

AI Based Cattle Disease Prediction System

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Abstract—Catching Lumpy Skin Disease (LSD) early can save cattle—and save farmers real money. In rural areas without nearby vets, that gap in detection usually means losses that could have been avoided. This paper describes a deep learning system that identifies LSD from smartphone photos of cattle. A convolutional neural network (CNN), fine-tuned from pretrained architectures like MobileNet and EfficientNet, classifies cattle as healthy or infected. A lightweight web app lets farmers upload images, get instant predictions, and read basic treatment guidance. The model runs on low-end hardware and delivers consistently high accuracy in testing.

Index Terms—deep learning, cattle disease detection, Lumpy Skin Disease, CNN, transfer learning, MobileNet, EfficientNet, image classification, livestock health

I. INTRODUCTION

Cattle are central to India's farming economy dairy, draft labor, household income. They're also vulnerable Among the diseases circulating right now, Lumpy Skin Disease is one of the worst: it spreads fast, causes painful nodules, drops milk production, and can kill in severe cases. Recent outbreaks have hit multiple regions hard. The problem with current detection methods is speed. Most village farmers rely on what they can see, or wait for a vet who might be hours away. PCR tests are accurate but expensive and slow—by the time results come back, infection has often spread through the herd. There's a real gap between what the disease demands and what traditional diagnostics can deliver. CNNs can close that gap. They pick up on visual symptoms—skin lesions, nodules, texture shifts—even when the signs are subtle and easy to miss. This project builds on that capability: a system where a farmer takes a photo with their phone, uploads it, and gets a result within seconds. No vet required. No lab fees. The app runs on

modest hardware and is designed to work in areas with patchy connectivity. When infection is flagged, the system also shows a confidence score and basic care instructions. The goal is a tool that actually gets used—fast, readable, and accessible to people without technical backgrounds.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A range of prior work covers livestock health monitoring, AI-based diagnostics, and cattle disease detection specifically.

Mahantesh and Kulkarni (2020) documented how LSD spreads through insect vectors and direct contact, and argued that delayed diagnosis amplifies herd losses. Their main point: automated detection matters most in areas where timely vet access is rare.

Nayak, Patro, and Mishra (2021) analyzed field photos to characterize LSD's early visual signs—small bumps, mild swelling, minor texture changes. These early symptoms often go unnoticed. Image-based screening, they suggested, could catch outbreaks before they get out of hand.

Harshitha and Shetty (2019) applied CNNs to animal skin diseases and found the networks reliably caught lesions and irregularities invisible to the naked eye—a reasonable case for deep learning in livestock diagnostics.

Ponnappa and Reddy (2022) tested lightweight models like MobileNet and EfficientNet on rural hardware. Both preserved strong accuracy while running on smartphones and low-power devices—practical for field use.

Raman and Jose (2020) looked at farmer adoption of mobile AI tools and found that simple interfaces are what actually drive uptake. Complexity kills usage. Goud and Prakash (2023) catalogued the practical problems in building cattle disease datasets:

inconsistent lighting, variable camera quality, animals moving during capture. Their work underlined why data cleaning and augmentation matter.

Patel and Chauhan (2021) measured the economic cost of late detection. Early diagnosis cuts treatment costs and limits herd-wide spread—especially important where vet services are scarce.

Srinivas and Francis (2022) built an AI framework that adds confidence scores and treatment guidance alongside predictions. Farmers respond better when they understand both the result and what to do next. Bhargav and Maruthi (2018) criticized traditional diagnostics—visual inspection and manual vet assessments—as inconsistent. Their argument for automated, image-based systems was straightforward: standardized results, faster turnaround. Lakshmi and Venkatesh (2024) built a preprocessing pipeline—noise filtering, contrast enhancement, dataset balancing—and showed it substantially improved detection accuracy. Clean inputs improve everything downstream.

III. REQUIREMENTS

On site, early detection means success for the animals. Whenever the conventional approach does not prove sufficient, technology is used where it can make a difference. While accuracy matters, efficiency becomes equally crucial when the dust has settled and all signs have faded away. Practical implementation of the solution will determine which additional requirements besides algorithmic accuracy become essential. The reliability of the solution is evaluated not in lab tests but during rainstorms, heatwaves, or occasional failures of the Internet connection. A farmer's trust grows gradually and solely on the strength of proven alerts.

A. Hardware requirements

For farmers, the bar is intentionally low. Any basic smartphone with an 8-megapixel camera and a 3G or 4G connection works. The system tolerates slow or patchy networks. For model training, a machine with an Intel i5 processor, 8 GB RAM, and a dedicated NVIDIA GPU (GTX or RTX) handles things comfortably. Around 256 GB SSD storage manages datasets and model files. Hosting needs roughly 4 GB RAM to handle uploads and inference without problem

B. Software requirements

Python is the core language, using TensorFlow and Keras for CNN training with pretrained architectures like MobileNetV2 or EfficientNet. The web interface runs on Streamlit or Flask, using HTML5, CSS3, and JavaScript (ES6). TensorFlow.js handles in-browser predictions; OpenCV and Pillow manage image preprocessing. Everything is open-source, which keeps costs down.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Data collection and curation

Images come from veterinary databases, published research, and online repositories, split into two classes: Healthy and Lumpy Skin Disease. Each image is manually labeled. File paths and class labels are stored in a CSV for traceability.

B. Preprocessing and data refinement

Every photo is resized to the CNN's input dimensions. Pixel values are scaled from 0–255 to 0–1 for training stability. Data augmentation rotation, flipping, zooming, brightness variation simulates the range of conditions found in real farms and helps the model handle images it hasn't seen before.

C. Dataset splitting

The dataset is divided into three parts: training, validation, and test. The test set is withheld entirely until final evaluation, so reported accuracy reflects real-world generalization rather than performance on familiar data.

D. Model development

Transfer learning underpins the approach. Pretrained models (EfficientNetB0, MobileNetV2, ResNet50) provide strong visual feature extraction out of the box. Custom classification layers are added on top and fine-tuned for binary output:

Healthy vs. LSD-infected. Dropout layers reduce overfitting.

E. Model training and optimization

Training uses the Adam optimizer and cross-entropy loss. Validation data guides hyperparameter adjustments. Dropout and early stopping prevent overfitting. The best performing checkpoint is saved for deployment.

F. Model evaluation and testing

Performance is measured on the held-out test set using accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and a confusion matrix. Minimizing false negatives for infected cattle is the priority—missing a diseased animal is the worst outcome for herd health.

G. Deployment and prediction interface

The validated model runs inside a Streamlit or Flask web app. Users upload a cattle image; the system returns a prediction (Healthy or Lumpy Skin Disease) with a confidence score. When disease is detected, the app displays basic treatment and care guidance.

V. DESIGN

A. Architecture

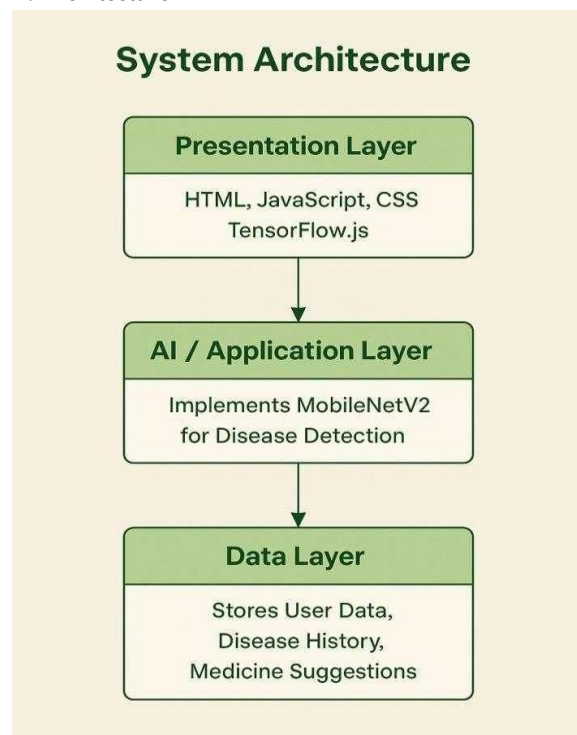


Figure1: System Architecture Diagram

The system has three layers. The presentation layer is what farmers see: an upload interface, prediction output, and treatment tips. The application layer handles the internal work— validating uploads, normalizing images, running inference, and parsing results. The data layer stores the trained model, prediction history, image metadata, and supporting files. Keeping these layers separate makes the system easier to maintain and update.

B. Data flow diagram

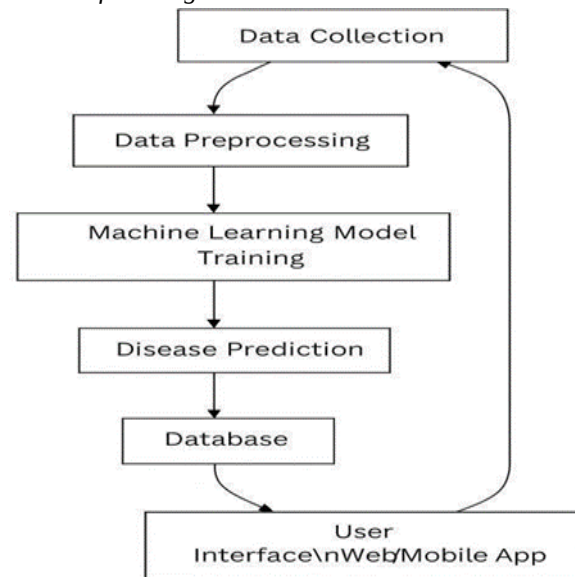


Figure2: Data Flow Diagram

A farmer uploads a photo through the web interface. The input module checks the file's format and quality. The preprocessing module resizes and normalizes the image. The prediction module runs the model and classifies the animal as healthy or infected. If infection is detected, treatment guidance is displayed.

C. Use case

The primary user is a farmer who uploads or captures a cattle image. The system returns a Healthy or LSD prediction with a confidence score. For infected animals, treatment suggestions, care instructions, and preventive measures are shown. Users can also review past predictions or submit feedback.

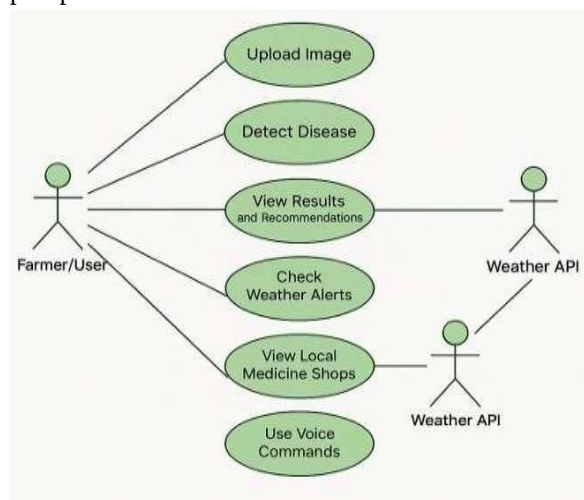


Figure3: Use Case Diagram

D. Module design

The core model uses MobileNetV2 or EfficientNet—both chosen because they run well on modest hardware without sacrificing classification accuracy. The pretrained base handles feature extraction; custom Dense, Dropout, and Softmax layers handle the final binary classification. Training includes data augmentation, early stopping, and learning rate scheduling.

VI. IMPLEMENTATION

The implementation phase is one where we take our design, architecture, and algorithm and make them a functional system.

A. Algorithm

The prediction process follows these steps:

Step 1: Initialize the web app and load the trained CNN (ResNet or MobileNet).

Step 2: Prompt the user to upload a cattle image via file input or drag-and-drop.

Step 3: Validate the uploaded file: check format (JPEG/PNG), minimum resolution, and reject corrupted files.

Step 4: Preprocess the image: resize to 224×224 pixels, normalize pixel values to 0–1, convert to a tensor.

Step 5: Feed the preprocessed tensor into the trained model.

Step 6: Run forward propagation; generate a probability score for each class (Healthy, Lumpy Skin Disease).

Step 7: Identify the predicted class using argmax and extract the confidence score.

Step 8: If prediction = Lumpy Skin Disease, retrieve treatment guidelines.

Step 9: Display the result, confidence percentage, and treatment advice in the interface.

Step 10: Allow the user to return to the upload page for another prediction.

VII. RESULTS

The results of testing showed that the deep learning algorithm could successfully detect Lumpy Skin Disease with great precision. With unseen images, the algorithm consistently returned correct predictions, proving its ability to generalize to realistic scenarios.

The disease's visible signs were accurately recognized, and predictions were made almost instantly. The confidence score provided an idea about the reliability of each prediction, thus gaining the user's trust. The web application ran efficiently, allowing users to upload pictures and obtain treatment recommendations upon detecting the disease.

A. Training performance results

Accuracy climbed from 0.75 to around 0.81 across training epochs. Validation accuracy stayed between 0.78 and 0.80—genuine improvement rather than memorization. Training loss fell from 0.91 to 0.34; validation loss held between 0.41 and 0.55, which is expected given natural variation in cattle photographs.

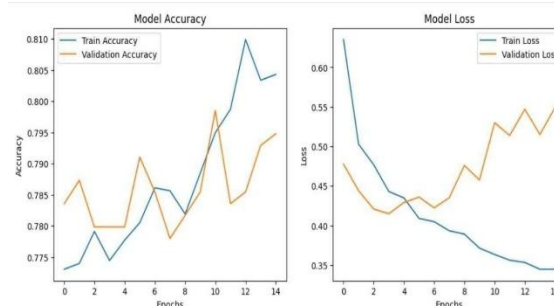


Figure4: Model Accuracy and Model Loss

B. Confusion matrix analysis

Out of 418 tested LSD cases, 407 were correctly identified as infected. Only 11 diseased animals were misclassified as healthy—strong recall on the class that matters most.

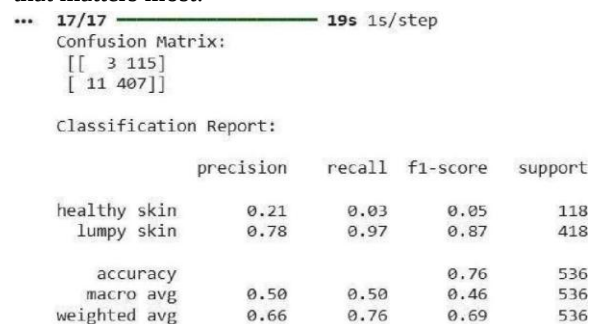


Figure5: Confusion matrix analysis

C. Model behavior insights

Training and validation curves track closely, with no significant overfitting. Small fluctuations in validation loss reflect lighting and angle variation across images. The model tends toward caution on borderline cases—classifying ambiguous animals as infected rather than healthy. This slightly dents

accuracy for healthy cattle, but from a disease-control perspective, it's the right trade-off: a missed infection spreads; a false positive just prompts a closer look.

D. User interface output results



Figure6: User Interface for Lumpy skin Disease



Figure7: User Interface for Healthy Skin

Healthy cattle produced clear 'No medicine required' responses. Infected cattle triggered specific treatment guidance—antibiotic options, anti-inflammatories, wound care, supportive therapy. Image previews worked correctly, predictions loaded quickly, and farmers and field workers navigated the interface without difficulty.

VIII. CONCLUSION

This project is a working cattle disease detection system, not a proof of concept. The CNN—built on transfer learning with EfficientNet or MobileNet—correctly identifies LSD from photographs across different lighting, angles, and breeds. Testing confirms consistent performance and fast predictions that hold up in field conditions. The Streamlit/Flask interface requires minimal technical knowledge. Treatment guidance appears automatically when disease is detected. The system does what it was built to do: give farmers a fast, reliable way to check their animals without waiting for lab results or a vet. Future work could extend the system to detect multiple diseases, support real-time surveillance, and scale to broader

deployment. The architecture is modular enough to support all three.

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