–679. <https://doi.org/10.1109/TCSI.2018.2867746>.
- 63 Xu, J., Xue, K., and Zhang, K. (2019). Status and future trends of clinical diagnoses via image-based deep learning. *Theranostics* 9: 7556–7565. <https://doi.org/10.7150/thno.38065>.
- 64 Kim, M., Yun, J., Cho, Y. et al. (2019). Deep learning in medical imaging. *Neurospine* 16: 657–668. <https://doi.org/10.14245/ns.1938396.198>.
- 65 Michie, S., Thomas, J., Johnston, M. et al. (2017). The Human Behaviour-Change Project: harnessing the power of artificial intelligence and machine learning for evidence synthesis and interpretation. *Implementation Science* 12: 121. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13012-017-0641-5>.
- 66 Shah, P., Kendall, F., Khozin, S. et al. (2019). Artificial intelligence and machine learning in clinical development: a translational perspective. *npj Digital Medicine* 2: 1–5. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41746-019-0148-3>.
- 67 Lin, W.-C., Chen, J.S., Chiang, M.F., and Hribar, M.R. (2020). Applications of artificial intelligence to electronic health record data in ophthalmology. *Translational Vision Science & Technology* 9: 13. <https://doi.org/10.1167/tvst.9.2.13>.
- 68 Wynants, L., Calster, B.V., Collins, G.S. et al. (2020). Prediction models for diagnosis and prognosis of covid-19: systematic review and critical appraisal. *BMJ* 369: m1328. <https://doi.org/10.1136/bmj.m1328>.
- 69 Ahmed, Z., Mohamed, K., Zeeshan, S., and Dong, X. (2020). Artificial intelligence with multi-functional machine learning platform development for better healthcare and precision medicine. *Database: The Journal of Biological Databases and Curation* 2020: baaa010. <https://doi.org/10.1093/database/baaa010>.
- 70 Atitallah, S.B., Driss, M., Boulila, W., and Ghézala, H.B. (2020). Leveraging deep learning and IoT big data analytics to support the smart cities development: review and future directions. *Computer Science Review* 38: 100303. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cosrev.2020.100303>.
- 71 El-Sappagh, S., Ali, F., El-Masri, S. et al. (2019). Mobile health technologies for diabetes mellitus: current state and future challenges. *IEEE Access* 7: 21917–21947. <https://doi.org/10.1109/ACCESS.2018.2881001>.
- 72 Da Costa, C.A., Pasluosta, C.F., Eskofier, B. et al. (2018). Internet of health things: toward intelligent vital signs monitoring in hospital wards. *Artificial Intelligence in Medicine* 89: 61–69. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.artmed.2018.05.005>.
- 73 Tuli, S., Basumatary, N., Gill, S.S. et al. (2020). HealthFog: an ensemble deep learning based Smart Healthcare System for Automatic Diagnosis of Heart Diseases in integrated IoT and fog computing environments. *Future Generation Computer Systems* 104: 187–200. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.future.2019.10.043>.
- 74 Sarraf, S. and Tofghi, G. (2016). Classification of Alzheimer's disease using fMRI data and deep learning convolutional neural networks. ArXiv160308631 Cs.
- 75 Kamnitsas, K., Ledig, C., Newcombe, V.F.J. et al. (2017). Efficient multi-scale 3D CNN with fully connected CRF for accurate brain lesion segmentation. *Medical Image Analysis* 36: 61–78. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.media.2016.10.004>.
- 76 Faust, O., Shenfield, A., Kareem, M. et al. (2018). Automated detection of atrial fibrillation using a long short-term memory network with RR interval signals. *Computers in Biology and Medicine* 102: 327–335. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.combiomed.2018.07.001>.

- 77 Ren, J.-L., Zhang, A.-H., and Wang, X.-J. (2020). Traditional Chinese medicine for COVID-19 treatment. *Pharmacological Research* 155: 104743. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.phrs.2020.104743>.
- 78 Bray, F., Ferlay, J., Soerjomataram, I. et al. (2018). Global cancer statistics 2018: GLOBOCAN estimates of incidence and mortality worldwide for 36 cancers in 185 countries. *CA: A Cancer Journal for Clinicians* 68: 394–424. <https://doi.org/10.3322/caac.21492>.
- 79 Ma, Z. and Tavares, J.M.R.S. (2017). Effective features to classify skin lesions in dermoscopic images. *Expert Systems with Applications* 84: 92–101. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.eswa.2017.05.003>.
- 80 Schirmeister, R.T., Springenberg, J.T., Fiederer, L.D.J. et al. (2017). Deep learning with convolutional neural networks for EEG decoding and visualisation. *Human Brain Mapping* 38: 5391–5420. <https://doi.org/10.1002/hbm.23730>.
- 81 Mumpe-Mwanja, D., Barlow-Mosha, L., Williamson, D. et al. (2019). A hospital-based birth defects surveillance system in Kampala, Uganda. *BMC Pregnancy and Childbirth* 19: 372. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12884-019-2542-x>.
- 82 Verma, P. and Fatima, S. (2020). Smart healthcare applications and real-time analytics through edge computing. In: *Internet of Things Use Cases for the Healthcare Industry* (ed. P. Raj, J.M. Chatterjee, A. Kumar and B. Balamurugan), 241–270. Cham: Springer International Publishing https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-030-37526-3_11.
- 83 Pradhan, B., Bhattacharyya, S., and Pal, K. (2021). IoT-based applications in healthcare devices. *Journal of Healthcare Engineering* 2021: e6632599. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/6632599>.
- 84 Perera, C., Zaslavsky, A., Christen, P., and Georgakopoulos, D. (2014). Context aware computing for the internet of things: a survey. *IEEE Communication Surveys and Tutorials* 16: 414–454. <https://doi.org/10.1109/SURV.2013.042313.00197>.
- 85 Jan, S.U., Ali, S., Abbasi, I.A. et al. (2021). Secure patient authentication framework in the healthcare system using wireless medical sensor networks. *Journal of Healthcare Engineering* 2021: e9954089. <https://doi.org/10.1155/2021/9954089>.
- 86 Banerjee, A., Chakraborty, C., Kumar, A., and Biswas, D. (2020). Chapter 5 - Emerging trends in IoT and big data analytics for biomedical and health care technologies. In: *Handbook of Data Science Approaches for Biomedical Engineering* (ed. V.E. Balas, V.K. Solanki, R. Kumar and M. Khari), 121–152. Academic Press <https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-12-818318-2.00005-2>.
- 87 Farahani, B., Firouzi, F., Chang, V. et al. (2018). Towards fog-driven IoT eHealth: promises and challenges of IoT in medicine and healthcare. *Future Generation Computer Systems* 78: 659–676. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.future.2017.04.036>.
- 88 Aghdam, Z.N., Rahmani, A.M., and Hosseinzadeh, M. (2021). The role of the internet of things in healthcare: future trends and challenges. *Computer Methods and Programs in Biomedicine* 199: 105903. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cmpb.2020.105903>.
- 89 Haider, S.A., Adil, M.N., and Zhao, M. (2020). Optimization of secure wireless communications for IoT networks in the presence of eavesdroppers. *Computer Communications* 154: 119–128. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.comcom.2020.02.027>.
- 90 Chen, Y., Song, B., Du, X., and Guizani, N. (2020). The enhancement of catenary image with low visibility based on multi-feature fusion network in railway industry. *Computer Communications* 152: <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.comcom.2020.01.040>.
- 91 Irshad, O., Khan, M.U.G., Iqbal, R. et al. (2020). Performance optimization of IoT based biological systems using deep learning. *Computer Communications* 155: 24–31. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.comcom.2020.02.059>.
- 92 Ali, R., Kim, B., Kim, S.W. et al. (2020). (ReLBT): a reinforcement learning-enabled listen before talk mechanism for LTE-LAA and Wi-Fi coexistence in IoT. *Computer Communications* 150: 498–505. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.comcom.2019.11.055>.
- 93 Khan, S., Alvi, A.N., Javed, M.A. et al. (2021). An efficient medium access control protocol for RF energy harvesting based IoT devices. *Computer Communications* 171: 28–38. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.comcom.2021.02.011>.

- 94 Grande, E. and Beltrán, M. (2020). Edge-centric delegation of authorization for constrained devices in the Internet of things. *Computer Communications* 160: 464–474. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.comcom.2020.06.029>.
- 95 Anurag, M.S.R., Rahmani, A.-M., Westerlund, T. et al. (2014). Pervasive health monitoring based on Internet of Things: Two case studies. In: *2014 4th International Conference on Wireless Mobile Communication and Healthcare-Transforming Healthcare Through Innovations in Mobile and Wireless Technologies (MOBIHEALTH)*, 275–278. <https://doi.org/10.1109/MOBIHEALTH.2014.7015964>.
- 96 Thimbleby, H. (2013). Technology and the future of healthcare. *Journal of Public Health Research* 2: e28. <https://doi.org/10.4081/jphr.2013.e28>.
- 97 Kulkarni, A. and Sathe, S. (2014). Healthcare applications of the internet of things: a review. *International Journal of Computer Science and Information Technologies* 5 (5): 6229–6232.
- 98 Uckelmann, D., Harrison, M., and Michahelles, F. (2011). An architectural approach towards the future internet of things. In: *Architecting the Internet of Things* (ed. D. Uckelmann, M. Harrison and F. Michahelles), 1–24. Berlin, Heidelberg: Springer https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-642-19157-2_1.
- 99 Distefano, S., Bruneo, D., Longo, F. et al. (2017). Hospitalised patient monitoring and early treatment using IoT and cloud. *BioNanoScience* 7: 382–385. <https://doi.org/10.1007/s12668-016-0335-5>.
- 100 Chan, W.M., Zhao, Y., and Tsui, K.L. (2017). Implementation of electronic health monitoring systems at the community level in Hong Kong. In: *Smart Health* (ed. H. Chen, D.D. Zeng, E. Karahanna and I. Bardhan), 94–103. Cham: Springer International Publishing https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-67964-8_9.
- 101 Segura, A.S. (2016). The internet of things: business applications, technology acceptance, and future prospects, Doctoral Thesis. Universität Würzburg.

Author Queries

AQ1	Please note that ORCID number in affiliation is deleted.
AQ2	Please provide institute and city for affiliation 3.
AQ3	Please provide department, institute, and city for affiliation 4.
AQ4	Both automatic encoder and auto encoder are used for AE. Please check and specify the which one should be used globally.
AQ5	Please check and confirm the representation of "O. (1)."
AQ6	Please provide publisher name and location for references [10, 11, 16, 28, 39, 58, 95].
AQ7	Please provide journal title, volume, and page range for reference [19].
AQ8	Please provide complete details for references [42, 74].