

Diagnosis and Prognosis: Literature Review on Prediction of Epilepsy using Machine Learning Techniques

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ABSTRACT

Researchers are working to integrate machine learning (ML) and artificial intelligence (AI) tools to improve and develop clinical practice. Machine learning is becoming more important in medical image analysis. One of the fundamental goals of health care is to provide timely preventative measures by early disease diagnosis and prognosis. This is certainly relevant for epilepsy, which is characterized by recurring and unpredictable episodes. If epileptic seizures can be detected in advance, patients can avoid the unfavourable repercussions. Seizure prognosis remains an unsolved problem despite decades of research. This is likely to continue partly due to a lack of information to resolve this issue. Promising new advancements in the ML-based techniques have the ability to alter the situation in the detection and prediction of ES. We present a complete review of cutting-edge ML techniques for early seizure prediction with the help of EEG signals. We will highlight research gaps and problems and give recommendations for future initiatives.

Keywords

EEG, Machine Learning, Seizure

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the past 20 years, machine learning (ML), a cornerstone of artificial intelligence has undergone significant development. To reveal the hidden characteristics and underlying relationships of data, machine learning (ML) employs statistics and computer science (Awad & Khanna, 2015) to create algorithms whose performance improves when exposed to relevant data rather than when given explicit instructions (Libbrecht & Noble, 2015).

ML tasks can be divided into two categories: supervised and unsupervised (Mello & Ponti, 2018). The former uses prelabelled input data and try towards finding the classifier model using an approach that has been trained for unlabeled data classification. (A. Singh, Thakur, & Sharma, 2016). Unsupervised methods (e.g., dimensionality reduction and clustering algorithms), in contrast to the supervised technique, relate to the process of creating mathematical models after assessing the similarities between unlabeled inputs to find trends, subgroups, or outliers. (Celebi & Aydin, 2016). Semi supervised machine learning a bridges the gap among unsupervised and supervised learning by integrating a few labeled dataset with a significant number of unlabeled datasets to produce a classification system (or model function). It considerably enhances learning accuracy to some extent. cite6. Reinforcement learning is a turning approach in dynamical systems (for example, evolving, time-varying systems, and power systems) that automatically learns optimal control techniques. (Sutton & Barto, 2018).

Machine learning is being utilized widely in a wide range of industries, including voice recognition, image pattern classification, web browsing, spam mail filtering, autopilot, image classification, and textual translation. It is also being used more and more in a number of medical applications. In medicine, ML improves prognosis evaluation, disease identification, and prediction accuracy. Principled, automatic, and objective algorithms for complex, high-dimensional biological data are provided by ML (Rojas, Joya, & Catala, 2015). For example, ML outperforms the use of traditional feature selection methods in gene selection. Similar advances have been made in epilepsy, owing to continuous regard to data gathering, storage, and processing.

Epilepsy is a widely recognized chronic, noncommunicable condition that affects 3% to 15% of organ transplant patients and 60-70 million people globally. (Stelzle et al., 2021). An epileptic seizure is a sudden disruption in the electrical processes of the brain, characterised by excessive bursts of neuronal activity within the cerebral cortex and impacting the entire body. (Sazgar & Young, 2019). As per World Health Organization (WHO), 70 million people worldwide suffer from epilepsy, and epilepsy ranks fourth in the most common brain diseases, trailing only stroke, Alzheimer's disease and migraine (England, Liverman, Schultz, & Strawbridge, 2012). The pathophysiology of epileptic seizures involves aberrant neuronal discharge, which shows as high electrical pulses on an EEG. To clarify, we consider seizure to be a transient brain disorder caused by increased synchronous neural activity, and the sites of epileptic attacks are called epileptic foci. Recognizing and quantifying epileptogenic foci is essential for epilepsy diagnosis. However, anti-epileptic drugs can effectively control seizures in approximately 70% of patients with epilepsy (Eadie, 2012) the remaining 30% of patient populations have failed in controlling seizures, resulting in drug-resistant epileptic seizures or intractable epilepsy. Intractable epilepsy is associated with a high mortality risk as well as poor prognosis, necessitating surgical intervention (Fisher et al., 2014). Following a brief overview of common machine learning algorithms, this work highlights recent applications in automated detection and diagnosis, evaluation of imaging as well as clinical information, epilepsy localization, and medical and surgical outcome prediction to demonstrate the broad utility of machine learning techniques in epilepsy.

2. EPILEPSY DIAGNOSIS

Machine learning models are used by researchers to describe possible epileptic subjects to highlight the features which can help doctors and enhance the diagnostic workflow. However, such activities were designed to save labor for highly qualified

physicians. Algorithms with high sensitivity, on the other hand, increase the likelihood of detecting potential 'invisible' regions that human experts may overlook.

To classify patients and health controls, old-fashioned machine learning methods were widely used (Cantor-Rivera, Khan, Goubran, Mirsattari, & Peters, 2015; J. Wang, Li, Wang, & Huang, 2018; JIANG, LIU, GAO, & MIAO, 2017; Del Gaizo et al.,

2017; Liedlgruber et al., 2019; Höller et al., 2020). It may also discover the most contributing factors associated with a given disease during the procedure. Several manual features were relied on in some studies due to prior knowledge. SVM, for example, was used to identify patients with tonic-clonic epilepsy from the normal group using 2 hand-crafted MRI variables (fALFF from fMRI and Gray Matter Volume from T1). On PET images, similar conventional methods have been used. Multi-linear PCA was used to extract features from the hemisphere symmetry tensor, and SVM was used to classify abnormal and normal images (JIANG et al., 2017).

3. EPILEPSY PROGNOSIS

Computer-aided prognosis tasks are critical for directing clinicians to the most appropriate treatment. Clinical indicators that include the epidemiology-based mortality rating in the Engel classification and the status epilepticus are commonly used to assess epilepsy prognosis. On the basis of patient's brain scans, ML models can be built to anticipate treatment results, providing those information before time that is useful for treatment. The classification task of classifying the

postoperative state is commonly referred to as prognosis prediction (i.e, no seizures or persistent seizures).

However, End-to-end DNNs have been used to determine the most probable treatment outcome in addition to classic machine learning methods(Gleicherricht et al., 2018; Samson, 2018; B. C. Munsell et al., 2015).

4. ML APPROACHES

Scientists have been attempting to overcome the problems in diagnosing and forecasting epilepsy. The investigation of EEG recordings was the primary priority of the ES prediction study since EEG are a significant source for analysing activity in the brain before, during, and after an epileptic seizure. EEG data are contaminated by eye movements, blinks, cardiac signals, and muscular noise. Several filtering and noise cancellation techniques are used to reduce the effects of these multiple noise sources and distortion (Mannan, Kamran, & Jeong, 2018).

An algorithm that can automatically recognize epileptiform discharges, for instance, may be trained using annotated EEG data. This can be done by using Supervised Machine Learning technique. Whereas an unsupervised algorithm may find potential epileptiform discharges by spotting anomalies in background EEG recording. Either way, the algorithm itself, with no need for domain knowledge, or a human expert, identify informative input features through a process known as feature selection, which is then processed by using a mapping function to provide output predictions from such features (Deo, 2015).

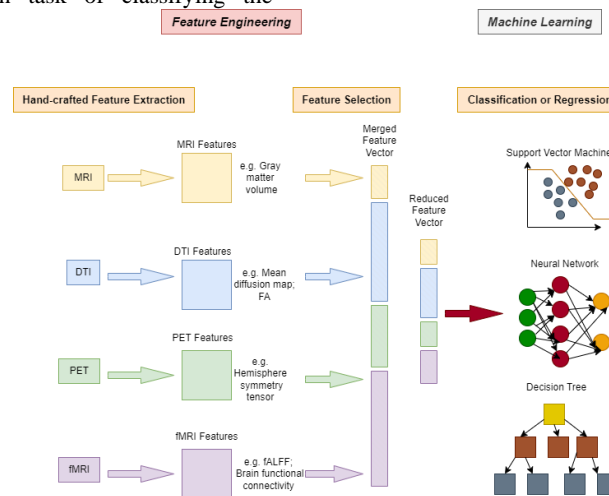


Figure 1: The conventional machine learning method. It is divided into two stages: machine learning and feature engineering.

4.1 Conventional machine learning approach

Two steps make up the traditional machine learning approach: manually feature engineering and machine learning (Fig. 1.). The hand-crafted features are extracted from brain pictures during the feature engineering stage. The machine learning step then feeds these data into a machine learning model for a specific goal, like regression (B. Munsell et al., 2019) or classification (Alaverdyan, Jung, Bouet, & Lartizien, 2020) (to determine whether the brain is normal or impaired).The machine learning algorithm employed in this methodology is often a simple classifier rather than a deep neural network.

In traditional machine learning models, feature engineering is an essential step. Using distinguishing characteristics extracted from medical pictures can successfully minimise data

dimension and avoid model overfitting. Because we want to save as much information as possible in the original medical images, the extracted features are frequently very redundant.

Following the feature engineering, the features of significance will be incorporated into ML models for use in real-world applications. It should be noted that standard machine learning methods, such as support vector machine and linear discrimination analysis are highly reliant on the collected features.

Linear discrimination analysis (LDA) is a popular supervised method for feature extraction, data dimensionality reduction, and pattern discovery.

The initial SVM seeks a hyperplane in the dimensional space to split samples into two classes (Cortes & Vapnik, 1995). It was designed for two-class classification at first, but was later

enlarged to multi-class classification. Also, SVR (support vector regression)(Smola & Schölkopf, 2004) has been employed to resolve regression problems.

5. LITERATURE REVIEW

In this work, several writers have previously evaluated the seizure detection techniques and strategies. A brief analysis of various strategies for seizure detection based on signal characteristics is provided below.

Two strategies are offered by Jaiswal et al. (Jaiswal & Banka, 2018) : "cross sub pattern" and "sub pattern Principal Component Analysis ("SubXPCA" and "SpPCA") utilising SVM method.The proposed techniques' conclusions were 100% accurate, and their average was greater than other methods such as "Naive Bayes", Support Vector Machine" and "k- nearest neighbour".The authors of (Jaiswal & Banka, 2018) developed a method for predicting epileptic seizures by categorising EEG data into seizure and non-seizure signals.Using an Local Binary Pattern that utilizes key point computations, EEG data may be categorized into seizure and non-seizure categories (Tiwari et al., 2016).

The first stage of EEG data processing is key point localization, followed by key point-based LBP calculation and finally by histogram feature.

In Abualsaud et al. (Abualsaud et al., 2015), the ensemble classifier was used to test its efficacy on incomplete EEG data. The ensemble classifier outperformed other trials, achieving 90% accuracy in comparison to 85%, 85.9%, and 89.5% in the other studies.

Three learning strategies were employed by the authors in (Satapathy et al., 2017b) SVM, "multinomial logistic regression," and "logistic model trees" (LMTs). In terms of accuracy, the findings demonstrated that LMT classifier

outscored the others. Using the epilepsy data, several approaches such as SVM, RVM, fractal dimension and neural networks were also applied (Lima et al., 2016).

Further techniques included k-means, random forest, and Gaussian mixture models (Senders et al., 2018) and the SVM method was efficient in solving binary classification problems.

A brand-new device known as "Computerized Automated Detection of Focal Epileptic Seizure" (CAD-FES) was presented by Raghu et al. in their study (Raghu & Sriraam, 2018) and the major aim was preprocessing of EEG data for identification of focal and non-focal epileptic episodes. The authors first extracted 28 characteristics from the data set, using "Neighborhood Component Analysis" (NCA) to maximize the number of features, and then utilized SVM, KNN, Random Forest and the AdaBoost classifier for evaluating algorithm performance. The outcome showed that SVM had the highest accuracy of 95.9%.

Tharayil et al. (Tharayil et al., 2017) created a system to predict epilepsy in both adult and paediatric patients simultaneously.

This technique, the linear mixed model, was applied to approximately 1.2 million reported seizures. The primary conclusion was that all developed models worked better on adult than on children. The authors offered numerous hypotheses, including differences in seizure patterns between children and adult and a lack of data on underreported seizures in children. Early detection of epileptic seizure can help the patient avoid detrimental effects on the human brain. Usman et al. (Usman et al., 2017a) employed the technique of preprocessing data to reduce 23 EEG signal channels to one in order to increase the SNR (signal to noise ratio), and then EMD (em-

Table 1: Recently applied ML techniques for seizure detection with their corresponding performances

S.NO	YEAR	AUTHOR	ML ALGORITHM	DATASET SOURCE	FEATURE ANALYSIS	NUMBER OF SAMPLES/SUBSETS	ACCURACY (%)	LIMITATIONS
1	2015	Abualsaud and Mahmuddin (Abualsaud et al., 2015)	Ensemble classifier	—	(NSC) Noise-aware Signal Combination	4096	90	—
2	2015	Bandarabadi et al. (Bandarabadi et al., 2015a)	Support Vector Machines	EPILEPSIAE	Spectral power, Amplitude distribution histogram	24	73.98	—
3	2015	Lecun et al. (LeCun et al., 2015)	Res-CNN	BONN	Conventional - feature extraction method	—	95.70	—

4	2015	Logesparan et al. (Logesparan et al., 2015)	ANN, SVM	CHB-MIT	Line length feature analysis	–	52	Accuracy(Low)
5	2015	Talathi and Vartak (Talathi & Vartak, 2015)	GRU, RNN	–	RNNs	–	94	High (time complexity)
6	2015	Bandarabadi al. (Bandarabadi et al., 2015b)	SVMet	–	Relative Spectral Power Features	24	73.98	–
7	2015	Amin et al. (Amin et al., 2015)	KNN, SVM, Naive bayes, MLP	EPILEPSY 5	–	–	98.75	–
8	2015	Donos et al. (Donos et al., 2015)	Random forest	EPILEPSY	Frequency, Time	–	93.8	Spec not mentioned
9	2015	Zhang et	SVM,	BCI Lab	SE and	–	95.58	High
18	2016	Sabrina et al. (Belhadj et al., 2016)	PHA–unsupervised	CHB-MIT	Intrinsic mode functions, Euclidean distance, Bhattacharya distance	22	98.84	–
19	2016	Orellana et al. (Orellana & Cerqueira, 2016)	Random forest	CHB-MIT	PCA, STF, moving maximum	–	97	–

20	2016	Kabir and Siuly (Kabir et al., 2016)	Support Vector Machine (SVM), Logistic model trees (LMT), Multinomial Logistic Regression (MLR)	–	Optimum Allocation Technique (OAT)	4097	95.33(LMT)	least square SVM (LS-SVM) classifier
21	2017	Chen et al. (D. Chen et al., 2017)	SVM	BONN	DWT	5120, 4097	86.83	Low sen, pres
22	2017	Satapathy et al. (Satapathy et al., 2017a)	Neural network, SVM	BONN	CWT, DWT	–	99.1	High detection time
23	2017	Kumar et al. (Kumar et al., 2017)	approximate entropy ANN, SVM	CHB-MIT	DWT based approximate entropy	500	100	High time complexity
24	2017	JianJia, Balaji Goparaju, JiangLing Song, et al. (Jia et al., 2017)	Random Forest	BONN 6	Complete ensemble empirical mode decomposition along with adaptive	5	98	–
28	2017	Wanzhong Chen, Mingyan-gLi and TaoZhang. (Li et al., 2017b)	Neural network	BONN	Envelope analysis	5	98.78	–
29	2017	Abeg Kumar Jaiswal, Haider Banka. (Jaiswal & Banka, 2017)	ANN (Artificial Neural Network)	BONN	"LNDP (Local neighbor descriptive Pattern)"	5	99.82	LBP is sensitive to local variation

30	2017	Bhattacharyya Pachori R. (Bhattacharyya & Pachori, 2017)	RF A, classifier and SMOTE	CHB MIT	EWT	23	99.41	–
31	2017	Birjandtalab et al. (Birjandtalab et al., 2017)	Random forest- KNN	CHB- MIT	Spectral power	–	80.87	Low sens, spec
32	2017	Sarif et al. (Sharif & Jafari, 2017)	SVM	Freiburg	Distribution (6 fuzzy rules)	19	96.60	limitation in number of training and test data.
33	2017	Datta Prasad et al. (Torse et al., 2017)	ANN	BONN	Incorporated Hilbert trans.	–	96	–
34	2017	Shivnarayan Patidar. and Trilochan Panigrahi (Patidar & Pani- grahi, 2017)	LS-SVM	University of Bonn Germany 7	"Kraskov entropy and Multi- stage TQWT"	5	97.75	–
35	2017	Hashem Kalbkhani and Mahrokh	KNN	BONN	KPCA (Kernel principal compo-	5	99.73	–
41	2017	Tharayil et al. (Tharayil et al., 2017)	Linear Mixed Model	SeizureTracker	Bayesian informa- tion criterion	3896	82	Noise
42	2017	Usman and Usman (Usman et al., 2017b)	SVM	CHB- MIT	Time- frequency	22	92.23	–
43	2017	Kumar (Satapathy	SVM	USC-SIPI	–	44	100(MPNN and EL)	–

		et al., 2017b)						
44	2018	Usman et al. (Usman & Hassan, 2018)	Naive Bayes, SVM, KNN	MIT	Skewness, Variance, SD, HP, Kurtosis, Entropy	24	97.07, 97.44, 90.66	–
45	2018	Kitano et al. (Kitano et al., 2018)	SOM	MIT	Zero-crossing (DWT coefficients)	9	98	limitations in providing exact frequencies
46	2018	Yang et al. (Yang et al., 2018)	SVM	Freiburg	Permutation (Entropy)	21	94	Limitations in extracting features
47	2018	Park et al. (Park et al., 2018)	SoftMax, 2D CNN	CHB-MIT, SNUH-HYU data	–	54	90.58	Low sens, spec
48	2018	Jacobs D., Hilton T., Del Campo M. et al. (Jacobs et al., 2018)	MSC (Multi stage state classifier)	Toronto Western Hospital Epilepsy Monitoring Unit	CFC (cross frequency coupling)	12	82.4	–
49	2018	Ali Yener Mutlu (Mutlu, 2018)	LS-SVM	BONN 8	HVD (Hilbert vibration decomposition)	5	97.33-97.66	–
50	2018	Sutrisno Ibrahim, Ridha Djemal and	Linear SVM, KNN, LDA, DWT	BONN, CHB-MIT	Band power, standard deviation and DWT	5	100	–
54	2018	K, Ren D, Li, Wang D, et al. (D. Wang et al., 2018)	RBF _s VM	XJU Decomposition	10	99.4	Existence of muscle artifact in long-term scalp EEG recordings	
55	2018	Faust et al. (Faust et al., 2018)	SoftMax, 2D CNN	Bern-Barcelona data	Wavelet transformations (DWT)	–	94.5	Low accuracy

56	2018	Chen et al. (X. Chen et al., 2018)	SoftMax, LSTM	Zenodo	Wavelet transformations (DWT)	5	90	Low prec
57	2018	Hussein (Hussein et al., 2018)	SoftMax, LSTM	Zenodo	Fully connected (FC) RNN	15	96	High training time
58	2018	Gasparini et al. (Gasparini et al., 2018)	SoftMax, SAE	Reggio Calabria data	Time-frequency, CWT	–	86.5	Low Sen, Spec, Acc
59	2018	Karim et al. (Karim, Karal, & Çelebi, 2018)	SoftMax, SAE	BONN	DWT	–	91	Confusion matrix Low prec
60	2018	Yuan et al. (Yuan et al., 2018)	SoftMax, SAE	CHB-MIT	AE and SE	23	92.61	–
61	2018	Karim et al. (Karim, Güzel, et al., 2018)	SoftMax, DSAE	Kaggle	ESD function	2000	94	–
62	2018	Birjandtalab et al. (Birjandtalab et al., 2018)	ANN	CHB-MIT 9	Spectral power	–	86	High detection high
63	2018	Sharma et al. (Sharma	LS SVM	BONN	–	122	98.6	–
68	2018	Raghu and Sriraam (Raghu & Sriraam, 2018)	Computerized Bern-Auto-mated Detection of Focal Epileptic Seizure(CADFES)	Bern- Barcelona database	time, frequency, and statistical domain	28	95.90	–
69	2019	Al Gahyab et al. (Al Ghayab et al., 2019)	LS-SVM	BONN	Uses simple FFT-DWT for feature extraction	–	99	–

70	2019	Tzimoutra et al. (Tzimourta et al., 2019)	Random forest	Bonn and Freiburg	Use of DWT for feature extraction	21	99.74	–
71	2019	Bizopoulos et al. (Bizopoulos et al., 2019)	SoftMax, standard networks	BONN	2D and 3D phase space presents the intrinsic mode and functions	4097	85.3	Low detection accuracy
72	2019	Ozerdem and Turk (Türk & Özerdem, 2019)	Softmax, 2D CNN	Freiburg	Frequency-time domain, CWT	23	93.6	Low spec for multi-class
73	2019	Sui et al. (Sui et al., 2019)	SoftMax, 2DCNN	Kaggle	FT	–	91.18	High time complexity
74	2019	Tian et al. (Tian et al., 2019)	MV-TSK-FS, 2D CNN	CHB MIT	FFT, WPD	–	95.33	–
75	2019	LeCun and Triesch (Lu & Triesch, 2019)	Softmax, 2D CNN	Bern Barcelona	Feature extracts from CNN	3800	95.90	High detection time
76	2019	San-Segundo et al. (San-Segundo	Softmax, 2D CNN	CHB-MIT	DWT	500	96.10	High training time

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85	2019	Chen et al. (S. Chen et al., 2019)	SVM, Naive Bayes	CHB-MIT	RMS, variance, energy, entropy	4096	96.55	Low pre
86	2019	Mursalin et al. (Mursalin et al., 2019)	KNN, SVM, RF	BONN	15-features	4097	98	—
87	2019	Fasil and Rajesh. (Fasil & Rajesh, 2019)	SVM	BONN, Barcelona	Energy	—	99.5	—
88	2019	Selvakumari et al. (Selvakumari et al., 2019)	LS-SVM	Class Acc	DWT, FFT	23	100	High time complexity
89	2019	Siddiqui et al. (Siddiqui et al., 2019)	Random forest, boosting, decision forest	Bern Barcelona	Nine statistical features	—	96.67	Time complexity is high
90	2019	Wang et al. (X. Wang et al., 2019)	RF classifier	BONN	Mean, std dev, STFT, energy	500	96.7	Low sens, spec for multi-class
91	2019	Lahmiri and Shumel (Lahmiri & Shmuel, 2018)	KNN and GHE	BONN	—	5	100	—
				al. (Raghu et al., 2020)				
			KNN, adaboost Barcelona		frequency men-tioned			
92	2020	Ahmed-Aristizabal (Ahmedt-Aristizabal et al., 2020)	SoftMax, LSTM	Mater advanced epilepsy Unit	Computer-based analytical approaches	500	95	—
93	2020	Raghu et	RF,	Bern 11	Time-	—	97.60	NFR not
94	2020	Ilakiyaselvan et al. (Ilakiyaselvan et al.,	DL	University of Bonn (UoB)	spatial and temporal features	4097	Binary (98.5) Tertiary (95)	UoB dataset is clean dataset.

pirical mode decomposition) was used to optimize SNR. The authors utilised SVM technique for classification, and the results showed that the frame-work predicted seizures by an average of 23.6 minutes, with highest prediction time of approximately 33 minutes. The suggested method, however, according to the author of (Kabir et al., 2016), "optimum-allocated techniques" (OTA) were used to draw samples for each of the classes before integrating all the samples. The features were then extracted from the OTA set which included splitting of EEG signals into subsets in accordance with time frame.

Patrick et al., (Lockett, 2018), used machine Learning techniques to integrate three techniques to predict and detect an epileptic episode. The first technique, known as the p-s adjacency spectrum, used a plot of the p-s adjacency spectrum as a diagnostic markers for seizure detection and had 97% accuracy rate. The second method, L spectrum, which achieved a 93% accuracy rate, used spectrum measurements as a diagnostic marker for seizure prediction. The last technique was p-s graph analysis, which utilized a subset of the edges of the phase-space graph as a diagnostic biomarker for diagnosing seizure and learning accuracy. The approach received 93% and 80% accuracy assessment. The author combined the p-s analysis approach and DL (deep learning) with the CNN algorithm to detect the commencement of seizures with 100% accuracy. In a number of studies, an ensemble classifier was employed to characterize epileptic episodes.

In (Subasi et al., 2019), the authors developed a new approach for detecting epileptic seizures. They employed hybrid SVM to calculate SVM parameters by combining a "genetic algorithm" (GA) with "particle swarm optimization" (PSO); this model obtained 99.38% accuracy.

Similar to this, Nair et al. (Nair et al., 2021) came to the conclusion that AI-based approaches have greatly aided in the diagnosis, prediction, and management of epilepsy for a society with better access to healthcare.

ML approaches for predicting epileptic seizures were compared, along with their effectiveness, by Lekshmy et al. (Lekshmy et al., 2022). According to the data, the RF (Random Forest) and LSTM (Long

Short Term Memory) algorithm achieved the highest accuracy rates of 97% and 98% respectively.

Similar to this, a complete examination of AI and ML seizure detection strategies was published by Natu et al. (Natu et al., 2022). Techniques for preparing data, methods for the classifiers or prediction model's channel selection, and other subjects were covered. Also, the limitations and shortcomings of this field of study were highlighted. They recommended feature selection method, dataset labelling and research into deep learning algorithms as a cure. Using correlation dimension (CD), authors in (Brari & Belghith, 2021) introduced a unique ML technique to epilepsy prediction and attained 100% accuracy. Due to a limited number of features and a unique mix of subsets, the proposed model demonstrates a significantly faster convergence than comparable approaches in the literature across the same

dataset.

In (Ilakiyaselvan et al., 2020), scientists suggested using RPS (reconstructed phase space) rather than direct EEG data, which have chaotic and non-linear behavior and are therefore

unsuitable for analysis, as a Deep Learning (DL) approach for seizure detection. With binary and tertiary classification, the method had accuracy rates of 98.5% and 95%, respectively. Bhattacharyya and Pachori (Bhattacharyya & Pachori, 2017) employed an information entropy based strategy to decrease the amount of EEG signals which was to be processed based on intensity fluctuations in the EEG signal, before breaking it down into smaller bands employing empirical wavelet transformation. Each of the sub-band was divided into distinct MODES, which showed the frequency and amplitude constituents. A statistical approach was used to extract the feature from the individual instantaneous amplitudes.

Jacobs et al. (Jacobs et al., 2018) used a multi-stage state classifier (MSC) with three RF classifiers to classify a pre-clinical seizure state. A 5-fold ROC (Receiver Operating Characteristic) evaluation was used to evaluate their system, which contrasted performance under two situations. The system having MSC training had a 95% accuracy, while the system before training had a 79% accuracy, suggesting that RF classifier enhances accuracy.

Patidar and Panigrahi (Patidar & Panigrahi, 2017) used a wavelet with two vanishing moments based on the Daubechies filter. Its adjustable QWT (Q wavelet transform) is filter that has the potential to deliver significantly improved time-frequency resolutions. Filters with lower disappearing moments may be employed as well if their capacity to appropriately deconstruct signal information without spending a large amount of resources is intentionally limited. The Kraskov entropy, which utilizes a distance function, is employed in the system's feature extraction stage.

Mahalanobis distance function is the distance function that can be used in combination with a two class discriminating test, namely the Wilcoxon rank test, to increase performance.

Wang et al. (D. Wang et al., 2018) used a 5th level wavelet decomposition, which may assure efficient signal decomposition with effective resource trade-offs if 5 sub-bands are required.

Its dimensions were also kept to a minimum of five. When compared to different sub-bands of EEG signals, WDTF also enhanced selectivity. The feature extraction method produced an enormous vector with dimensions of 19×19 . This dimension was reduced to 19×1 by using the directed transfer function. Because this dimension computation was related to energy and entropies like Shannon's entropy assisted in reduction. Further, the employment of an elliptic band-pass filter before signal decomposition could increase frequency separation.

The Stockwell transform is based on an N-point discrete Fourier transform derivative developed by Kalbkhani and Shayesteh (Kalbkhani & Shayesteh, 2017). It had good time and frequency resolution. Other distance functions, such as the Hausdorff or Mahalanobis, can be used to improve their use of the nearest neighbour classifier.

In the study by Guergachi, Kaleem and Krishnan (Guergachi, Kaleem & Krishnan, 2010), the dominant wavelet was the level five Daubechies db6 wavelet with 6 vanishing moments.

In this scenario, a greater proportion of disappearing moments was employed as they were more comparable to the observed EEG signals.

The adoption of DT-CWT by Chen, Zhang and Li (Li et al., 2017a) in the decomposing phase was useful since it reduced

the difficulties of unreal frequency, which gave way to the half-way band division. They could improve the system by using a proper LS SVM classifier.

The authors of (Jia et al., 2017) employed feature extraction stage that used statistical approaches based on spectral moments. This approach was simpler to put into effect on hardware and provided greater mode mixing separation. In certain investigations, the authors used a fairly well-founded decomposition technique. The key strength of the study by Chen, Zhang, and Li (T. Zhang et al., 2017) was the application of VMD based decomposition, which isolated the 2 harmonic signals of comparable frequency. HVD (Hilbert vibration decomposition) was used by Mutlu (Mutlu, 2018) which could decompose signals in both narrow and wide bands. The LS SVM classifier too was effective due to its inequality type limitations. Butterworth low pass filter was included in the pre-processing stage which could be altered

with improved digital filters like elliptic filters.

The undulated local and global feature detection technique employed by Paul and Parvez (Parvez & Paul, 2016) was based on epochs, allowing it to handle the decomposition more accurately. Its application for example in phase correlation, worked by moving information between two correlated signals using the Fourier transform. This approach made no use of any specific decomposition blocks. The window regularization procedure, on the other hand, was difficult and could be replaced by alternative approaches like the Hadamard transform.

The study by Ibrahim, Djemal, and Alsuwailem (Ibrahim et al., 2018) attained 100% accuracy by combining the discrete wavelet transformation with a Rosenstein algorithm, which was known to improve system robustness to noise. The next step for this system could be to test it with larger datasets in the future. The two-dimensional system and decomposition method utilized by Khan et al. (Khan et al., 2017) were focussed on Mexican hat mother wavelet function. By utilising weight sharing, their system had the benefit of reducing the trained parameter utilized in the neural network.

Shiao et al. (Shiao et al., 2016) had the design choices and performance metrics closely related to clinical objectives. However, their decision to use all channels for feature extraction was resource-intensive as they generated large dimensions for the feature extraction (nearly 96 to 120 dimensions) despite using cross-channel correlation. For feature dimensions, techniques such as principal component analysis (PCA) methods can be used.

For dealing with high-frequency oscillation (HFO) signals, Jrad et al. (Jrad et al., 2016) employed a seizure detection method with exact non stationary signal decomposition. Its time-frequency localization has also been enhanced. It was also advantageous to use Gabor atoms because they were synchronised to degrade signals within the physiological band.

In their research, the authors of (Li et al., 2017b) employed an EA (wavelet-based envelope analysis) to identify envelope with the HT (Hilbert transform) and estimated the enclosure spectrum at each band. Its technology may detect slight but crucial changes in EEG waves. They also used a simple statistical model with low dimensions to extract features.

The procedure given in Jaiswal and Banka's work (Jaiswal & Banka, 2017) used a segmentation technique that was computationally straightforward, meaning that capabilities were effectively managed during the implementation stage.

The ANN implementation was efficient, however the CNN classifier outperformed it. Tsiouris et al. (Tsiouris et al., 2018) described a system that used machine learning (unsupervised) classification method that did not require prior knowledge. It also incorporated an energy based feature extraction stage that required little technology to implement.

Goksu's (Göksu, 2018) paper was a good illustration of using an appropriate wavelet order for such a system. Despite the fact that three levels of wavelet transform were used, high accuracy was achieved, saving resources. The entropy used in the feature extraction phase was also simple, allowing useful information to be extracted.

On a scalp EEG dataset, Usman et al. (Usman et al., 2017b) proposed a model that identified the beginning of the preictal state, a type of state that starts a few minutes just before onset of the convulsion, with a raised true positive rate, 92.23%, and maximum anticipation time frame of 33 minutes and mean average duration of 23.6 minutes.

Usman et al. (Usman & Hassan, 2018) proposed model demonstrated that pre-ictal time for prediction of epileptic seizure is 33.9 minutes, which was far better than observed using existing methods. Five univariate features were used to predict seizures. The prediction algorithm allowed enough time for affected patients to take medication in order to avoid seizures where Support vector machines (SVM) was found to perform better. K-nearest neighbour, Naive Bayes, and Support Vector Machines were three classifiers. SVM accuracy was 97.07%, with a true positive rate of 88.89%.

Kitano et al. (Kitano et al., 2018) advocated using a modest quantity of data to predict seizures. From CHB MIT database's hours-long capture of 24 patients, researchers only used 20 mins of data from 9 patients. The data set lasted 20 minutes and was composed up of 10 minute of preictal data plus 10 mins of interictal data. They extracted zero crossing of DWT level 1 specific coefficients using Discrete wavelet transform on 4 sec non-overlapping window frames of 20-minutes of this data.

Where Sarif et al. (Sharif & Jafari, 2017) presented a method for seizure prediction that encompasses a novel technique for feature extraction from EEG. The algorithm begun by constructing an embedded space from EEG time-series data. Then, using an optimised and data-specific Poincare plane, it took samples with the majority of the information. The frequency analysis of these fuzzy system was used to determine the features in each minute. The qualities with the highest variance were then selected as ictal characteristics and decreased utilizing PCA once more. Finally, the shift from interictal to preictal condition was evaluated using SVM to see how these unique features could improve the seizure prediction algorithm's performance.

Yang et al. (Yang et al., 2018) employed PE as a characteristic retrieved from iEEG data from the Freiburg hospital. They studied 83 episodes from 19 subjects and used an SVM classifier with an RBF kernel using 5 second feature segments as input. As performance analysis measures, false prediction rate (FPR) and sensitivity were used. They averaged 94% diagnostic accuracy and 0.11 FPR with a mean duration of 61 minutes.

Bandarabadi et al. (Bandarabadi et al., 2015a) employed relative combination of sub-band spectral strengths of EEG recordings among all feasible channel pairings to track progressive changes preceding seizures. Using a newly created feature selection process, a series of strongest candidate values were fed to SVM in order to identify cerebrovascular

condition as preictal or non-preictal. Long-term multi-channel invasive and scalp recordings were used to validate the proposed algorithm (seizures as 183, time as 3565 h). The best results demonstrated a responsiveness of 75.8 percent (66 of 87 episodes) and 0.1 hour of FPR. The performance was analyzed statistically and proved to outperform an analytical randomized predictor.

Direito et al. (Direito et al., 2017) calculated 22 univariate features per channel using NW samples and an EEG epoch (the observational window). Each feature vector was created by concatenating the features calculated from various EEG electrodes in order to capture spatial information at the same time. To avoid overfitting, SVM was used to discover a decision function depending on training and validation sets. Bandarabadi et al. (Bandarabadi et al., 2015b) devised a method to predict epileptic episodes, which could assist epileptic subjects live longer lives. They retrieved spectral energy features and then used Support Vector Machines to classify them after picking the best ones. They observed 75.8 percent sensitivity, which meant that their classifier predicted 66 episodes from a total of 87. They concluded that utilizing these strategies after narrowing the suggested feature subset can improve seizure prediction performance. Goal of Abbasi et al (Abbasi & Esmailpour, 2017)'s research was to increase prediction accuracy and categorize various epilepsy stages from EEG signals. It classified the signal as being in a stable, epileptic, and convulsive state. The signal was divided into five levels by the authors using the Daubechies-4 wavelet to achieve this, although they only used the frequency components up to level 4 for analysis. A multilayer perceptron neural network was trained using statistical variables like mean, standard deviation, maximum, and minimum that were taken from the data. The Bonn Database was used to test the classifier's performance, and it was discovered that it achieved an accuracy rate of 98.33%.

Sabrina et al. (Belhadj et al., 2016) established an innovative framework for automatic recognition of whole-brain epileptic episodes that employs a fast PHA (potential-based hierarchical agglomerative) Clustering Algorithm and Empirical Mode Decomposition (EMD). Different distances between the IMFs, such as Euclidian, Batacharay, and Kolmogorov, were calculated and utilized as input for the PHA cluster. The results of the evaluation were very encouraging, with an overall accuracy of 98.84%.

Similarly, Orellana et al. (Orellana & Cerqueira, 2016) investigated personalised seizure detection in epilepsy employing random forest classification on one-dimensional transformed EEG data.

The authors of (Torse et al., 2017) classified EEG data as non-seizure or seizure using an ANN and EMD. Al Gahyab et al. (Al Ghayab et al., 2019) suggested an improved algorithm for detecting seizures in EEG data by combining frequency response information with the InfoGain technique. There were four primary steps in the proposed technique. The FFT (fast Fourier transform) or DWT (discrete wavelet transform) were utilised first. Secondly, each band was separated into k windows, with each window containing a collection of statistical information. Lastly, the retrieved features were ranked using InfoGain. Lastly, to categorise the EEG, each characteristic was fed into LS-SVM classifier. This methodology was deployed and tested on a reference EEG database, as well as compared to other current methods, based on several performance evaluation parameters.

Tzimourta et al. (Tzimourta et al., 2019) presented a

multicenter technique of analysis based on the DWT for automated seizure identification. A five level decomposition was employed in each EEG segment, and five features were derived from the wavelets. The feature vector obtained was employed to train a RF classifier, which was subsequently utilized to differentiate among preictal and interictal data.

However, Wu et al. (Wu et al., 2021) created a novel method for detecting HFOs in iEEG signals. There were three steps in this method: preliminary identification, extraction of features, and feature categorization. The variable cutoff of Hilbert envelopes was employed in the initial detection phase to identify EoIs from background activity, boosting the effectiveness of HFO detection. To prevent the subjective bias induced by manually retrieved features, the SDAE network was utilised to extract the (time-frequency) domain features of EoIs. The (SWAF-ABSVM) ensemble classifier was created to differentiate between HFOs and observed EoIs. This ensemble classifier solved the issue of an imbalanced class between HFOs and fHFOs, resulting in better HFO detection performance. Dedeo et al. (Dedeo & Garg, 2021) developed a method for identifying critical preictal locations and their associated frequencies in the high gamma band, which covers the range of 30 to 100 Hz, in order to diagnose convulsions in 10 (paediatric) cases at least 30 seconds before seizure onset. Further research into the potential future predictive performance of event-related future direction in this higher gamma band found that detection algorithms must accommodate varying intensities of a patient's usual extremes. Bizopoulos et al. (Bizopoulos et al., 2016) described (S2Is) Signal2Image as non trainable or trainable prefix units that change signals, such as EEG to image like representation, making them appropriate for learning image based DNN. The time performance and accuracy of 4 S2Is (signal as image, spectrogram, and both one- and two- layer CNNs) paired with a collection of 'base models (LeNet, VGGnet, AlexNet, ResNet, DenseNet), in addition to depth-wise and 1D versions of the latter were examined.

Antoniades et al. (Antoniades et al., 2016) investigated convolutional neural networks (CNNs) in a subject-independent manner and discovered meaningful features that represented IEDs. The model achieved cutting-edge classification performance, offered insights into the various types of IEDs in the group, and was unaffected by IED temporal disparities. According to the findings of this work, deep learning based feature generation is applicable for EEG and IEDs in general.

Park et al. (Park et al., 2018) proposed a deep convolutional network-based epileptic seizure detection method. The suggested network was constructed for multi channel EEG signals using 1D and 2D convolution layer and took into account spatio temporal correlation feature in epileptic seizure identification. The temporal evolution of each channel's EEG signal was considered by the 1D convolutional layer, and the spatial relationships among EEG channels were considered by the 2D convolutional layer.

Sui et al. (Sui et al., 2019) established a new recognition approach for iEEG-based localization of epileptic focals based on STFT and CNN with extra preprocessing in his paper, and developed a 15-layer CNN architecture for iEEG signal categorization. The findings with 91.8% accuracy revealed that this technique worked for localisation of focal seizure area with considerably efficient and rapid preprocessing step. Turk and Ozerdem (Turk & Ozerdem, 2019), on the other hand, employed a CNN structure to learn the properties of these scalogram data, and the classification performance of the

structure was compared to earlier studies.

Faust et al. (Faust et al., 2018) illustrated the application of various deep learning algorithms currently in use and Tian et al. (Tian et al., 2019) proposed a multiview deep feature extraction method in an attempt to identify effective features in EEG signals, which were critical for accurate seizure detection. The technique used wavelet packet decomposition (WPD) and Fast Fourier transform (FFT) to construct the first multi-view features and LeCun (LeCun et al., 2015) and Triesch (Lu & Triesch, 2019) contributed to the development of a deep CNN model with residual connections that achieved state-of-the-art classification of EEG signals in the context of epilepsy.

San-Segundo et al. (San-Segundo et al., 2019) investigated a DNN for epileptic EEG signal categorization. Two convolution layer for feature extraction and 3 fully linked layers for classification comprised the deep learning architecture.

The EEG signal provided vital information about the brain's electrical activity. The analysis of these signals was critical for the detection of epilepsy. Because of the human aspect, epilepsy identification can be subjective and potentially wrong. Machine Learning (ML) techniques were created to address this issue by removing the human factor. This strategy, however, was counter intuitive because it included the use of complicated features for epilepsy identification. Akut (Akut, 2019) et al. created a wavelet based deep learning approach that avoided the necessity of extracting features and performed considerably better on fewer datasets than existing state-of-the-art ML algorithms, and Yao et al. (Yao et al., 2019b) developed a new method for seizure/non-seizure classification based on an emerging deep learning framework, the independent recurrent neural network (IndRNN) (?). The time scales were gradually enlarged by this new technology, enabling temporal and spatial information to be recovered from the regional time duration to the full record. Cross-validation experiments were used to evaluate the noisy data across subjects.

Chen et al. (X. Chen et al., 2018) suggested an expensive active learning strategy to detect epileptic episodes. To acquire the expensive sensitive efficiency for the sample selection approach in the labelling process, a novel generic dual neural network (dual-DNN) in particular was applied. Three types of core neural networks were tested in the double DNN: 1D CNNs, recurring neural networks with LSTM units, and recurring neural networks with GRU (gated recurrent units). Hussein et al. (Hussein et al., 2019) established the practical feasibility of epilepsy detection strategy based on a deep LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory) network that exceeded cutting-edge strategies in seizure detection efficacy and robustness. In this study, Talathi and Vartak (Talathi & Vartak, 2015) concentrated on a recently introduced weight initialization using identity matrix for recurring weights in an RNN. This initialization was created using hidden nodes with non-linear Rectified Linear Units (ReLU). A simple dynamical systems perspective on the weight initialization process was also presented, allowing us to propose a modified weight initialization strategy and the author (Ahmedt-Aristizabal et al., 2020) demonstrated that recurrent deep convolutional neural networks outperformed traditional methods of machine learning for sequence modelling using average cross-validation performance. The intuitive salient information of the model, including the placement of the most particular properties of a post-stimulus window, was explained in further detail. This baseline identification approach in the

field of mental illness supported the findings of developmental and disease impacts in the pre-prodromal phase of psychosis.

Yao et al. (Yao et al., 2019a) coupled a developing deep learning framework, the independently recurring neural network (IndRNN), with an attention mechanism and a dense structure to leverage spatial and temporal discriminating characteristics and overcome seizure unpredictability. The thick structure was created to allow for optimal information transmission between levels.

Hussein (Hussein et al., 2018) presented an efficient seizure detection approach that dealt with both clean and noisy data. Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) neural networks were used in the proposed method to extract representative EEG features relevant to seizures and Birjandtalab et al. (Birjandtalab et al., 2018) used a Gaussian mixture model (GMM) to detect epileptic seizures. They obtained satisfactory accuracy results and an F-measure of 85.1.

Hussein (Hussein et al., 2018) demonstrated an effective seizure detection method that coped with both noisy and clean data. The proposed method used LSTM (Long Short-Term Memory) neural networks to retrieve representative EEG variables related to seizures, Birjandtalab et al. (Birjandtalab et al., 2018) utilised a GMM (Gaussian mixture model) to detect seizures. They got good overall accuracy as well as 85.1 F-measure. In order to reliably categorise seizure detection, Raghu et al. (Raghu et al., 2020) proposed a hybrid SVM-KNN framework that was tested on raw EEG data, with test results exhibiting up to 90% accuracy. (Sharma et al., 2018) proposed ANN classifier on the EEG activity in the brain datasets with time and frequency domain features in the literature. Amin et al. (Amin et al., 2015) introduced tritime domain techniques for selecting features in epileptic seizure detection employing statistical parameters such as frequency, line length, and energy. In a study proposed by Satapathy et al. (Satapathy et al., 2017a), they applied two model types—SVM and neural networks (or "black-box" approaches)—on an EEG dataset in order to detect seizures. The findings of the tested models demonstrated that, when contrasted to other networks, the SVM model was significantly more effective in terms of precision and time complexity (sec). Hassan and Subasi (Hassan & Subasi, 2016) used GA (genetic algorithms), SVM, and PSO (particle swarm optimization) to detect seizures. This method reached the optimum accuracy of 92.38%, Lahmiri and Shmuel (Lahmiri & Shmuel, 2018) employed the HE (Hurst exponent) to correctly classify the acquired EEG dataset into non seizure and seizure with near 97% accuracy. Time-domain feature extraction approaches utilising 9 statistical characteristics (kurtosis, standard deviation, energy, skewness, mean, line length, mode, entropy and Hurst) were determined to be appropriate for epileptic seizure identification in recent research that explored and analysed a range of features (Kumar et al., 2017).

Similar to this, Donos et al. (Donos et al., 2015) created a classifier called decision forest using statistical variables (time and frequency domains) extracted out of an EEG dataset and obtained accuracy of up to 93.8% and Hosseini et al. (Hosseini et al., 2018) achieved 96.7% accuracy using the RF with grid search optimization (RF-GSO) approach.

A review of the studies looking at ML and AI in epilepsy is shown in Table I. It covers the dataset source that was used, the ML algorithm that was looked at, and metrics such as feature analysis, number of samples, accuracy and limitations that were discovered. It demonstrates that ML remains promising

for identifying epilepsy with respect to accuracy and other metrics.

6. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

ML has solved various ES prediction issues, including manual, time-consuming and complex analysis methods. Interpretation of model is critical, because pattern recognition in data is just as important as data fitting. The accurate classification of disease and its subtypes is a key challenge in biomedicine. Massive amounts of biomedical data are now available, which can lead to the identification of more extensive sub-types. There are numerous ways wherein ML has advanced EEG analysis. The hierarchical architecture of the neural networks has greatly expanded the possibilities for learning characteristics from raw or slightly processed input.

We investigated use of various machine learning algorithms for detection of epileptic seizure in this study. For instance, traditional ML (SVM, KNN and ANN) and RF-based ML were taken into consideration due to their exceptional efficacy in epileptic seizure identification in the prior studies.

This comprehensive investigation found that traditional ML algorithms (KNN, SVM, and ANN) made a significant contribution to the analysis of brain information for seizure identification. Even so, each approach has benefits and drawbacks. SVM, for instance, has proven successful for binary classification. It has a larger computation complexity (sec), particularly in comparison to KNN and ANN, but delivers a greater degree of detection precision than ANN and KNN. While KNN can handle high-dimensional datasets, it has low detection complexity and low performance assessment measures (precision, recall, and F1-score). The precision, recall, detection accuracy and F1-score can all be increased by utilising a hybrid classification method (SVM-ANN or SVM-KNN) that integrates multiple ML models. Hybrid models are computationally more efficient than single design models, which restricts their utility in practical applications even if they can surpass single models in the accuracy of their predictions. However, a key issue with classical ML techniques is that the reasoning process utilised to produce their predictions is challenging to comprehend and is frequently left unexplained for logical rules and patterns hidden within the model (the blackbox idea). They should not be used to extract relevant information from datasets.

For instance, the RNN model often executes more quickly than CNN and LSTM, but it has worse recall, accuracy and precision. LSTM, on the other hand, has time complexity challenges when used with CHB-MIT, BONN, and other datasets for seizure detection. While using traditional ML models for epileptic seizure detection, feature extraction is a key component of the overall scheme. Therefore, selecting the right feature extraction techniques is crucial for analyzing EEG signals.

Recent studies that investigated and analysed many characteristics discovered that time-domain based feature extraction techniques with 9 statistical datasets (entropy, kurtosis, standard deviation, mean, energy, skewness, line length, mode, and Hurst) might be useful for epileptic seizure identification. It is because the aforementioned features, when used with ML models for categorising epileptic seizures based on EEG signals, have been demonstrated to generate average accuracies of 98–100%. Furthermore, it is crucial to reduce the model's sophistication by utilising a selection approach to pick a more manageable number of useful features. It leads to an examination of several feature selection approaches used mostly for dimensionality reduction.

The improvement of patients' quality of life is the main objective of ES prediction research. The bottleneck remains the expense-effective and efficient hardware implementation, not withstanding the current state of ML as it relates to ES prediction that we have provided in this study. The seizure detection system also employed decomposition, pre-processing, feature extraction, classification, and post-processing. Among the ML models, the feature engineering-based traditional ML models account for an amount of applications. Whereas excessive extraction of features will prolong the computation time and cost. For an actual system for ES predictions to be practical, rapid predictions with low-power equipment and lower processing costs are required.

One of the key causes of a prediction algorithm's poor performance is missing observations. Because of failure in communication between implantable or wearable devices with limited storage space and storage device for a number of reasons, there are often zero or almost completely zero in the seen data. The ML field has paid little attention to learning from faulty or missing data. Yet, missingness signals in systems that can provide significant amounts of information for prediction are necessary.

The complexities and one-of-a-kind objectives of epilepsy applications might considerably inspire the advancement of machine learning algorithms. The heterogeneity of epileptic patients needs tailored medical management, which necessitates proper diagnosis of every patient's stratification, such as the primary cause of epilepsy, epilepsy location and epilepsy symptoms (Alaverdyan & Lartizien, 2018; Zhao, 2017). Because epilepsy prognosis is so important to a patient's well-being, every patient's longitudinal healthcare records should be kept and examined. These are compelling reasons for developing ML theory and methods.

7. FUTURE DIRECTIONS

The interaction of various machine learning techniques that can be used more effectively in the context of epilepsy diagnosis and prognosis will be highlighted. Then we'll go over approaches for applying machine learning methods to our data, such as traditional machine learning approaches and their variations. Following that, the use of ML as well as tasks specifically related to prognosis and diagnosis will be further examined. Finally, we will examine current achievements, problems, and potential future initiatives in this subject with the intention of paving the way towards computer-aided epilepsy diagnosis and prognosis.

8. RESEARCH GAP

Dataset availability is a serious difficulty in epilepsy. As a result, there is an immediate need to aggregate, normalize, and process diverse practice records across the world in order to build a comprehensive, uniform, and holistic dataset. The optimum preprocessing methodology for the normalised and unified dataset must be determined because preprocessing method influences predictive performance and model success. It is worth noting that much work remains to be done to enhance the precision of feature selection methods. For future investigation, the right system combinations should be chosen before modifying the parameters associated with the classifiers stated here for enhanced quality. Under certain conditions, channel selection can reduce computing loads for both pattern recognition and feature extraction, enabling online computation.

It is also feasible to use cloud computing linked via 5G technology to perform real-time EEG recording interchange.

Deep learning is a hot technique in image processing when it comes to ML methods. Several electrodes are used to record EEG signals, which increases the amount of the received signal. This makes analyzing multichannel EEG signals more difficult. ES detection and prediction are often defined as tasks involving supervised learning requiring labelled dataset, which is a costly, time-consuming, and tedious operation. Using extra training data is a natural way to improve the efficacy of ML approaches.

9. CONCLUSION

In this study, we thoroughly evaluated the relevant literature and described why early ES prediction is critical, as well as how ML approaches are employed for ES prediction. In the scope of feature selection, EEG analysis, ES prediction and detection and the assessment of prediction or detection methods, ES prediction is a vast topic. This research sought to contrast and narrow down the vast number of existing strategies for Electroencephalography seizure identification and categorization based on their improved performance. The objective of this overview was to examine seizure detection strategies currently published in a number of studies. It is simple to compare alternative methods when all of the typical performance metrics parameters (e.g., specificity, sensitivity and accuracy) are available. In contrast to the results of this article, most previous survey articles solely focused on the EEG analysis, only with a few covering the advancements of prediction methods; whilst we tried to provide insights by taking into account aspects of prediction techniques, feature selection and evaluation methods, among others.

Furthermore, we identified research gaps and future work that require further investigation.

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