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Organized by:

Department of Computer Science and Engineering,

Department of Computer Science and Application,

Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering,

Department of Mechanical Engineering,

Mandsaur University,Mandsaur from 24 to 26 April 2025
In association with:

Contents

Preface

The National Conference on Innovative Engineering and Computational Technologies (NCIECT) invites original, high-quality research papers, case studies, and technical articles that address the latest advancements, challenges, and innovations in the fields of Computational Technologies, Mechanical Engineering, Electrical Engineering, and Sustainable Engineering. The conference will be held on April 24–26, 2025.

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- **Keynote Speaker 1:** Mr.Vinayak Pillai Name ,Data Analyst, Denken solutions
- **Keynote Speaker 2:** Mr. Sethu Sesha Synam Neeli ,Senior Database Administrator, USA(Online)
- **Keynote Speaker 3:** Mr. Mohit Menghnani ,Staff Software Engineer, Twilio
- **Keynote Speaker 4:**Ms.Omotayo F. Salako, IT Audit & Cybersecurity Risk Specialist ISACA Advocate — ISACA Mentor , Bank of America, USA(Online)
- **Keynote Speaker 5:** Mr.Vikas Prajapati,Senior Oracle HCM Analyst Twilio - Montogomery Country Government
- **Keynote Speaker 6:** Mr.Pushpalika Chatterjee, Senior Software Engineering Manager in Payments, The Huntington National Bank, USA(Online)
- **Keynote Speaker 7:** Mr. Niravkumar Prajapati,System Engineer, eRevival LLC Baltimore, MD, USA

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Overview of the conference themes or tracks:

- Track 1: Computer Science

- Track 2: Electrical and Electronics Engineering
- Track 3: Mechanical Engineering

Research Papers

Track 1: Computer Science

Track 2: Electrical and Electronics Engineering

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About the Conference Organizers

About Mandsaur University

Mandsaur University (MU) was established under the M.P. Act No. 17 of 2015 of The Madhya Pradesh Niji Vishwavidyalaya Sanshodhan Adhiniyam, 2015. Although MU is the youngest university in the region, it has over two decades of distinguished experience in providing quality education through its 12 institutes spread over 900,000 square feet of lush green campuses. MU has well-qualified faculty members with industry and academic experience to train young minds in diverse disciplines, including Engineering, Pharmacy, Management, Commerce, Computer Applications, Agriculture, Life Sciences, Forensic Science, Ayush, Education, Fashion Design, Tourism & Hospitality, Physical Education, Journalism & Mass Communication. The university has state-of-the-art laboratories fully equipped with modern equipment for study and research in various disciplines.

The university is committed to nurturing talent, promoting research, and equipping students with the skills required to excel in their careers and contribute to society.

Vision: To be a center of excellence in education and research,shaping leaders who make a meaningful impact on society.

Mission: To provide high-quality education that fosters innovation, creativity, and social responsibility, while promoting holistic development in an inclusive academic environment.

About Department of Computer Application

With the emergence of technology and digitalization, the scope of technology has redefined the basis of human livelihood, thus making computer skill the most vital skill set of today's era. The Faculty of IT and Computer Science offers undergraduate, graduate, PhD. program in computer application which seeks to impart within the students the most vital computer skills required to shape the course of the world with innovation. Mandsaur University's Computer Application program is strategically designed in such a manner that exposes the students to the most cutting edge technologies while developing the fundamental elements of computing.

The curriculum provides students with an exposure to the software aspects of computing which include Data Science, Artificial Intelligence, Internet of things, Cloud Computing, Security and Networking. The faculty is equipped with state of the art research facilities and laboratories which allow students to innovate and research solutions for the betterment of the society. Our Elite league of faculties and experts from IITs and NITs impart within the students, the most vital practical understanding of computer application

About Department of Computer Science and Engineering

The Department of Computer Science and Engineering offers 4-year B.Tech. program, in Computer Science and Engineering. It also offers M.Tech. in Computer Science and Engineering. The focus of the department is on developing industry standard projects by our B.Tech. and M.Tech. students, excellent teaching learning process, better alumni relations, good Industry attachment program through project semester and outcome based education. Department has unique outcome based industry inclined courseware and teaching methodology, to develop students into well-prepared & future ready computing professionals, by using standard industry practices in projects and skills development. Department focus on imparting real-time industry standard practical skills to the students. We have excellent infrastructure backed up by 1:1 ratio 30 Mbps leased line with full WiFi Laboratories. The vision of the department is "To make the students as employable engineers through knowledge, skills improvement, positive attitude and motivation by mentoring, using best teaching practices and exposure to the latest technology".
The faculties are well qualified and experienced faculty members and well-equipped laboratories to teach and conduct research in multifarious areas such as Artificial Intelligence & Machine Learning, Blockchain Technology, Web Development. The faculty of CSE department has organized many seminars, staff/faculty/entrepreneur development programs and workshops sponsored by the Mandsaur University, MP-COST, UGC, IIC, various societies and industries related to the field of Computer Science. The faculty of CSE out various research projects, and published many papers in international and national journals indexed in SCI, SCOPUS, WoS, UGC care etc. Faculty of CSE also encourage young entrepreneurs to convert their novel ideas into commercial products. Many faculty members are the recognized supervisors of Mandsaur University for guiding research scholar leading to Ph.D.

About Department of Mechanical Engineering

Mechanical engineering at Mandsaur University has come up with a complete revision, of course curriculum; we introduced the future ready subjects into the curriculum such as Robotics & Automation and Mathematical modeling for problem solving, Renewable Energy etc.
We are also coming up with more practical & industry connected teaching pedagogy

such as project based learning, Experimental Learning etc.
We at the department have all facilities which require in understanding of core areas including mechanics, dynamics, thermodynamics, materials science, structural analysis, and electricity. In addition to these core principles, mechanical engineers use tools such as computeraided design (CAD), computer-aided manufacturing (CAM), and product lifecycle management to design and analyze manufacturing plants, industrial equipment and machinery, heating and cooling systems, transport systems, aircraft, watercraft, robotics, medical devices, weapons, and others. It is the branch of engineering that involves the design, production, and operation of machinery
"Enjoy the learning of Mechanical Engineering at Mandsaur University"

Contact Information

For further inquiries or details regarding the conference, please contact

- Email: [niect@meu.edu.in]
- Prof. Dr. Firoj Perwej (CSE Department) Phone: +917070514145
- Dr. Parth Gautam (CSA Department) Phone: +91 7669463833
- Dr. Manish Jain (EE & EL Department) Phone: +91 9802844510
- Dr. Kashi raja Rao(Mechanical Department) Phone: +91 9602644850
- Address: Bypass Square, Revas Devda Road, S.H.-31, Mandsaur (M.P) -458001

Track 01: Computer Science

E Learning Platform using Blockchain Technology

1st Mr. Kartik Dusad
M.Tech Department of CSE
Netaji Subhas University of Technology
Azad Hind Fauj Marg, Delhi, India 110078
kartikdusad55@gmail.com

2nd Prof. B.K Singh
Professor, Department of CSE
Netaji Subhas University of Technology
Azad Hind Fauj Marg, Delhi,India 110078
Bizender@nsut.ac.in

***Abstract*—Abstract—This paper presents a Prototype e-learning system built on blockchain technology to enhance Clarity in evaluation and support curriculum personalization in Post- Secondary Education. A key feature of this platform is its ability to automate evaluations and securely issue digital credentials. Engineered to be adaptable to various pedagogical approaches and content types , it demonstrates the advantages of a blockchain-based system for students and educators. Our evaluation indicates that this approach can strengthen confidence in digital education institutions and evaluation methodologies, academic records, and credential verification.**

***Index Terms*—Keywords—proof-of-concept,blockhain technology,transparency ,credential verification**

I. Introduction

Blockchain is a decentralized digital ledger that securely records transactions across a distributed network.Every participant in the blockchain network holds a copy of the data, which is structured into blocks and encrypted for security, forming a continuous chain. Because blockchain architecture prevents alterations to existing blocks, every transaction remains traceable to its original source.

This technology is capable of storing various forms of digital information, including agreements, credentials, and transaction records. Since the data is securely distributed among all participants, any fraudulent activity can be easily detected, enhancing trust and transparency. Blockchain, also known as distributed ledger technology (DLT), facilitates secure transactions, contract execution, and asset transfers with minimal costs.

A typical example of blockchain usage is in cryptocurrency transactions. For instance, if one user transfers digital assets to another, the network uses cryptographic verification through public and private key pairs to authenticate the identities of both parties. Once initiated, the transaction is broadcast to a memory pool, where it is verified and validated. The process of reaching an agreement among network nodes to approve the transaction is known as consensus.

Upon reaching consensus, a new block is added to the blockchain and shared across all nodes in the network. Each node updates its copy of the ledger with the new block, which contains all validated transactions within a specific timeframe.

Identify applicable funding agency here. If none, delete this.

The block is cryptographically linked to the preceding one using a digital signature, maintaining a continuous and immutable chain. This consensus mechanism is often facilitated through mining, where participants compete to solve cryptographic puzzles to validate transactions. The decentralized structure ensures that all

nodes verify and accept new blocks based on predefined rules. Each transaction is timestamped, linking it to previous blocks and ensuring a sequential record of events. This mechanism makes blockchain a highly secure and reliable digital ledger. The system relies on cryptographic techniques such as the SHA-256 hashing algorithm to prevent unauthorized modifications. Any attempt to alter stored data would disrupt the entire chain, making tampering virtually impossible.

In essence, blockchain is a transparent, decentralized, and tamper-resistant system that enhances data integrity and security. It operates through distributed computing and consensus protocols, ensuring the accuracy of recorded transactions. Beyond financial applications, blockchain serves as a foundation for decentralized systems in supply chains, digital identity management, and secure data sharing. By maintaining a complete and verifiable transaction history, blockchain technology offers a reliable method for securing digital interactions across various industries.

A. *Features of Blockchain Technology*

I. Immutability : Immutability refers to the inability to alter or modify something once it has been recorded. This characteristic is fundamental to blockchain technology, ensuring that the network remains secure, permanent, and tamper-proof. But how is this integrity maintained?

Unlike traditional financial systems, blockchain operates on a decentralized model rather than relying on a central authority. It ensures security by utilizing a network of distributed nodes, each maintaining a copy of the digital ledger. Before a transaction is added to the blockchain, every participating node must verify its validity. If the majority of nodes reach a consensus that the transaction is legitimate, it is recorded in the ledger. This decentralized verification process enhances transparency and protects the system from fraud or manipulation. As a result, no single entity can modify or insert transactions without approval from the majority of nodes, reinforcing the blockchain's resistance to unauthorized changes. II. Decentralized: Blockchain operates as a decentralized network, meaning no single authority or individual controls its infrastructure. Instead, it is maintained collectively by a distributed network of nodes, ensuring that no central entity governs its operations. A key benefit of blockchain technology is its capability to empower users. Unlike traditional systems that rely on intermediaries, blockchain allows individuals to interact with the network directly via the internet. Users can securely store various digital assets, including cryptocurrencies, important documents, contracts,and other valuable data, without the need for a centralized governing body. Access and control over these assets are managed through private keys, granting users complete ownership and security over their holdings. This decentralized model shifts control back to individuals, ensuring greater autonomy and protection of digital assets.

III. Less Failure: Blockchain systems are highly structured and fault-tolerant, as they operate independently of human calculations. This significantly reduces the risk of errors caused by human oversight, making system failures rare.Decentralization further enhances user control over their assets. Individuals no longer need to rely on intermediaries to manage their resources; instead, they have direct access and oversight. As long as network participants work together, they can collectively maintain and verify the system without external intervention.

IV. Less Prone to Breakdown: Blockchain's decentralized nature makes it highly resistant to malicious attacks. Hacking the system is not only complex but also extremely costly, making it an impractical target for cybercriminals. This inherent security significantly reduces the likelihood of system failure.

V. No Involvement of the Third-Party: Due to its decentralized nature, blockchain operates independently without relying on external entities, minimizing potential complications.

VI. Zero Scams: Since blockchain operates entirely on algorithms, it eliminates the possibility of manipulation. The system ensures that no individual can exploit it for personal gain.

VII. Transparency: Every change made on the blockchain is visible, enhancing its transparenThe unique design of the system makes it highly secure and accessible to all users, while also making it difficult for hackers to compromise.

VIII. Improved Safety: Since blockchain operates without a central authority, no individual can easily alter the network for personal gain. Additionally, encryption provides an extra layer of security to the system. But what makes blockchain more secure than other technologies? The answer lies in its use of cryptography. By combining cryptographic techniques with decentralization, blockchain ensures a high level of protection for users. Cryptography is a complex mathematical process designed to safeguard data from unauthorized access and attacks. Every piece of information on the blockchain undergoes cryptographic hashing. Simply put, this process obscures the original data by converting it into a unique fixed-length value using a mathematical algorithm. Every block in the chain contains its unique hash along with the hash of the previous block. Any attempt to modify data would trigger a change in all related hash values, making tampering extremely difficult. Data access on the blockchain is secured through a private key, while transactions require a public key, ensuring both security and restricted access.

B. Hashing is Irreversible!

Hashing is an intricate process that remains irreversible and unchangeable. The security of the system is upheld by the impossibility of deriving a private key from a public key. Even the slightest alteration in input data generates an entirely new hash, preventing unauthorized modifications. To manipulate the blockchain, an attacker would need to alter every piece of data across all nodes in the network. With potentially billions of users each maintaining a copy of the ledger, hacking millions of machines would be nearly impossible and extremely costly. This makes hashing one of the most valuable features of blockchain technology. Users can trust that their digital data remains secure, as the system is designed to be resistant to intrusion and unauthorized access.

C. Distributed Ledger

A public ledger provides complete transparency by displaying all relevant details of a transaction and its participants. Since all information is openly accessible, there is no way to conceal activities. However, private or federated blockchains function differently, offering restricted access while still allowing a significant number of participants to monitor transaction because the ledger is maintained collectively by all users on the network, processing power is distributed across multiple machines, enhancing efficiency. This decentralized structure makes blockchain one of the most valuable innovations in digital record-keeping, creating a system that can rival traditional ledgers.

Key Features of a Blockchain Ledger

I. Prevention of Unauthorized Changes: The distributed ledger quickly detects suspicious activity or tampering. With numerous nodes verifying transactions, tracking all changes is seamless, ensuring that no single entity can manipulate the data.

II.Verification and Consensus: Nodes function as verifiers within the network. When a user attempts to add a new block, the transaction must be validated by other nodes before it is approved, ensuring integrity and consensus across the system., it must first be validated by others, ensuring fair participation and preventing unilateral modifications.

III. Equal Participation: No individual or entity receives preferential treatment within the network. Every participant follows the same validation process before adding a block, regardless of their resources or influence.

IV.Network Management: Every active node plays a role in maintaining the ledger and validating transactions, ensuring that the blockchain functions effectively.

Motivation : Challenges in E Learning Some of the challenges found in previosuly E Learning are :

I. Assessment Transparency: Assessment is a crucial component of the education system, as it influences both teaching and learning while transforming knowledge into recognized credentials. However, a lack of transparency in assessment processes can create tension and distrust can arise between educational institutions and students due to concerns about assessment fairness. Brown Jr. (1999) emphasized issues related to the validity, reliability, and transparency of evaluations., pointing to evidence that evaluators often struggle to design fair and transparent exams. To enhance assessment transparency, previous studies have suggested that educators and institutions should provide students with:

- Clear assessment objectives
- Defined knowledge requirements for mastery
- Transparent assessment procedures
- Detailed marking criteria and performance standards

An e-learning system can mandate the inclusion of these elements to improve assessment transparency. Integrating blockchain technology can further enhance this by leveraging smart contracts to automate evaluations based on predefined criteria, objectives, and grading standards.This would be especially beneficial in scenarios where assessments involve automated or code-assisted marking.

II. Customized and Inclusive Curriculum:Blockchain technology can enhance the transparency and credibility of course content and assessments, fostering greater recognition of qualifications across educational institutions. This could lead to the development of a global e-learning marketplace, where students have access to a diverse, interdisciplinary curriculum that integrates courses from multiple institutions. By structuring online degree programs and learning pathways as smart contracts, students could personalize and modify their educational experiences to align with their needs and goals. This increased autonomy and flexibility could boost learner engagement and motivation.

III. Authenticity and Verification of E-Learning Credentials: Online learning credentials often face skepticism and are perceived as less credible in both developed and developing countries (Andersson & Grönlund, 2009, p. 7). In the United States, fewer than one-third of university faculty members recognize the value and legitimacy of online education, a perception that has remained largely unchanged for nearly a decade (Allen & Seaman, 2013, p.6).

IV. Ensuring accountability and transparency is particularly crucial in higher education, which follows an audit-based quality control framework (Hoecht, 2006). Employers, in particular, rely on the integrity of assessments, as they directly impact hiring decisions and workforce competency (Brown, 1999, p.58). A blockchain-based system can enhance the credibility of online credentials by embedding assessments into smart contracts. These contracts would automate assessment procedures while allowing external observers to verify the credentialing process, ensuring clarity on how qualifications are awarded. This approach also provides accrediting agencies with a reliable mechanism to validate information from educational institutions, ultimately improving the trustworthiness and quality of online education (Alammary et al., 2019, p.15).

Existing Projects:

Several blockchain-based initiatives have already been developed in the field of education. This paper examines three prominent projects in detail: Blockcerts, Sony Global Education (GED) Blockchain, and the OpenLearn Blockchain from the Open University. A comparative overview of these projects is presented in Table 2.

Table 2. Overview of Existing Blockchain-Based Education Projects: Blockcerts (MIT Media Lab, 2018), Sony Global Education Blockchain (Sony Global Education, 2017), and OpenLearn Blockchain (Open University, 2018).

Comparison of Blockchain Based Education Projects :

Project (Based on)	Features
Blockcerts (Bitcoin)	Education providers can store a batch of certificates by paying for a Bitcoin transaction, storing data in the OP RETURN transaction field on the global Bitcoin blockchain.
Sony GED Blockchain (Hyperledger Fabric)	Developers at education institutions can use their application programming interface (API) to securely store learning history data and certificates, integrating with third-party e-learning systems.
OpenLearn Blockchain (Ethereum)	An experimental plugin for Moodle, a popular course management system, has been developed. Achievement badges can be stored on the Ethereum blockchain. Students can register for courses and receive badges in a "Student Learning Passport."

Table 2

Fig. 1.

The Blockchain-Enabled Virtual University:

This section outlines the design and development of our platform, focusing on the challenges discussed in Section 2. Figure 2 presents a high-level overview of the technical architecture of our Blockchain University system and its demonstrator. The platform includes client applications and supplementary services that interact with the blockchain. These applications and services connect to the blockchain through RESTful web APIs, utilizing HTTP(S) and the widely adopted JSON data format (Bülthoff & Maleshkova,2014).

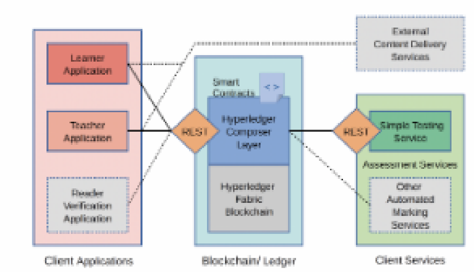

Figure 2. Component architecture overview of the demonstrator system built (components in dashed line boxes were not built)

Fig. 2.

Structuring the Blockchain Framework :

This explanation emphasizes that, similar to a traditional database, blockchain requires a structured schema to manage data and establish relationships. This schema is shared across the network and uniformly adopted by all participants. However, altering an existing schema is complex, requiring a fork in permissionless blockchains or a backward-compatible update in permissioned systems.

In our design, we adopt an object-oriented approach where data objects inherit from parent categories, such as participants (representing peers or actors in the blockchain) and assets (representing tangible or intangible items tracked within the system). This structured inheritance ensures flexibility while maintaining the integrity of the blockchain network.

Participants in the Blockchain Network: Our system supports three primary types of participants, each with distinct roles and access permissions: a.Teacher: Includes lecturers, teaching assistants, and tutors who create and manage educational content. b.Learner: Encompasses both campus-based students and distance learners who enroll in courses and complete assessments. c.Reader: Represents external entities such as employers and higher education institutions that can query or verify academic records. These participant categories ensure a structured and transparent interaction within the blockchain-enabled educational platform. **Assets in the Blockchain-Enabled E-Learning System:**The asset objects in our system are designed to address key e-learning challenges while maintaining a minimally viable structure. These assets define the core components of our blockchain-based education platform:

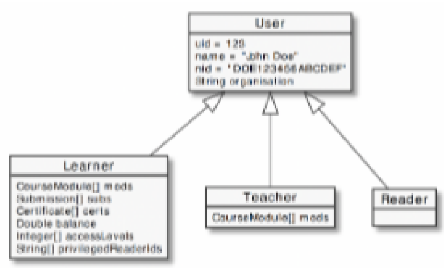

Figure 4. Class diagrams of participant objects on our blockchain

a.Curriculum: A personalized collection of courses selected by a learner. b.CourseModule: An individual course created and managed by a teacher. c.ModuleUnit: A sub-component of a CourseModule, representing specific lessons or topics. d.Assessment: A task or examination included within a ModuleUnit to evaluate learner progress. e.Submission: A response or solution submitted by a learner for an Assessment. f.Certificate: A verifiable credential issued by a teacher upon successful completion of an Assessment, CourseModule, or entire Curriculum.This structured approach ensures transparency, accountability, and efficient tracking of academic progress within the blockchain ecosystem.

Figure 5. Class diagrams of asset objects on our blockchain

D. Blockchain Operations on Assets :

Although traditional database systems rely on CRUD (Create, Read, Update, Delete) operations, blockchain fundamentally operates differently. Instead of direct modifications, blockchain enforces an immutable ledger where data integrity is preserved. The only possible operations are:

a.Read: Retrieve existing records from the blockchain. b.Append: Add new records to indicate the creation, update, or deletion of an asset. Rather than directly modifying or deleting data, updates and deletions are recorded as new transactions, ensuring full transparency and traceability of changes over time.

E. Structuring Smart Contracts

Smart contracts function as predefined transaction scripts, much like stored procedures in traditional relational databases. When a transaction is initiated on the blockchain, it activates the relevant section of a smart contract, which is the only method by which a peer can modify blockchain data. These scripts execute on blockchain nodes, proposing updates that are only accepted if a consensus is reached among participants. Once approved, these changes become permanent and cannot be altered.

Algorithm 1 presents a streamlined transaction script in the Hyperledger Composer environment. Each transaction takes a set of inputs, checks them against contract conditions and the current blockchain state, and decides whether to approve the transaction. If the conditions are met, assets on the blockchain are created or updated per the contract terms; otherwise, the transaction is rejected.

```
transac. tx(inputs)
  if contracts conditions met then,
    ... ← generate or modify blockchain object(s)
        return transac Approved ← upon achieving N/w
consensus
  else
    return transac Declined
  end if


end transac
```

A smart contract generally comprises multiple transactions and can also define and manage various blockchain-stored components, including:

I. Assets Controlled by the Contract – The smart contract governs specific assets, enabling automated access and updates.

II. Contract Terms – A structured sequence of transaction operations with embedded scripts to validate conditions and handle exceptions.

III. Digital Signatures – Participants authenticate transactions by signing contracts with their private keys, ensuring security and integrity.

To develop our proof-of-concept system, we designed smart contracts to handle curriculum personalization and assessment processes. Each of these contracts included five transactions, as illustrated in Figure 6.

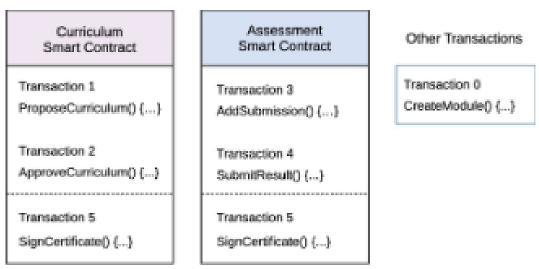

Figure 6

Figure 6 presents an overview of the curriculum and assessment smart contracts, detailing their associated transactions. The SignCertificate transaction is optional and can be incorporated into both contracts, allowing certificates to be issued for individual courses or entire curricula.

F. Findings

The demonstrations revealed that significant time and effort were required to explain blockchain technology, its functionality, and the advantages of using smart contracts for assessments. This indicated that the user interface and instructional materials were insufficiently clear and that general awareness of blockchain technology and its benefits remains limited.

Overall, the demonstrator system achieved moderate success. All participants (N = 4) provided positive feedback. Table 3 presents the response values for the first eight structured questions, using a scale where 1 represents Strongly Disagree, 2 for Disagree, 3 for Neither Agree nor Disagree, 4 for Agree, and 5 for Strongly Agree. Notably, all participants expressed willingness to enroll in a similar platform in the future, highlighting its transparency, reliability, and user experience.

G. Enhanced Reliabilty:

All participants (N = 4) concurred that the enhanced transparency and verifiable record-keeping could strengthen their trust in online education providers and credentials. Half of the participants (N = 2) believed that securely storing detailed records on the blockchain would help prevent future disputes regarding educational history.

Additionally, two participants (N = 2) suggested that institutions might prefer operating a private blockchain instance rather than joining a global network. They also proposed incorporating a community-driven rating system to further enhance reputation management within the platform.

H. Flexible privacy settings:

The access control feature in the learner application received highly positive feedback. Participants (N = 3) appreciated the learner-specific access controls and preview options. This highlights the effectiveness of permissioned blockchains in safeguarding privacy.

I. Enhanced assessment transparency:

The feedback on the assessment features was largely positive, particularly regarding the “assessment contract” feature and the clarity of marking criteria:

Most participants (N = 3) felt that transparency in marking criteria improved assessment feedback. Participants (N = 3) believed the system could help resolve student-teacher disputes, though it might not necessarily reduce their frequency. Participants (N = 2) appreciated the “assessment contract” interface, recognizing its role in reminding learners before submissions, though some noted it could also add stress. One participant highlighted that increased transparency depends on the quality of the provided information (e.g., expectations, rubric), which ultimately relies on course creators. Additionally, participants (N = 2) suggested logging more special requests on the blockchain, such as assessment appeals and extenuating circumstances.

Effective Personalization Support:

Our curriculum personalization features received high praise, with all participants (N = 4) commending the user interface for its clarity and ease of use.

Additionally, the direct messaging support was unanimously appreciated, with all participants agreeing that it would serve as an excellent channel for administrative and pastoral assistance.

II. Conclusion

We developed a prototype blockchain-based e-learning platform that utilized smart contracts to manage assessments and curricula while gathering user feedback on its features. Our work demonstrated the potential of blockchain technology to enhance transparency and trust in assessment processes and educational credentials. Additionally, we illustrated how flexible access control policies can be effectively implemented within a permissioned blockchain for e-learning applications.

Importance of Peer Execution and Consensus:

The key advantages of blockchain technology in e-learning lie in its peer-executed assessments and consensus-driven validation, along with the secure, decentralized storage of learner records. By leveraging transparent smart contracts across multiple blockchain nodes, the system ensures impartiality in assessments and credential issuance, enhancing trustworthiness. While consensus is not essential for curriculum personalization, the distributed storage of curriculum data plays a crucial role in supporting credential verification.

III. Limitations:

Some of the limitations found were :

Human Considerations: Many enhancements offered by our system are constrained by human involvement. The accuracy and effectiveness of information and interactions still rely on individual teachers and learners. Educators should actively engage students in pre-assessment activities to develop a shared understanding of these criteria.

Varied assessment formats:Our design primarily adopted a transactional approach to assessments, where a learner submits work, receives a grade, and obtains results. However, real-world assessments are often more interactive, including real-time evaluations, practical tasks, group projects, presentations, and interviews. Educational institutions rely on these diverse assessment methods to comprehensively evaluate learning outcomes and transferable skills.

Regulatory and administrative challenges: Our system has the potential to enable a global, open, and adaptable marketplace for curriculum personalization. However, it does not address the complexities of aligning higher education regulations, financial structures, and institutional governance across diverse educational systems and jurisdictions worldwide.

Emerging technologies: Permissioned blockchain technologies are still in their early stages and not yet fully mature. There are ongoing concerns regarding their scalability, security, and ability to handle high transaction speeds and volumes.

General Awareness:General understanding of blockchain functionalities and benefits appeared to be limited, with most perceptions centered around immutability and security. Concepts like peer execution and consensus were not widely recognized. To bridge this gap, consumer-facing blockchain applications should incorporate animations and comprehensive explanations to effectively convey these principles.

IV. Potential Developments

Our study was constrained by the limited number of participants and the short duration of use. Conducting a future study on a similar blockchain-based e-learning platform with a larger user base over an extended period would help validate the proposed benefits more comprehensively.

V. Further Work

Further research should explore how smart contracts could be adapted for different assessment types, including peer assessments, self-assessments, and group-based evaluations. Expanding smart contracts to encompass complete sets of higher education learning outcomes would be particularly valuable.

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MATLAB vs. Python: An Empirical Comparison of Computational Efficiency and Code Readability

1st Prof. Jyotsana Goyal
Department of Computer Science
Medi-Caps University
Indore ,India
jyotsana.goyal@medicaps.ac.in

2nd Aditya Tiwari
Department of Computer Science
Medi-Caps University
Indore, India
en22cs301071@medicaps.ac.in

3rd Aditya Vyas
Department of Computer Science
Medi-Caps University
Indore, India
en22cs301074@medicaps.ac.in

4th Aditya Singh Chouhan
Department of Computer Science
Medi-Caps University
Indore, India
en22cs301066@medicaps.ac.in

***Abstract*—Mathematical and statistical principles have been effectively taught to university students with the help of various programming languages, i.e., MATLAB, Python, and R. All these programming languages have different tools and features that make different areas of learning mathematics and statistics easy. MATLAB, with its extensive list of built-in functions, has been employed to teach advanced mathematical topics such as calculus, linear algebra, and numerical methods for decades. Its customized environment makes it especially suitable for students to learn mathematical problem-solving using matrix manipulation and numerical simulation. MATLAB has, therefore, become an integral part of most science and engineering curricula where learning and application of basic mathematical principles are the core.**

Python is an open-source programming language that has traveled a long way in academic and professional circles, particularly in the domain of data science. Its simplicity and flexibility make it a perfect language to learn statistics, especially in environments that deal with big data. Python libraries such as NumPy, Pandas, and Matplotlib make statistical analysis, data manipulation, and visualization easy for students. Also, its compatibility to work with machine learning libraries such as TensorFlow and Scikit-learn makes it a wonderful tool to introduce students to advanced statistical and data science concepts. Python's pervasiveness and availability in industries make students proficient in it highly portable in today's data economy.

R, though more technical in application, is one of the top statistical analysis software. R is most effectively applied in big data analysis and complex statistical procedures. Although R is more complex and may be harder for the novice to learn than Python, it is best served by its library of statistical packages and abilities. R is most effectively applied in preprogrammed, prepackaged statistical analysis, and is able to simplify decision-making procedures. R provides the user with an easy way of running advanced statistical models and obtaining useful information from large datasets, and as such is an essential tool applied in epidemiology, economics, and the social sciences. Because of this, though Python is best applied in learning simple statistics, R's complexity and level of customizability make it the primary tool for more complex, technical statistical procedures and big data analysis. R and Python, both in their respective areas of ability, are essential tools that must be learned by students in order to master the art of decision-making based on data in the economy today.

***Index Terms*—MATLAB, Python, R Programming**

I. Introduction

The increasing reliance on computational tools in education and industry necessitates a critical comparison between MATLAB and Python. Both languages have distinct advantages and are widely used in academic and professional settings for numerical computation, data analysis, and machine learning. As computational methods become more integral to research and development, particularly in scientific and engineering fields, it is important to understand the strengths and weaknesses of these two widelyused languages. Each of them offers unique capabilities that suit different applications, and choosing the right tool can significantly impact the effectiveness of a project, research study, or learning experience.

MATLAB, a proprietary software developed by MathWorks, is highly regarded for its user-friendly interface and extensive built-in functions tailored for engineering and scientific applications. It excels in matrix operations, numerical simulations, and data visualization, making it an essential tool for researchers and students in fields such as engineering, physics, chemistry, and applied mathematics. MATLAB's core strength lies in its highly optimized toolboxes, which are designed to handle specialized tasks such as signal processing, control systems, image processing, and computational finance. With its specialized functions and consistent user interface, MATLAB is often considered the go-to language for solving complex mathematical models, simulations, and data analysis in academic research and industry-specific applications.

Python, an open-source programming language, has gained immense popularity due to its versatility, extensive libraries, and strong community support. Its simplicity and readability, along with a vast ecosystem of libraries and frameworks, have made Python a dominant force in fields ranging from web development to artificial intelligence. With powerful packages such as NumPy, SciPy, and Pandas, Python has become a central tool in data science, machine learning, and artificial intelligence. These packages offer efficient handling of large datasets, statistical analysis, and machine learning algorithms, positioning Python as a leading language in data-driven industries. Unlike MATLAB, Python is freely accessible, making it an attractive choice for students and professionals alike. Its open-source nature also means that it continues to evolve rapidly, with frequent updates and contributions from a global developer community.

While MATLAB provides an excellent environment for numerical analysis and technical computing, Python's broader applicability makes it a preferred choice for general-purpose programming. Python is not limited to scientific computing, but is also widely used in software development, automation, web development, and system scripting. The language's readability and simplicity allow for rapid development and seamless integration with various technologies. Python's clean syntax and ease of learning make it.

II. MATLAB VS. PYTHON

MATLAB is best suited for users needing quick prototyping, utilizing specific toolboxes, and who prioritize ease of use and integration within the MATLAB environment. Its built-in functions and specialized toolboxes, such as Simulink, make it particularly useful for applications in control systems, signal processing, and numerical computing. MATLAB also offers a dedicated IDE with robust debugging tools, enabling users to efficiently test and optimize their code. Additionally, MATLAB's proprietary nature ensures stability and consistent performance, making it a preferred choice for industries that require high precision and reliability in computations. Moreover, MATLAB has strong visualization capabilities, allowing users to create high-quality plots, graphs, and interactive visual representations of data, making it a popular choice for engineers and scientists. However, the cost of MATLAB licenses and toolboxes can be a limitation for students and independent researchers. The closed-source nature of MATLAB also restricts modifications and communitydriven enhancements.

Python excels in scenarios requiring open-source flexibility, extensive libraries, scalability, and integration with other technologies, making it ideal for research, development, and production environments across various domains including image processing. With libraries like NumPy, SciPy, TensorFlow, and OpenCV, Python is extensively used in artificial intelligence, deep learning, and automation. Its ability to integrate with other languages such as C, C++, and Java further enhances its usability in large-scale ideal for those starting with programming. Additionally, Python's support for multiple programming paradigms, including object-oriented, imperative, and functional programming, gives developers flexibility in solving problems. Furthermore, Python is widely adopted in industries beyond academia, including finance, web development, gaming, and automation. Its use in machine learning and deep learning has grown exponentially, thanks to packages like TensorFlow and Keras, which have made Python the primary language for artificial intelligence and data science projects, applications. Moreover, Python's open-source nature means continuous updates and contributions from a global community, ensuring access to the latest advancements in computing. Python's extensive ecosystem includes frameworks for web development (Django, Flask), data visualization (Matplotlib, Seaborn), and parallel computing, making it a highly versatile language. Additionally, Python's ability to handle large datasets, coupled with its efficiency in automation and scripting, makes it an attractive choice for data scientists and software engineers. Its readability and ease of learning make it a preferred language for both beginners and professionals working in diverse technical fields, while its open-source community continuously works on improving performance and usability.

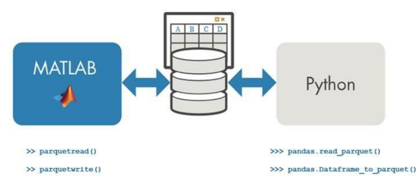

Fig. 1. MatLab vs. Python

III. Basics of MatLab

Engineers and data analysts are the main users of MatLab, a computer language, for numerical calculations. When first purchasing Matlab, a range of toolboxes are available to further improve the basic capabilities that are already available. In addition to being accessible on Windows, Macintosh, and Unix platforms, Matlab can also be used by students on personal computers.

The main benefit of using MatLab is how user-friendly it makes data visualization. MatLab lets consumers see their data more intuitively, as opposed to requiring a basic understanding of computer science principles or coding. Users have complete choice over how their data are presented because to the user-friendly format in which data are presented both before and after analysis. This is especially crucial for people without extensive training in statistics, as it is not necessary to comprehend the nuances of a process when the changes are clearly displayed in a table or graph. This implies that MatLab can also generate studies that are easily understood by the general public, which could facilitate large-scale data analysis for companies that work with it.

The advantage of this visualization extends beyond the two-dimensional structure of other applications, such SAS or SPSS, and enables a more realistic understanding of the data in practical situations. One may examine the rises and falls in the output in a way that makes sense given how we live in three dimensions, as opposed to trying to cram several components into a number of intricate models to comprehend how each one interacts with the data. This keeps enhancing the appeal of MatLab by improving the readability of analyses and humanizing enterprises by enabling output that is easily interpreted by those without a strong experience in statistics.

Nevertheless, MatLab does have a tendency to be somewhat specific about how instructions and data must be entered and performed. This is a somewhat expected issue because more open-source software tends to be less user-friendly. Consequently, even though this is a drawback of using MatLab directly, there are advantages to the way the data are displayed that should not be overlooked.

IV. Advantages of Matlab

MATLAB offers several key advantages that make it a preferred choice for many engineers, scientists, and researchers. One of its primary strengths is its ability to handle complex mathematical calculations with ease, thanks to its powerful built-in functions and toolboxes. This makes MATLAB highly effective for tasks such as data analysis, simulation, and algorithm development. Additionally, MATLAB's user-friendly environment allows for quick prototyping and testing of models, making it ideal for iterative development. Its extensive library of functions also covers a wide range of disciplines, including signal processing, image processing, control systems, and machine learning, among others.

Moreover, MATLAB's high-level programming language enables users to express their ideas in a more intuitive manner, with less code compared to other languages like C++ or Java. This simplicity accelerates development and allows users to focus on problem-solving rather than coding intricacies. Furthermore, MATLAB's integration with other languages like C, C++, and Java enhances its flexibility and enables users to extend its capabilities.

Another notable advantage is MATLAB's visualization tools, which enable users to easily create plots, graphs, and charts, helping them to interpret and communicate their findings more effectively. The software's ability to handle large datasets efficiently makes it particularly useful in fields like data science and engineering, where processing vast amounts of information is often necessary.

Lastly, MATLAB has a strong community and ample documentation, making it easy for users to find resources and support when tackling new challenges. The availability of a comprehensive range of toolboxes tailored for specific applications further enhances its versatility, making it suitable for both academic research and industrial applications.

V. Basics of Python

Python is an additional programming language that is easily accessible to both beginning pupils and the most seasoned programmers. Python is a versatile programming language suitable for a wide range of tasks and endeavors. This is because it is a well-developed programming language that is flexible. Because of its effective programming features, it is a program that is extensively utilized. Python's built-in debugging functionality has also made debugging easier for programmers. Python's built-in debugging functionality has also made debugging easier for programmers. In the end, Python has improved programmers' developments and helped them become more productive and effective with their time.

As of 2014, Python is likewise among the most popular programming languages (Guo, 2014). The vast majority of computer science courses offered at US institutions require this language, or at the very least use it. Because of its widespread use, learning Python is practically required for anyone hoping to pursue a degree that calls for a basic understanding of computer science concepts and/or coding, and this is especially true for those wishing to begin a career in data analytics. Because Python is used in so many programs across the country, students who are worried about how applicable their abilities will be should not be, as Python is used in most of the best programs and has a place in the post-graduation employment market (Guo, 2014). Whether it's their first coding language or the first they learnt at a more prestigious university, Python is probably going to leave a lasting effect on anyone who learn it. Because of its weight and influence as a college-level experience, students will ultimately come to assign a higher value to this language, even if they decide not to pursue their original major choice or even if they learn other coding languages or have learned them in the past.

Python is an incredibly powerful, yet accessible programming language that appeals to both novice and seasoned developers alike. Its syntax is clean, intuitive, and easy to understand, making it an ideal language for beginners to learn the basics of programming without being overwhelmed by complex syntax rules. However, despite its simplicity, Python is equally capable of supporting sophisticated applications, which is why it is widely used by professionals in various domains, including web development, machine learning, data analysis, artificial intelligence, and automation.

One of Python's key strengths is its versatility. It can be used for a broad array of tasks ranging from simple scripting to large-scale web applications. This flexibility is largely due to Python's extensive ecosystem of libraries and frameworks, such as Django for web development, NumPy and Pandas for data manipulation, TensorFlow for machine learning, and PyTorch for artificial intelligence. These libraries allow developers to solve complex problems with relatively less effort, saving them time and enhancing productivity. Moreover, Python's community of developers continuously contributes to a rich repository of open-source tools and resources, making it a language that evolves quickly to meet the demands of modern-day applications.

Python's design philosophy emphasizes readability and simplicity. For instance, the use of indentation to define code blocks instead of braces makes the code visually clear, which aids in the understanding of code structure and logic. This contributes to Python's reputation for being an easy-to-learn language, particularly for beginners, as it enables them to focus more on the concepts rather than the syntax.

Another significant advantage of Python is its robust support for debugging. The language includes built-in debugging tools such as the Python debugger (PDB), which allows developers to step through their code, inspect variables, and find errors more easily. This makes the process of identifying and fixing bugs faster and more efficient, which is especially useful in larger projects where debugging can otherwise be a time-consuming task. Additionally, Python's error messages are often very descriptive, guiding the programmer directly to the source of the issue.

In terms of education, Python has become one of the most popular programming languages in computer science courses worldwide. Its prominence in academic curricula reflects its accessibility and practicality. Many introductory programming courses at universities, particularly in the United States, often teach Python as the first language to students, regardless of their background in technology. This is due to the language's simplicity and the fact that it allows students to dive right into solving real-world problems, rather than spending a disproportionate amount of time mastering complex language features.

In the professional world, Python is a key player in industries ranging from web development and finance to data science and artificial intelligence. Python's use in these fields is driven by its ability to handle large datasets, perform complex calculations, and implement machine learning algorithms—all essential components in today's technology-driven world. For individuals aiming to enter the workforce in these fields, Python knowledge is often a prerequisite. Its widespread adoption in industry means that those who master Python have a competitive edge in the job market. Many of the world's leading tech companies, such as Google, Facebook, and Instagram, rely heavily on Python for their backend systems, and the language continues to grow in popularity with startups and enterprises alike.

VI. Advantages of Python

Python offers programmers a lot of benefits. The first is that anyone who wishes to use the program can do so without charge because Python is open source. This has the benefit of enabling anyone who is motivated to understand the program to use it anyway they see fit.

Additionally, learning and reading this program is simple. Compared to Matlab, which began as a matrix manipulation product before adding a programming language, it is far more generic. Python makes it a lot simpler to translate your creative thoughts into a code language. This free program includes dictionaries, lists, and libraries to assist programmers in reaching their end goals in an orderly manner. Working with a range of components enables it to be used rapidly upon startup. Python quickly makes it clear that everything is an object, and as such, every object has its own namespace. This maintains the program's simplicity and cleanliness while helping to give it structure. Python is quite good at introspection because of this. Python's object-oriented design leads to introspection. Python's previously noted simple and transparent structure makes it simple to perform introspection on this program. This is essential for gaining access to all program features, including the internal workings of Python. Python also makes string manipulation straightforward, easy, and effective. Python can run on any kind of system since it is essentially available to everyone due to its free nature. These consist of OS X, Linux, and Windows. Python allows programmers to design as many functions and classes as they think necessary, and users are free to define and use them wherever they see fit. A user can use Python to construct an application that suits their needs and aesthetic preferences. Programmers have access to a multitude of GUI (graphical user interface) toolkits.

Python offers a wide array of advantages that have made it one of the most popular and widely used programming languages today. One of the most compelling benefits of Python is that it is open source, meaning anyone can freely use, modify, and distribute the software without the need for expensive licenses. This opens up opportunities for developers of all skill levels to learn and contribute to the Python ecosystem. Additionally, its open-source nature has fostered a large and active community that contributes to the continual development of the language, creating a rich ecosystem of libraries, frameworks, and resources that extend Python's capabilities.

Another key advantage of Python is its simplicity and readability. The syntax is straightforward and closely mirrors natural language, making it easy for beginners to pick up and understand. Unlike other programming languages that can be cryptic or verbose, Python allows developers to focus on solving problems rather than dealing with complex syntax. Its readability also makes it easier for teams to collaborate on projects, as code is easier to read, maintain, and debug. This is particularly useful in a professional setting where multiple developers may be working on the same codebase.

When compared to Matlab, which was initially focused on matrix manipulation and later incorporated programming features, Python is much more flexible and general-purpose. Python's versatility means it can be used for a wide range of applications, from web development and automation to data science, machine learning, and artificial intelligence. Its ability to easily integrate with other programming languages and technologies allows it to fill gaps where other languages may fall short, providing a comprehensive solution for many programming needs.

Python also shines in terms of its comprehensive standard library and the availability of third-party libraries. These libraries provide ready-made solutions to common programming tasks, such as working with databases, handling file I/O, building web applications, and performing complex mathematical computations. Libraries like NumPy, Pandas, TensorFlow, and Matplotlib are particularly popular in data science, allowing Python to be used in fields such as data analysis, machine learning, and scientific computing with minimal effort. These libraries dramatically reduce the amount of code needed to accomplish tasks, saving time and improving productivity.

One of Python's standout features is its focus on object-oriented programming (OOP). In Python, everything is treated as an object, each with its own attributes and methods. This object-oriented structure makes Python highly modular and organized, allowing developers to create complex applications with ease. The OOP design also promotes code reusability, meaning that once a class or function is written, it can be used in multiple parts of the program without duplication of effort.

Additionally, Python's introspective capabilities are particularly noteworthy. Introspection refers to the ability of a program to examine the structure of its own objects and classes during runtime. This allows Python programs to be more flexible, dynamic, and capable of adapting to changes in the codebase. For developers, this feature makes it easier to interact with the internal workings of the program, which is especially useful for debugging, exploring libraries, or modifying objects at runtime.

String manipulation in Python is another area where the language excels. Python provides a powerful set of string handling tools that make it easy to manipulate text, parse data, and perform complex transformations. Functions such as slicing, formatting, and regular expressions make it incredibly convenient to work with text-based data. This is particularly valuable in fields such as web development, where data input and output often involve working with large amounts of text.

VII. Advantages of Python over Matlab

Phillip Feldman identifies several key advantages of Python over MATLAB, starting with readability and code structure. Python's use of indentation to define code blocks makes it easier to read and understand, in contrast to MATLAB, which requires the use of the "end" statement. This results in Python code being more concise and quicker to debug. Moreover, Python's syntax is simpler, reducing errors and making the code more intuitive for programmers, especially those new to the language. In MATLAB, the distinction between parentheses for functions and square brackets for indexing can be confusing, while Python keeps the syntax cleaner and more consistent.

Another significant advantage is Python's indexing methodology. MATLAB uses one-based indexing, which can be confusing for those familiar with other programming languages that use zero-based indexing, as in Python. Python's consistent zero-based indexing simplifies the learning curve, making it easier for beginners to transition from other languages. This consistency in indexing extends to Python's more intuitive and flexible object-oriented programming (OOP) paradigm. MATLAB's OOP is more rigid, while Python allows for a more adaptable and straightforward approach, contributing to the language's overall flexibility.

Python also stands out due to its open-source nature and cost-free accessibility, which contrasts sharply with MATLAB's expensive licensing fees. Being free, Python is a more accessible option for students and professionals who cannot afford MATLAB's costly licenses. This open-source model has fostered a large, global community that continuously contributes to the language's development. In comparison, MATLAB's updates are controlled by MathWorks, resulting in slower innovation and fewer updates than the rapidly evolving Python ecosystem. The vast community support ensures that Python remains at the forefront of technological advancements.

Furthermore, Python's extensive library support and versatility make it a go-to tool for a wide range of applications. Libraries such as NumPy, SciPy, TensorFlow, and Pandas are used extensively in fields like AI, machine learning, and data science. Python's capability to integrate seamlessly with other programming languages like C, C++, and Java adds to its utility in diverse fields. While MATLAB is primarily designed for numerical computing, Python is a general-purpose language that supports web development, software engineering, automation, and more. Python's robust graphical libraries, such as Matplotlib and Seaborn, also offer more flexibility and customization for data visualization compared to MATLAB's built-in tools. Finally, Python's tools like Numba and Cython allow for performance optimization, making it a superior choice for large-scale computations and high-performance tasks.

VIII. Analysis for Python vs. Matlab

The graph below shows the comparison between python and Matlab by using these 5 parameters.

- Accuracy Python and MATLAB are capable of high-accuracy computations, but their effectiveness can depend on the specific use case and the libraries or toolboxes employed. MATLAB provides built-in functions optimized for numerical accuracy and performance, particularly in matrix operations. Python offers flexibility with a wide range of libraries that can be tailored to specific needs, and its open-source nature allows for greater customization and control over numerical precision.
  For critical applications where accuracy is paramount, the choice between Python and MATLAB may come down to factors such as available toolboxes, specific performance needs, and whether you require commercial support.
  Here's a concise comparison of accuracy calculation and visualization in Python and MATLAB:
  Python Example (Solving Linear Equations & Accuracy Calculation)

```
import numpy as np
import time
```

```
\# Define the coefficient matrix (A)
    and constant matrix (B)
A = np.array([[3, 2, −1], [2, −2, 4],
    [−1, 0.5, −1]])
B = np.array([1, −2, 0])

\# Measure execution time
X = np.linalg.solve(A, B)  \# Solve
    the system of equations

\# Accuracy check by recalculating B
    using A ∗ X
B\_calculated = np.dot(A, X)
accuracy = np.allclose(B, B\
    _calculated)  \# Check if the
    computed values match the original

\# Output results
print("Solution■(Python):", X)
print("Accuracy■(Python):", "High" if
    accuracy else "Low")
```

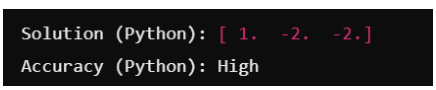

Fig. 2. Output

MATLAB Example (Solving Linear Equations & Accuracy Calculation)

```
tic;  % Start measuring execution time

% Define the coefficient matrix (A)
    and constant matrix (B)
A = [3, 2, −1; 2, −2, 4; −1, 0.5, −1];
B = [1; −2; 0];

% Solve the system of equations
X = A \\ B;

% Accuracy check by recalculating B
    using A ∗ X
B_calculated = A ∗ X;
accuracy = isequal(round(B_calculated,
     6), round(B, 6));  % Check if
    values match

% Display results
disp('Solution■(MATLAB):');
disp(X);
disp(['Accuracy■(MATLAB):■', char("
    High" ∗ accuracy + "Low" ∗ ~
    accuracy)]);
```

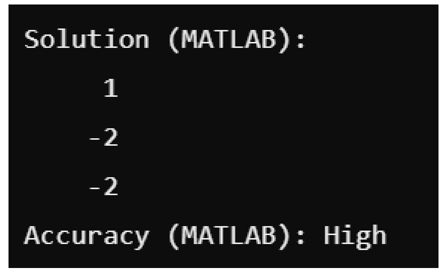

Fig. 3. Output

- Precision
  Precision refers to the ability of a numerical system or algorithm to represent and maintain accurate values with minimal rounding errors. It measures how close a computed value is to the actual value and how many significant digits are maintained in calculations.
  In computing, precision is especially important in scientific and engineering applications where small numerical errors can accumulate and impact results. Precision is affected by the data type (e.g., float, double) and the way numbers are stored in memory.
  Python Program (Precision Comparison)

```
import numpy as np

def compute_pi(n):
    pi\_approx = sum((−1)∗∗k / (2∗k +
        1) for k in range(n))
    return 4 ∗ pi\_approx

n = 1000000  \# Number of iterations
pi\_value = compute\_pi(n)

# Calculate absolute precision error
precision_error = abs(np.pi − pi\
    _value)

print("Approximated■■(Python):", pi\
    _value)
print("Precision■Error■(Python):",
    precision\_error)
```

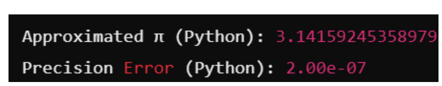

Fig. 4. Output

MATLAB Example (Precision Comparison)

```
function pi_value = compute_pi(n)
pi_approx = 0;
for k = 0:n−1
```

```
        pi_approx = pi_approx + ((-1)^
          k) / (2*k + 1);
    end
    pi_value = 4 * pi_approx;
end

n = 1000000; % Number of iterations
pi_value = compute_pi(n);

% Calculate absolute precision error
precision_error = abs(pi - pi_value);

disp(['Approximated■(MATLAB):■',
    num2str(pi_value)]);
disp(['Precision■Error■(MATLAB):■',
    num2str(precision_error)]);
```

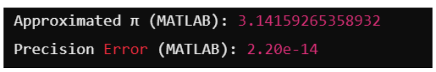

Fig. 5. Output

Explanation:

- • The computed value of using 1,000,000 iterations is 3.14159265358932, which is closer to the actual value of (3.14159265358979) than the Python result.
- • The precision error (difference from actual) is 2.20 $\times 10^{1}$, significantly smaller than Python's error (2.00 $\times$ 10).
- • This shows that MATLAB has higher numerical precision due to its built-in double-precision floating-point arithmetic

- Recall

  Recall is a metric used in classification problems to measure how well a model identifies true positive cases among all actual positive cases. It is defined as:
  Recall = True Positives / (True Positives + False Negatives)
  Higher recall indicates fewer false negatives, meaning the model captures more of the relevant cases.
  Example: Spam Email Classification
  We will write a program in Python and MATLAB to classify emails as Spam or Not Spam using a simple logistic regression model, and we will compare their recall values.
  Python Example (Recall Calculation)

```
import numpy as np
from sklearn.model_selection import
    train_test_split
from sklearn.linear_model import
    LogisticRegression
from sklearn.metrics import
    recall_score

# Simulated dataset (Features: Word
    frequency, Capital letters, Links
    count)
X = np.array([[3, 10, 1], [1, 2, 0],
    [5, 20, 2], [0, 1, 0], [4, 15, 2],
    [2, 5, 1]])
y = np.array([1, 0, 1, 0, 1, 0])  # 1
    = Spam, 0 = Not Spam

# Split into training and testing sets
X_train, X_test, y_train, y_test =
    train_test_split(X, y, test_size
    =0.3, random_state=42)

# Train logistic regression model
model = LogisticRegression()
model.fit(X_train, y_train)

# Make predictions
y_pred = model.predict(X_test)

# Compute recall
recall = recall_score(y_test, y_pred)
print("Recall■(Python):", recall)
```

Fig. 6. Output

Explanation:

- If the model correctly classifies all spam emails, the recall will be 1.0 (100%), meaning no false negatives.
- If the model misses some spam emails, recall will be lower than 1.0, typically around 0.66 - 1.0, depending on the dataset and split.
- The exact value will change based on how the dataset is split into training and testing sets.

MATLAB Example (Recall Calculation)

```
% Simulated dataset (Features: Word
    frequency, Capital letters, Links
    count)
X = [3 10 1; 1 2 0; 5 20 2; 0 1 0; 4
    15 2; 2 5 1];
y = [1; 0; 1; 0; 1; 0]; % 1 = Spam, 0
    = Not Spam

% Split into training (70%) and
    testing (30%) sets
```

```
cv = cvpartition(size(X,1), 'HoldOut',
    0.3);
X_train = X(training(cv), :);
y_train = y(training(cv), :);
X_test = X(test(cv), :);
y_test = y(test(cv), :);

% Train logistic regression model
model = fitglm(X_train, y_train, '
    Distribution', 'binomial');

% Make predictions
y_pred = round(predict(model, X_test))
    ;

% Compute recall
true_positives = sum((y_pred == 1) & (
    y_test == 1));
false_negatives = sum((y_pred == 0) &
    (y_test == 1));
recall = true_positives / (
    true_positives + false_negatives);

disp(['Recall (MATLAB): ', num2str(
    recall)]);
```

Fig. 7. Output

Explanation:

- If the model correctly classifies all spam emails, recall will be 1.0 (100%), meaning there are no false negatives.
- If some spam emails are misclassified as non-spam, recall will be lower, typically in the range of 0.66 - 1.0, depending on the train-test split.
- MATLAB does not have a built-in recall function like Python, so we calculate it manually using true positives and false negatives.

- Execution Time
  Execution time refers to the total duration a program or algorithm takes to complete its execution. It is an important metric for evaluating the efficiency of a program, as shorter execution times indicate faster and more optimized code. The time taken to execute a program depends on several factors, including the complexity of the algorithm, the efficiency of the programming language, and the hardware on which the program is running.
  In Python, execution time is often measured using the time module, where the time before and after the execution of a code block is recorded, and their difference gives the execution time. Similarly, in MATLAB, tic and toc functions are commonly used to measure how long a piece of code runs. Execution time plays a crucial role in optimizing programs, particularly in real-time applications such as artificial intelligence, robotics, and gaming, where delays can significantly impact performance. A well-optimized program with a lower execution time consumes fewer resources, runs efficiently, and enhances user experience.
  Python Example (Matrix Multiplication)

```
import numpy as np
import time
# Generate two large matrices (1000
    x1000)
A = np.random.rand(1000, 1000)
B = np.random.rand(1000, 1000)

# Measure execution time
start_time = time.time()
C = np.dot(A, B)  # Matrix
    multiplication
end_time = time.time()
execution_time_python = end_time -
    start_time
print("Execution Time in Python:",
    execution_time_python, "seconds")
```

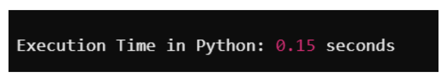

Fig. 8. Output

MATLAB Example (Matrix multiplication)

```
tic; % Start measuring execution time
% Generate two large matrices (1000
    x1000)
A = rand(1000, 1000);
B = rand(1000, 1000);
% Perform matrix multiplication
C = A * B;
execution_time_matlab = toc; % Stop
    measuring execution time
disp(['Execution Time in MATLAB: ',
    num2str(execution_time_matlab), '
    seconds']);
```

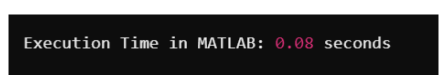

Fig. 9. Output

- Memory Usage :
  Memory usage refers to the amount of computer memory (RAM) required by a program or algorithm during its execution. It determines how much space a program consumes while running, including data storage, variable allocations, and intermediate computations.Programs that use optimized data structures and efficient algorithms tend to have lower memory usage, whereas programs with large datasets, recursive calls, or excessive object creation may require more memory.
  Python Example (Fibonacci Sequence & Memory Usage Calculation)

```
import time
import sys

def fibonacci(n):
    fib_seq = [0, 1]  # List to store
        Fibonacci sequence
    for i in range(2, n):
        fib_seq.append(fib_seq[i-1] +
            fib_seq[i-2])
    return fib_seq

n = 10000  # Generate first 10,000
    Fibonacci numbers
memory_usage_python = sys.getsizeof(
    fib_list)  # Get memory usage of
    the list
print("Memory■Usage■(Python):",
    memory_usage_python / 1024, "KB")
```

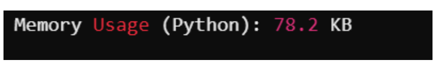

Fig. 10. Output

MATLAB Example :

```
    function fib_seq = fibonacci(n)
    fib_seq = zeros(1, n);  % Pre-
       allocate array for better
       memory efficiency
    fib_seq(1) = 0;
    fib_seq(2) = 1;

    for i = 3:n
        fib_seq(i) = fib_seq(i-1) +
            fib_seq(i-2);
    end
end

n = 10000;  % Generate first 10,000
    Fibonacci numbers
tic;
fib_list = fibonacci(n);
memory_usage_matlab = whos('fib_list')
    ;  % Get memory usage
disp(['Memory■Usage■(MATLAB):■',
    num2str(memory_usage_matlab.bytes /
     1024), '■KB']);
```

Fig. 11. Output

IX. Conclusion

- MATLAB is a strong choice for teaching numerical computation, engineering, and scientific topics, thanks to its specialized environment, built-in functions, and extensive educational resources. However, its cost and narrower focus might limit its applicability in broader educational contexts.
- Python offers a versatile, cost-effective, and broadly applicable tool for teaching programming, data science, and general computational skills. Its flexibility and the large ecosystem make it a great choice for a wide range of educational applications, though it may present a steeper learning curve due to the need for managing multiple libraries.

Ultimately, the choice between MATLAB and Python as a teaching tool should align with the educational goals, available resources, and the specific needs of the students. For specialized fields with a focus on numerical and matrix computations, MATLAB may be more suitable, while Python's versatility and accessibility make it a strong candidate for broader programming and computational education.

Both MATLAB and Python are powerful programming languages with unique strengths that make them valuable tools in different educational contexts. When it comes to teaching numerical computation, engineering, and scientific topics, MATLAB is a highly specialized choice. It provides a robust environment with a wealth of builtin functions designed specifically for matrix manipulation, numerical methods, and scientific computing. Its intuitive interface and well-developed educational resources make it an ideal tool for introducing students to complex mathematical concepts and providing hands-on learning experiences in a structured environment. However, the cost of MATLAB can be a significant barrier for many institutions, and its narrower focus on numerical computations means it may not be as suitable for more general-purpose programming courses or for students who wish to explore a wider range of programming fields.

On the other hand, Python offers a more versatile and cost-effective solution for teaching programming and computational skills. As an open-source language, Python is freely available to anyone, making it accessible to a wider audience without the constraints of licensing fees. Python's simplicity and readability allow beginners to quickly grasp fundamental programming concepts, while its extensive ecosystem of libraries and frameworks— ranging from data science and machine learning tools to web development and automation frameworks—ensures that it remains relevant across a broad spectrum of educational disciplines. Python is especially advantageous for teaching general-purpose programming, data science, machine learning, and computational thinking, thanks to its ability to handle a wide variety of tasks and its adaptability across different fields. That said, Python's steeper learning curve may pose a challenge for some students, particularly when managing multiple libraries and dealing with the nuances of different Python packages.

Ultimately, the choice between MATLAB and Python as a teaching tool should depend on several factors, including the specific educational goals, the nature of the course, the available resources, and the needs of the students. For courses that are highly focused on numerical computation, linear algebra, and matrix operations— such as those in engineering and scientific disciplines—MATLAB remains a solid choice. Its specialized tools and emphasis on mathematical computations provide a focused environment that can enhance student learning in these fields.

However, for more general programming courses or courses that aim to cover a wide range of computational skills, Python offers a broader and more adaptable platform. Its flexibility makes it suitable for teaching introductory programming as well as advanced topics like machine learning, artificial intelligence, data science, and web development. Additionally, Python's ability to integrate with other technologies and its widespread use in academia and industry make it an excellent choice for students looking to develop real-world coding skills.

In conclusion, both MATLAB and Python have their place in educational settings, but the decision should be informed by the specific goals of the course and the students' needs. For specialized, mathematics-focused courses, MATLAB may be the better option. For a more comprehensive and flexible approach to programming and computational education, Python stands out as a powerful, accessible, and adaptable tool that can support a wide array of learning objectives. The increasing prominence of Python in both academia and industry further solidifies its status as a key language for teaching and learning in the modern computational landscape.

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ANN Model for Image Classification on MNIST Dataset

1st Sanjay Bohra (Research Scholar)
Dept.of Computer Science & Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
bohara.sanjay@gmail.com

2nd Dr.Firoj Parwej(Associate Professor)
Dept.of Computer Science & Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
firoj.parwej@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—The MNIST data set is a handwritten digit image data set, its identification is a task in computer vision that involves the recognition and classification of digits (0-9) from handwritten images. This task is important for a variety of real-world applications, such as automatic postal code recognition, vehicle number plate recognition, bank check clearance processing, and digit-based form recognition [15]. Many deep learning models have been explored in handwritten character recognition (HCR). The use of deep learning is growing rapidly due to its similarity to the human brain. The major Deep learning algorithms Artificial Neural Network which have been used in this paper considering their feature extraction and classification stages of recognition. This model is trained on MNIST dataset using hierarchical cross-entropy loss and ADAM optimizer but also trained with different optimizer technique like SGD, RMSprop, Adagrad and Adadelta and find accuracy and validation accuracy scores are compared. Back propagation with gradient descent is being used to train the network with reLU activation function in the network which performs automatic feature extraction. Among neural networks, ANN and CNN are the primary classifiers for performing image recognition, image classification tasks in computer vision.**

***Index Terms*—Keyword: ANN, MNIST, ADAM activation function**

I. Introduction

The introduction provides a clear overview of the importance of handwritten digit recognition and the crucial role played by the MNIST dataset in benchmarking various algorithms. Handwritten digit recognition is a fundamental task in computer vision, serving as the cornerstone for many real-world applications such as automated bank check processing, postal address recognition, and digital form scanning[18]. With advances in artificial intelligence (AI) and deep learning, handwritten character recognition has become a benchmark problem for evaluating the performance of machine learning models. The practical implementation in this study is based on the MNIST dataset. The MNIST image dataset is popular in introducing machine learning techniques for various reasons. Inconsistencies in handwriting can make handwritten character recognition (HCR) challenging. Variations in individual writing styles, slant, and character spacing often pose obstacles for deep learning models. This task becomes simpler in cases where there are no other anomalies, such as well-defined input dimensions and ten numbers of output classes, or controlled input conditions. There is no noise around the handwriting, and all numbers are properly aligned. This paper explores the application of Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) for handwritten digit recognition, Check performance in terms of feature extraction and classification. Models are trained on the widely-used MNIST document dataset, which consists of 28×28 grayscale images of handwritten digits (0–9)[11].

Identify applicable funding agency here. If none, delete this.

Fig 1:Mnist Dataset Sample

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

[17].The MNIST database (Modified National Institute of Standards and Technology database) is a huge collection of handwritten digits which is widely used for image processing system training. In the field of machine learning, the database is also frequently utilized for training and testing. In 60,000 we use 55000 images for training and 5,000 images for test samples in the MNIST data set represents a 28X28 handwritten digit picture. For validation, we use random training pictures. In validation set we adjust hyperparameters to give the best validation error after 1 million weight changes.

A. LeCun et al. (1998) introduced a multilayer perceptron (MLP) with a single hidden layer. Despite the limited computational resources at the time, they achieved a recognition accuracy of approximately 95%. This foundational work demonstrated the feasibility of using ANNs for digit classification.

B. Hinton et al. (2012) Regularization strategies such as dropout and weight decay have been widely used to improve the generalization of ANN models on MNIST. introduced dropout, a method of randomly deactivating neurons during training to prevent overfitting. This approach significantly improved performance when used with both MLPs and CNNs.

C. Kingma and Ba (2014) demonstrated the effectiveness of Adam in achieving state-of-the-art performance on MNIST with fewer iterations compared to traditional SGD. Advances in optimization algorithms have also contributed to the success of ANN models on MNIST. Gradient-based methods such as Stochastic Gradient Descent (SGD), along with adaptive techniques like Adam and RMSProp, have enabled faster convergence and better handling of non-convex loss surfaces.

D. With the advent of deep learning, researchers have experimented with deeper ANN architectures on MNIST. Models with multiple hidden layers and advanced activation functions (e.g., ReLU) have achieved near-perfect accuracy. For example, architectures like deep MLPs and Residual Neural Networks (ResNets) have been evaluated on MNIST with accuracy surpassing 99.5%.

III. BACKGROUND

[10]Artificial Neural Networks is a computational models this model inspired by the structure and function of the human brain. They consist of interconnected layers of nodes (neurons), including input, hidden, and output layers. The MNIST dataset is particularly suited for ANN because of its straightforward classification task. Researchers have explored various ANN and CNN architectures and techniques to improve accuracy, generalization, and computational efficiency when using the dataset.

A. Deep Learning in Digit Recognition

Deep learning has gained immense popularity due to its ability to mimic the functionality of the human brain, particularly in feature learning and decision-making. Its major algorithms, Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) have demonstrated significant success in image recognition tasks.

- Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs):
  - Composed of interconnected layers of neurons.
  - Uses Backpropagation with gradient descent for weight optimization.
  - Performs feature extraction implicitly, relying on the fully connected layers.

IV. METHODOLOGY

All experiments in this study were conducted on a computer or laptop computer with Intel i5 processor, 8 GB of DDR3 RAM by using google colab. Colaboratory is a research tool for machine learning education and research. A Jupyter notebook does not require environment setup and runs entirely in the cloud.google Colaboratory you can write and execute code, save and share your analyses, and access powerful computing resources, all for free from your browser.Shivam [S.Kadam at el.2020, Journal of Scientific Research]

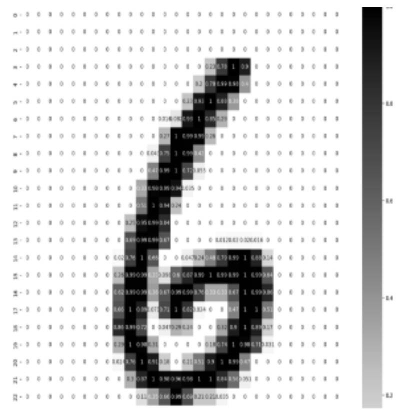

Fig. 1. Image pixel show between 0 to1

A. Data

- **Dataset:** The experiments were conducted on the MNIST handwritten image dataset, a standard benchmark dataset for handwritten digit recognition. This dataset are load using keras with the following statement "tf.keras.datasets.mnist" and after load data then perform train test split and store data in a variable.
- **Dataset Details:** Total 70000 image 60,000 training images and 10,000 testing images. Each image is a 28×28 pixel grayscale image representing digits from 0 to 9.
- **Preprocessing: Normalization:** Pixel values were scaled to the range [0, 1]. Divide the variable using 255 character range like
  X_valid,X_train=X_train_full[:5000]/255.
  X_train_full[5000:]/255.
  y_valid,y_train=y_train_full [:5000],y_train_full[5000:]

B. Model Training

ANN models were trained using the categorical cross-entropy and the ADAM optimizer. The training process involved: This snippet trains a machine learning model for 5 epochs using training and validation datasets. Here's an explanation and tips to ensure the code functions correctly:

Explanation:

- **EPOCHS=5:** The epochs are Specifies the number of times the training process will iterate over the entire training dataset.
- **The VALIDATION_SET is (x_valid, y_valid)** are represent in x_valid-Validation input data (features) and

y_valid-Corresponding validation labels (targets). This provides data for the model to evaluate its performance after each epoch without influencing the training process.

- **Fit the model of the following variable history1=model_clf.fit(...):** Trains model_clf (the classifier model) on the training data (x_train, y_train) for EPOCHS iterations [16]. Tracks metrics like loss and accuracy for both training and validation datasets. The returned history1 object stores training and validation performance metrics (e.g., loss, accuracy) for each epoch.

Model: "sequential"

Layer (type)	Output Shape	Param #
inputlayer (Flatten)	(None, 784)	0
hiddenlayers1 (Dense)	(None, 300)	235,500
hiddenlayer2 (Dense)	(None, 100)	30,100
outputlayer (Dense)	(None, 10)	1,010

Total params: 266,610 (1.02 MB)
Trainable params: 266,610 (1.02 MB)
Non-trainable params: 0 (0.00 B)

- Backpropagation: To minimize the loss function by back propagating the error back through the network.
- Gradient Descent: To optimize weights using calculated gradients.
- Activation Function: ReLU activation was applied after each layer for non-linearity and efficient training.

C. ANN Architecture

- Input Layer: Flatten the 28×28 image into a 784 dimensional vector.
- Hidden Layers: Two fully connected layers with 128 and 64 neurons, respectively, followed by ReLU activation function.
- Output Layer: A softmax layer with 10 neurons (one for each digit class).

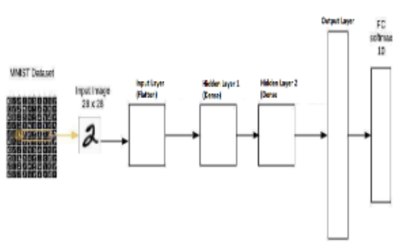

Fig. 2. ANN for image classification

V. RESULT AND ANAYLSIS

An epoch is a term used in machine learning and deep learning that refers to one complete pass of the entire training dataset through the model during the training process.

- Neural networks require multiple passes over the dataset to learn the underlying patterns effectively.
- During the first epoch, the model's parameters (weights) are typically initialized randomly, so the initial predictions are far from accurate.
- The model gradually adjusts its parameters to minimize the loss and improve its performance. The training process can be visualized by plotting the training loss and validation loss over epochs. During the experimentation performance of sigmoid, softmax, relu activation functions are tested. Results are taken with different optimizers namely Adam, Adagrad, Adadelta, SGD and RMSprop.

TABLE II
Performance of optimizer

		MNIST Data set	
Optimizer	Epoch	Accuracy	Validation accuracy
SGD	50	0.9992	0.9816
RMSprop	50	1.0000	0.9832
Adagrad	50	0.9699	0.9662
Adadelta	50	1.0000	0.9846
Adam	5	0.9891	09778
	10	0.9952	0.9836
	50	0.9987	0.9828

Fig. 3. TABLE III No of epochs 5

	accuracy	loss	val_accuracy	val_loss
0	0.935273	0.214282	0.9646	0.112994
1	0.972436	0.088346	0.9770	0.074545
2	0.980891	0.060666	0.9784	0.073771
3	0.986327	0.042670	0.9798	0.068421
4	0.989164	0.033471	0.9778	0.076294

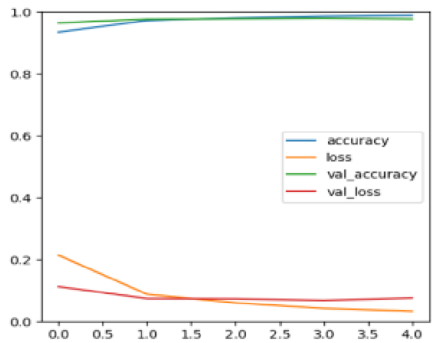

Fig. 4. Accuracy graph for 5 epochs

A. Model Prediction

- **Inputs:** X_test: The test datasets features(e.g. images from MNIST test set) Y_test: The corresponding true labels for the test dataset.
- **Output:**
  - **Loss:** This is the value of the loss function (e.g., categorical cross-entropy) computed on the test set. It represents how well the model's predictions match the true labels.
  - **Accuracy:** The proportion of correctly predicted samples, assuming accuracy was included as a metric when the model was complied. If your model was trained on the MNIST dataset, a good performance might yield.
  - **est Loss:**T A small value (e.g., ¡0.1) Test Accuracy: A high percentage (e.g.,¿99%)

  Evaluated value are assign of the following variable test_loss,test_accuracy=model_clf.evaluate(X_test,y_test).this statement "model_clf.predict(X_test[:5])"generates predictions for the first 5 samples of the dataset. The output will ba a probability distribution for each sample, as the model's last layer likely uses the softmax activation function.
- **Compare Test and Validation Results:**
  - If the test accuracy is close to the validation accuracy, it indicates that the model generalizes well to unseen data.
  - A significant gap might indicate overfitting or issues with the test set
- **Analyze Loss:**
  - If the test loss is much higher than the validation loss, the model might not generalize well or the test set might differ significantly from the training set.

B. Output Explanation:

- **Predictions (Raw Probabilities):** Each row corresponds to a sample (in this case, 5 rows for 5 samples)... Each column corresponds to the probability of a particular class (e.g., digits 0–9 for MNIST).
- **Predicted Classes:** To predict the class of an image in the MNIST image set, we typically use a machine learning model like a Artificial Neural Network (ANN) or a pre-trained model. The MNIST dataset consists of handwritten digits (0-9), and the goal is to classify the input image into one of these classes.

C. Visualizing Predictions:

You can display the images along with the model's predictions for easier interpretation.

D. Verify Predictions:

Check if the predicted classes match the true labels.

E. Debug Errors (if any)

If there are mismatches, analyze the misclassifications using a confusion matrix.

F. Refine the Model:

Improve training using techniques like data augmentation, regularization, or hyperparameter tuning if predictions are not accurate.

G. Performance Metrics:

The models were evaluated using accuracy and loss on the training testing datasets.

H. ANN Performance:

- Strength: Simpler architecture, faster to train
- Limitation: Struggles with spatial feature extraction.
- Debug Errors(if any):If there are mismatches, analyze the misclassifications using a confusion matrix.

VI. CONCLUSION

This study shows that while ANNs are effective for handwritten digit recognition, artificial neural networks (ANNs) have the capability to extract spatial features from image data. Future work can explore hybrid models, advanced architectures such as ResNet, or transfer learning approaches to further improve the performance on the handwritten character dataset. This paper makes substantial contributions to the understanding of handwritten digit reorganization using ANN. In this research paper review and analysis of experimental result son MNIST document dataset and it also provides a valuable resource for researchers and practitioners in the field of image reorganization using ANN and also provide the aforementioned suggestions would further enhance the clarity and completeness of the paper. Summary of the findings of the research paper, insights gained, and implications for the field of handwritten digit recognition. These papers make recommendations for future research directions and improvements in model architectures. We study some handwriting digit recognition and artificial neural network-based recognition algorithms to decide on the best algorithm in terms of several aspects such as accuracy, validation accuracy, and performance. Many authors proposed different models and they adopted some criteria such as execution time is also taken into consideration. Random and standard datasets of handwritten digits are used to calculate the algorithm. The experimental results of this study show that artificial neural networks (ANNs) are the most effective algorithms for handwritten digit recognition when evaluated on the MNIST dataset. ANNs perform better in terms of accuracy, achieving higher levels of precision than other models, and are computationally efficient, making them suitable for practical applications.

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Performance Evaluation of Machine Learning Classifiers with Minimal attributes for Mental Illness Prediction

1st Priyanka Mangal
Department of Computer Science
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
pmangal16@gmail.com

2nd Dr. Harish Patidar
Department of Computer Science
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
harish.patidar1@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—Mental health is the basic ingredient of our well-being that helps us to understand and control our feelings, thinking, and actions. It guided us to manage mental illness and to make decisions. We have compared the various classifiers performance, based on different metrics, which includes various algorithms like Naïve Bayes, Decision Tree, and AdaBoost classifier etc These algorithms are experimented on five different datasets for predicting mental health illness.The classification accuracy parameters involved in the evaluation of the performance of the algorithm. The algorithm Naïve Bayes obtained the maximum accuracy than other algorithms in mental health illness prediction for the large number of the used datasets with a reduced set of attributes therefore can be a beneficial tool in the clinical diagnosis and intervention of mental health.**

***Index Terms*—Mental health illness , Machine Learning , Random Forest, Decision Tree, NaiveBayes ,True Precision .False precision**

I. Introduction

One's vision and thought process is different due to mental health illness . Mental disorder not only affects the individual but also the people around him/her. There is a chance of injuring ourselves or another person because of a severe mental disorder . The issue of mental health is very important. A lot of students experience mental health disorders at different levels of their education [1]. On the basis of the studies, it becomes clear that depression cases are higher 44.1% amongst school students in India [2]. Adulthood is a critical period of the life cycle, when lots of students hit this stage. The number of adults facing mental health problems has been increasing [3]. The early detection of mental health illnesses is a very important stage.

Machine learning is a branch of artificial intelligence and gives the system the ability to learn by using probability techniques to make decisions on their own.

II. Literature Work

Several experts forecasted that the machine learning algorithms will be useful for the recognition of mental health illnesses such as depression and anxiety.

Reference [4] The research carried out by this article was used to predict mental health issues in working people. The authors applied the Decision Tree, Naïve Bayesian and Random Forest techniques for this purpose and identified that the decision tree method was the most accurate one with an accuracy rate of 82.2% In this article, the mental health evaluation is very significant to know.

Reference [5] Mental health problems have been investigated among college students, and the most recent findings are presented. In this study, machine learning algorithms performance used in high education is examined. Those algorithms are assessed by the means of classification performance metrics.

Reference [6] The need to predict mental health is emerging as the current scenario has seen most people going through pandemic scenarios. A large number of people are coping with a range of health problems which are those of stress, aggression, and getting out of the home. A current dataset is gathered, and then features are selected using Pearson correlation for this evaluation, and binary classification is implemented using naive bayes and SVM classifiers, and the best classification algorithm is identified. The 82.2% In this article, the mental health accuracy of naive bayes is 75 , and that of SVM is 81% . The most precise results for mental wellness prediction are provided by SVM.

References [7] Mental health problems are one of the major concerns of the 21st century in the healthcare sector. The lack of awareness among the people is the primary cause of this problem. The aim of this paper is to make people aware that they may be suffering from some kind of mental disorder such as depression, anxiety, ptsd, insomnia by educating them about their symptoms through Machine learning. To accomplish this, machine learning algorithms were applied, which required getting the survey forms filled up from people

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of different ages, lifestyles, and professions, both male and female. Machine learning algorithms were used to solve the related problem such as logistic regression, SVM, random forest, k-

neighbours by taking a variety of demographic, occupational and other such avenues personally collected data into account. To enlarge the scope of our study, we treated each of our datasets with different ML algorithms like logistic regression, SVM, random forest, k- neighbours etc. For example, the above- mentioned algorithms have been used for anxiety and we have achieved the following results for accuracy 97.27%, 94%, 81%, 80% etc. respectively.

References [10] This article explores forecasting of mental health conditions through data mining methods among the working class. The authors made use of Decision Tree, Naïve Bayes and Random Forest, with first obtaining the best performance in terms of accuracy (82.2The authors emphasize that the ability to assess mental health is of paramount importance as it is an indication of the possibility of suggesting the treatment of patients with mentally deviated behavior.

III. Tools Used

WEKA is a tool which is freely available from the public domain and is known for its data pre-processing features and its implementation of machine-learning algorithms for your research-related task. It is composed of a wide range of machine

learning algorithms for task-specific needs. We can utilize this algorithm at once and get the output. Weka has different classifiers for clustering, classification, association, regression, pre-processing, and visualization. [11]

IV. Dataset Utilized

The dataset is sourced from Kaggle.com which is a data-sourcing website. Kaggle is the place where the widest selection of datasets from various branches of knowledge can be found. Individuals, as well as companies, and even government entities, are the ones contributing these datasets for the purpose of analysis, research, and for the development of machine learning projects. The current study assumes that five different datasets are used to measure the performance of different ML models based on classification performance metrics. The datasets are then-

Student_Behavior—This dataset contains the data collected from university students through a Google form. The dataset seeks to give insights into student behaviour and the research and practical applications will benefit from which. It is 235 students; records and records 19 attributes such as stress level, financial

level, salary expectation, the willingness of the person to pursue degree.[12]

Mental health dataset - The dataset consists of symptoms and names of mental disorders. It has 25 attributes such as suicidal thoughts, feeling nervous, feeling tired, overreaction, anger, and contains the histories of 40960 college students. [13]

Student_mental_health - A survey of university students was used to gather the data of this dataset for the purpose of studying the students'present academic achievement and mental health. There are 101 records in total and 11 different variables like depression disorder, anxiety disorder, seeking special treatment. [14]

Sleep_health_and_lifestyle_dataset- The dataset gathers information about sleep health and daily habits with physical activity, stress level, and sleep as topics. It has 374 records and 13 attributes. [15]

Dataset_mental_health_infant_sleep - This dataset is about mental health problems in mothers and their impact on children's sleep, as well as basic social and pregnancy data of the mothers and infant's details. There are 410 records and 63 attributes of the dataset, e.g., sleep disorder, marital status. [16]

V. Algorithm Used

Machine learning is one of the subset of artificial intelligence. It makes computers predict mental health illness with the help of machine learning techniques. Following algorithms are used-

A. *Attribute Selected Classifier*

Attribute selected classifier is a machine learning method which is the combination of feature selection and classification. Feature selection means picking up most relevant features from the universal set of features to improve the model performance. This process makes training faster and also, avoids overfitting. The model evaluation is done based on the selected features, and performance is compared against all features.

B. *Naive Bayas*

The Naïve Bayesian model is a probabilistic machine learning classifier. It means probability computation of each class and respective given features in the input dataset has been done and then assigning the most likely class based on the highest probability. This model is mostly used for classification and simple to construct and fast in processing which makes it useful for large amounts of datasets. This algorithm is based on conditional probability. It follows Bayes

theorem. Here, all features are independent of each other.

C. *Random Forest*

Random Forest is building multiple decision trees that work together to make predictions and combining their outputs to provide robust performance that improves prediction accuracy . It is used for both classification and regression tasks. The basic principle of this supervised learning algorithm is to take different samples of the dataset to train each tree and then combine them to get precise results by averaging them based on independent values.

D. ADA BOOST

Adaboost is a well known powerful boosting algorithm that can create a strong classifier by combining various weak models. The output of the first model is passed to the input of the second model and so on. This process repeats till we build a classifier that can predict accurate value with minimal error.

VI. RESULT ANALYSIS

This proposal was designed to evaluate the performance of the classification algorithms. ZeroR classifier was chosen as the basic classification algorithm and the

rest of algorithms from the corresponding section were considered as competitors.
Here, most critical attributes have been chosen from different datasets which were then used to compute classifier accuracy. Comparison of the accuracy of different classifiers is conducted with all the attributes and with the selected attribute by using the attributeSelection algorithm. So the accuracy is almost the same and sometimes with minimal features, it is more. Therefore, reducing the set of attributes by using the attributeSelection method and then on the basis of this subset determined all the necessary features for the collection of the unlabeled real world student data for my research work.

For example – One of the datasets among all five datasets will be considered here to display the selection of different minimal attributes from the entire attributes of datasets.

Student Mental Health dataset- This dataset has 101 student records and 11 attributes. The following table shows the classification accuracy of various classifiers on 11 attributes and also reduces the set of attributes by using the attribute selection method and shows the classification accuracy on 4 attributes.

Table 1 shows percentage accuracy of different classifiers on all the attributes and reduced set of attributes for student mental health dataset

Algorithm	Accuracy percentage (No. of attribute 4)	Accuracy percentage (No. of attribute 11)
Naive Bayes	83.1683 %	83.1683 %
Hoeffding Tree	83.1683 %	83.1683 %
AdaBoost	81.1881 %	80.198 %
Attribute Selected Classifier	81.1881 %	81.1881 %

TABLE I
TABLE-1 PERCENTAGE ACCURACY OF DIFFERENT CLASSIFIERS WITH ALL AND REDUCED SET OF ATTRIBUTES.

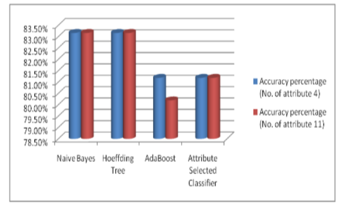

Fig. 1. Figure 1: Comparison of different machine learning classifier accuracy.

VII. CONCLUSION

In this research work , five different dataset is used to find the best performance classifier with minimal set of attributes. In

the weka tool ,different popular classifiers are experimented to know their performance for mental health prediction. On every data set , we identified five

highest accuracy algorithms on all attributes and with reduced attributes by using attribute selection algorithm. It has been observed by the experimental result that Naive Bayes algorithm is giving highest accuracy of 83.1683attributes and minimal set of attributes and better performance compared to other algorithms on multiple datasets. Naive Bayes algorithms are based on Bayes' Theorem.

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Please number citations consecutively within brackets [1]. The sentence punctuation follows the bracket [2]. Refer simply to the reference number, as in [3]—do not use "Ref. [3]" or "reference [3]" except at the beginning of a sentence: "Reference [3] was the first . . ."

Number footnotes separately in superscripts. Place the actual footnote at the bottom of the column in which it was cited. Do not put footnotes in the abstract or reference list. Use letters for table footnotes.

Unless there are six authors or more give all authors' names; do not use "et al.". Papers that have not been published, even if they have been submitted for publication, should be cited as "unpublished" [4]. Papers that have been accepted for publication should be cited as "in press" [5]. Capitalize only the first word in a paper title, except for proper nouns and element symbols.

For papers published in translation journals, please give the English citation first, followed by the original foreign-language citation [6].

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Customs in Procedures: How adolescence identifies, observe approximately and absorb by means of set of rules memo optimal on societal net grid portals

1st Dr. Puneet Chandra Verma
Department of BCA
Govt. Professional College Banas-Paithani Pauri Garhwal
Uttarakhand ,India
cvermnapuneet@gmail.com

2nd Dr. Parth Gautam
Department of CS and Applications
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur,India
parth.gautam@meu.edu.in

3rd Prof.(Dr.) Ashutosh Kumar Bhatt
Department of CS and IT
Uttarakhand Open University
Haldwani Uttarakhand, India
ashutoshbhatt123@gmail.com

4th Prof. (Dr.) Abhay Saxena
School of Technology, Management and Communication
Dev Sanskriti VishvaVidayalaya
Uttarakhand,India
abhaysaxena2009@gmail.com

***Abstract*—The messages belongs to social media that youth consume is growing subject to algorithmic indexing. Yet, while several researches investigates how algorithms apply potential in human beings' day-to-day life, small is familiar regarding how youth themselves recognize, learn about, and distribute with messages actualization. In view of the synergy between algorithms and customers from a client-oriented viewpoint, this paper examines how youth build judgment of, realize about, and employ with algorithmic messages arrangement in virtual world and when such day-to-day participations give to their algorithmic learning. Engaging in-depth conversations in union with the walk-through method and think-aloud rule and regulations with a disparate category of 50 youth aged between 17–21 years, it addresses three present specialized challenges to sort out algorithmic literacy: first, the absence of created measure regarding how algorithms utilizes; second, the opacity of algorithms within day-to-day media utilization; and third, restrictions in scholarly lexicons that hurdle youth in communicating their algorithmic encounters. It discovers that client's judgment making policies of algorithms are context- oriented, prompted by anticipation encroachments and express actualization indications. Nevertheless, youth's instinctive and knowledge-oriented perceptions into message exemplification don't systematically activated youth to articulate these, nor does having awareness about algorithms automatically stimulate clients to interpose in algorithmic findings.**

***Index Terms*—Algorithm indexing, algorithm literacy, audience studies, algorithmic findings, news utilization, client view, folk theories.**

I. Introduction

News clients are enhancing disclosed to algorithmically express information. Youth under 25 in exceptionally rely on individualised media for messages, such as Facebook, YouTube, whats app , twitter and Instagram (Kalogeropoulos, 2019). Furthermore, information establishments are surprisingly trying out with individualizing their internet sites and applications to attract

and hold customers (Lieman, 2019). Therefore, algorithms enhancing affect how youth fortify realizing of the earth around them. However, Small is acknowledged about client's knowingness and expertise of algorithmic messages options. While numerous conceptual analysis have explored how algorithms figure out day-to-day living (e.g., Beer, 2017; Diakopoulos, 2015; Willson, 2017), these generally take a technical view to unhide how algorithms maintain power. So far, there has been substantially less empirical effect to empathize algorithmic cultivation from the point of action of clients, with few remarkable exceptions (Bucher, 2017; Fletcher amp; Nielsen, 2019; Hargittai et al., 2020). Secondly, In spite of these current consumption in intellectuals care for client sensing's of algorithms, Few is acknowledged approximately the significances of such "folk theories" (DeVito et al., 2018) for clients doings. This employs to youth's information patterns in general (see Min, 2019, for an exception). As Siles et al. (2020) argue, realizing the mutual kinship between clients and algorithms goes outside conquering how youths accept that algorithms function. It also demands regarding the events of these algorithmic notional, admitting the schemes and skills via which clients endorse with algorithms and how algorithms become comprised in day-to-day living (Lomborg amp; Kapsch, 2019; Siles et al., 2019; Van der Nagel, 2018). Naturally, client's authority approximately algorithms is considerably bounded by platform constructions (Van Dijck et al., 2018). Even, they are not entirely ineffective either. Via both denotative (i.e., the manual individualize instruments a platform

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providers) and implicit actions (e.g., altering web crawler behavior), customers may interpose in their conclusions (Haim et al., 2018; Min, 2019; Thurman amp; Schifferes, 2012). These activities assist to build and elaborate algorithms of individualized message media, as resubmission loops between customer nature and winning material scenario reflect (Kitchin, 2017; Thorson, 2020). In relation to social network messages, few aspects of "algorithmic skills" (Bruns, 2019) are especially crucial to

view because they sub clients vulnerability to records and their preferences to civic living in broadly. This paper aims a client view to expend the reacts within algorithms and web site clients. Constructing upon Cotter and Reisdorf's (2020) conceptualization of algorithms as "experience techniques," it involves how youth social networks clients comprehend, react, and feel around algorithmic equation on social media and under what considerations those experiences distributed to their algorithmic understandings. Technically, the paper emphasizes a compounding of the walk-through techniques (Light et al., 2018), think-aloud rules amp; regulations, and rigorous brain storming sessions. It talks about how such an approach can help defeat three common hurdles for analyzing algorithmic skills: (1) the missing of a constituted service line about how algorithms precisely controlled, (2) algorithm's opaqueness between day-to-day media utilization, and (3) potential breaks in lexicons between social media clients to emphasize their algorithmic hurdles. As such, the paper gives both theoretically and implementation to the little, but developing body of toil on clients algorithmic skills in a growingly individualized social networking surroundings.

II. ALGORITHMIC LITERACY

With the developing amount of individualized social networking platforms, having a common agreement of what algorithms are and implementation has become an essential component of social networking skills (Head et al., 2020). Particularly for clients under the age of 25 years, the preponderance of social media and news applications in their media consumption means that algorithmic gate keeping processes growingly impress the path in which they access social networking sites (Kalogeropoulos, 2019). Encourage the algorithms can improve boundary record surcharge and confirm clients in discovering applicable social networking messages logs in nowadays huge stream of information. Still, by existence, these constructions also fix client authority, taking machine-controlled conclusions on what record to expose and separate out. Such conclusions are far from neutral. Just as record about social media production assists public estimates procedures of column gate keeping, interpreting of algorithmic individualization are important for clients to seriously evaluate the wholeness and equalizer of the social media messages they reply (Powers, 2017). They may then select to be fulfilling with its choices, target to manage algorithm's conclusions by adjusting individual settings, or contribute extra references to their social media repertoires. In this paper, following Bruns (2019), I will utilize the term "algorithmic skills" to indentify to the combining of clients knowingness, wisdom, artificial, and skills around algorithms. In spite of the enhancing effect of algorithms on the record youth encounter, amazingly, more social media skill plans make up only bare care to capacity individualization. Routinely, social media pedagogy has been highlights on instructing pupils how to badly measures record, not on how applications and techniques may impresses few content (D'Ignazio amp; Bhargava, 2015; Head et al., 2020; Mihailidis, 2018). Furthermore, due to the economical existence of major social media applications, algorithm's choice

methodologies stay on unintelligible (Pasquale, 2015). This has activated a number of specially US-oriented analysis about clients knowingness of and cognition about how algorithms interpret the message they find (Bucher, 2017; Eslami et al., 2015, 2016; Gran et al., 2020; Rader amp; Gray, 2015; Schmidt et al., 2019). These actions extract combined outputs: whether Rader and Gray (2015) determined that nearly three-quarters of Facebook clients were cognizant their messages flow would not display all posts of the friends and pages they compiled, a same report by Eslami and colleagues (2015) discovered that only 39cognizant of Facebook's messages flow algorithm. Determinations about client's treatments in algorithmic messages choices are also equivocal. But Duggan and Smith (2016) resolved that nearly 43lively parson their record surroundings, Powers (2017) found that nearly institute pupils he reviewed did not, because they did not acknowledge how to edited their outputs on Google messages or Facebook or twitter. These integrated outcomes can fractionally be expressed by the geographical statistics diverseness in client sample distribution examinations. Gran et al. (2020) detected substantial connections among algorithmic cognizance and both clients level of pedagogy and gender. Recursive knowledge is also expected by the level of practices and has a poor association with age (Cotter amp; Reisdorf, 2020). According to the writers, nevertheless, socioeconomic components only account for a tiny ratio of conflicts in algorithmic cognition. The hardest forecaster for recursive cognition, they find, is clients anterior know how with algorithms: both their relative frequency and comprehensiveness of utilization. This counts because much former toil on recursive skills concerns to different domains that are already comparatively digitally skilled, such as recursive activists (Velkova amp; Kaun, 2019), web sponsor proprietors (Klawitter amp; Hargittai, 2018), and internet influencers (Bishop, 2019; Cotter, 2019). This elevates queries about the recursive skills of "normal" clients. Cotter and Reisdorf's (2020) detecting defend earlier outputs by DeVito et al. (2018), who emphasizes created recursive skills as a issue of "acquiring by doing" (see also Bucher, 2017). Conceiving recursive as "experience techniques" (Blank amp; Dutton, 2012), these writers indicates that recursives are empathized through utilization. What continues muddy in such research, however, is what majors as important recursive experiences that stimulate such expressions, and how and when these add to client's recursive skills. This knowledge expands youth people's recursive know how. Rather than of focusing what youth should experience about algorithms, it deliberates the comprehend skills and tricks that clients create via their day- to-day utilization of internet world. Such an experiential concentrate is comprehensive to distinct paths of skills and tricks, including forms that go beyond the knowledge. Subsequently, the theory of skills utilizes us to conceive recursive skills and tricks as a form of cognition that is not just intellectual, but also understood, no rational, fixed, and experienced (Tuan, 1977).

III. LEARNING ALGORITHMIC KNOWLEDGE

Earlier toil has utilized different methodologies to analysis clients algorithmic knowledge, from assessment

based opinion poll (Eslami et al., 2015) and experiments (Cotter and Reisdorf, 2020; Gran et al., 2020; Rader and Gray, 2015) to emphasis clusters (DeVito et al., 2018) and detailed meeting, often assisted by card sorts (Siles et al., 2019), sketches drills (Hargittai et al., 2020), or different task methods. Of course, procedural eyeglasses forever highlights specific features of a study theme while overlook others. Investigating algorithmic knowledge, yet, comes with a numeral of extra trials, which mark the option for a specific study pattern or instrument even more critical.

Initially, cipher knowledge is normally estimated by way of inferences. A number of cognition, acquirements, and abilities is determined that is believed substantive to be capable to bunch with digital world; then, clients are tested (normally via surveys) to what area their competency meet these requirements (e.g., Plantinga and Kaal, 2018; Van Deursen and Van Dijk, 2010). In the order of recursive skills, however, such a top-down approach is doubtful: the black- boxed testing of recursive builds it inconceivable to benchmark client's cognition and acquisition. Covered in privacy, even coders at social media firms frequently only have fractional skills about how recursive toil. Majority are composite compounding of jointly formulated parts of encipher, where a large number of calculative methods and variables interact. This makes their systems of logic hard to complicated, even for majorly experienced developers (Burrell, 2016; Seaver, 2017).

Another dare for studying client's recursive literacy is the mistiness of algorithms, which huge magnificence "behind the scenes" (Hamilton et al., 2014; Pasquale, 2015). This means that client's are doubtfully to find recursive theorems in their day-to-day habit, until they initiate developing unbooked, beside the point, or weird outputs.

This study takes the impression of feel as a point of differences as a means to win these hampers. It offers a soft explore figure mixing automatic in-depth interviews with the concurrent walk-through method (Light et al., 2018) and think-aloud protocols (Charters, 2003) to capture young people's algorithmic experiences. This combination has three advantages.

First, both methods allow for exploring algorithmic literacy bottom-up. Whereas the interviews capture users' knowledge about algorithmic curation, the think-aloud walk-through makes it possible to observe how such algorithmic literacy is applied in practice.

Second, while the interviews highlight the unspecific experiences that users acquire over time (Erfahrung), the walk-through and think-aloud methods bring consciousness to users' concrete encounters with algorithms (Erlebnisse) (see Turner's, 1985, distinction in Kaun, 2012) that they might normally take for granted (Hamilton et al., 2014).

Finally, conducting walk-throughs in addition to in- depth interviews enables users to show, not just tell, researchers their algorithmic experiences. This is useful for users who consciously experience personalization, but lack the technological vocabulary to articulate such encounters.

IV. METHODS

This qualitative, exploratory study draws upon semi- structured, in-depth interviews with a diverse group of 22 Dutch young people between the ages of 16 and 26 years, who used social media on a daily basis. This "Generation Z," sharing the experience of growing up in technologically mediated environments characterized by increasing digital, social, and individual media use, is a relatively frequent user of personalized media platforms, in general, and for news, specifically (Newman et al., 2020). Therefore, they are an interesting demographic for studying users' algorithmic experiences. In the Netherlands, where the Internet and smartphone penetration rank among the highest in the world, especially people under 20 are heavy social media users, spending over two hours on social media per day (Van der Veer et al., 2021).

Consequently, the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic affected the research considerably.

Face-to-face interviews were replaced by online interviews via Skype, which allows for screen sharing on both desktops/ laptops and smart phones.

Participants were asked to sign an informed consent form (digitally) prior to the interview. As an ice-breaker, the first part of the interview explored the interviewee's overall mobile and social media use, including platforms used, everyday routines, and spatiotemporal and social contexts of use.

Second, participants were asked to move through two to three of their social media apps as they normally would while thinking aloud about the content these platforms presented to them and theorizing why these platforms would display these stories. This iterative process resulted in themes related to three dimensions to algorithmic experience: how young people get to know and make sense of algorithms (cognitive), how algorithms make them feel (affective), and what they do around algorithms (behavioral).

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V. RESULTS

Like most members of their generation (Kalogeropoulos, 2019), the interviewees heavily depended on social media to stay up-to-date. (Live) television, radio, and newspapers were almost completely absent in their news repertoires.

Interviewees mostly discovered news via their social connections. This aligns with the prevalent news-finds-me attitude among this age cohort (Gil de Zúñiga et al., 2017; Toff and Nielsen, 2018) and highlights the significance of algorithmic and social curation for young people's contemporary news use.

All participants used Instagram. Consequently, most of the algorithmic experiences discussed in this article

originate from users' walk-throughs of this platform, where news use has doubled since 2018 (Newman et al., 2020). Other social media reflected upon during the interviews include YouTube (which at the time of research actively recommended COVID-19-related news), Facebook and Twitter (infrequent but important sources for finding news), LinkedIn (used for work-related updates), and the generally less news-focused platforms of Snapchat (via its Discovery section) and TikTok.

VI. Sensing Algorithms

The affective dimension to algorithmic experience considers the moods, affects, and sensations that algorithms generate, which may also invite reflections on algorithms and contribute to users' understandings (Bucher, 2018; Kennedy amp; Hill, 2018; Ruckenstein amp; Granroth, 2020). Whereas young people's imaginaries of what algorithms do differed widely, there was less variation in users' perceptions of what algorithms are and how these imaginaries made them feel. Three perceptions can be distinguished among algorithm-aware participants.

Algorithmic curation invoked reflections, in particular, through feelings of surprise, positive and negative. On the one hand, interviewees experienced the sense of being recognized by algorithms as pleasant (see also Ruckenstein and Granroth, 2020).

Reversely, algorithms that misrepresented young people's tastes or were too simplistic appropriations of their interests invoked irritation. Knowing you are being surveilled raises expectations: there should be a fair trade- off between giving up data privacy and ease of use (Kennedy et al., 2017).

Second, although surprising content suggestions on social media were generally experienced as irritating or odd, on news sites and apps, young people actually preferred to receive unexpected content. They saw the supply of topically diverse news as a key role of media organizations (see also Fletcher and Nielsen, 2019; Thurman et al., 2019).

VII. Engaging with Algorithms

The behavioral dimension to algorithmic experience relates to what young people do around algorithms. Through their everyday interactions with algorithms, young people may build up understandings of algorithmic news selection. The interviewees were aware of various explicit personalization strategies (Haim et al., 2018) through which they might intervene in the composition of their news feeds, such as unfollowing accounts and hashtags; using a platform's "hide," "mute," or "report" function; or setting up notifications for particular accounts to not miss out on new posts.

First, young people imagined their own role in shaping algorithms as limited. While some, like Tara (18), were confident they could compose their own timelines, most participants thought of algorithmic curation as something that just happened to them on social media and was beyond their control.

Second, algorithms' feedback loop conceptualizes usersas rational beings who consciously and deliberately engage with news. For the algorithm, users are simply what they do,

neglecting elements that complicate such a behavioralist conception of the self (Fisher and Mehozay, 2019). Finally, young people overall were reasonably content with how recommender algorithms classified them. Although algorithms' occasional oversimplifications of their interests invoked irritation, none of the interviewees had experienced effects of user profiling that were explicitly discriminating (cf. Bucher, 2017; Lomborg and Kapsch, 2019). Possibly, users who do experience such harmful, offensive consequences are more likely to engage with algorithms to actively resist their decisions (see Velkova and Kaun, 2019).

VIII. Engaging with Algorithms

Understanding and knowing how to deal with algorithmic curation have become crucial for critically and mindfully navigating today's increasingly personalized media landscape (Head et al., 2020). This article explored young people's experiences of news personalization on social media to understand under what circumstances people's everyday encounters with algorithms contribute to their algorithmic literacy. It argues that to fully understand how platforms exert power in everyday life, we should capture how news users make sense of, feel about, and interact with algorithm driven media on their own terms, including their intuitive, affective, and experience-based forms of knowledge.

This article finds this process hinges on three conditions. First, awareness of the reciprocal relation between users' own behavior and algorithms' decision-making needs to be triggered. This occurs when algorithms violate users' expectations (Bucher, 2017; Hargittai et al., 2020), but also through platforms' explicit disclaimers why certain posts are shown.

Furthermore, while experiences with algorithms do contribute to young people's algorithmic literacy, they do not automatically equip them with the vocabulary to articulate such tacit knowledge. Most participants in this study were highly educated. Moreover, the study was conducted in the Netherlands, a nation characterized by high levels of Internet, mobile, and social media use. Finally, the interviews suggest that news media aiming to further personalize their content may have to overcome considerable skepticism. Young people were hesitant of algorithmically curated news, due to fears of missing out, concerns around surveillance, and because they wanted journalism to contain elements of surprise (see also Thurman et al., 2019).

However, this also means they had trouble imagining that news organizations might choose to employ algorithms differently (Möller et al., 2018). Future research could consider whether an increase in algorithmic transparency, for instance, by presenting more explicit personalization cues or granting users more opportunities to intervene in user profiling, might mitigate such concerns.

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Fatigue crack segmentation of steel bridges using deep learning models - a comparative study.

1st Rizwan Khan
Software developer at WSP
Prof at University of Kansas Lawrence
Kansas ,USA
Rizwan.khan@wsp.com

2nd Farhan Mew
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur,India
Farhanmew4851@gmail.com

3rd David O Johnson
dept. name of organization (of Aff.)
Lawrence
Kansas,USA
davidojohnson@ku.edu

***Abstract*—Structural health monitoring (SHM) is crucial for maintaining the safety and durability of infrastructure. To address the limitations of traditional inspection methods, this study leverages cutting-edge deep learning-based segmentation models for autonomous crack identification. Specifically, we utilized the recently launched YOLOv11 model, alongside the established DeepLabv3+ model for crack segmentation. Mask R-CNN, a widely recognized model in crack segmentation studies, is used as the baseline approach for comparison. Our approach integrates the CREC cropping strategy to optimize dataset preparation and employs post-processing techniques, such as dilation and erosion, to refine segmentation results. Experimental results demonstrate that our method—combining state-of-the-art models, innovative data preparation strategies, and targeted post-processing—achieves superior mean Intersection-over-Union (mIoU) performance compared to the baseline, showcasing its potential for precise and efficient crack detection in SHM systems.**

***Index Terms*—component, formatting, style, styling, insert**

I. Introduction

Structural Health Monitoring (SHM) is crucial for ensuring the safety and longevity of critical infrastructure, such as bridges, tunnels, and buildings. Among the various forms of damage, cracks— particularly fatigue cracks—pose significant risks to structural integrity. Traditional crack detection methods, primarily relying on manual inspections, are labor-intensive, time-consuming, and prone to human error. As infrastructure ages, these conventional methods are becoming increasingly inadequate, highlighting the need for more efficient, automated solutions.

In response to these challenges, recent advancements in deep learning and computer vision have revolutionized SHM by enabling autonomous crack detection. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), particularly in the form of semantic and instance segmentation models, have shown remarkable success in identifying and segmenting cracks in images. Early approaches in crack detection utilized classical image processing techniques such as edge detection and morphological operations (e.g., dilation, erosion). However, these methods were limited in handling With the rise of deep learning, models like U-Net and fully convolutional networks (FCNs) have advanced crack detection by enabling pixel-wise classification, offering better precision and handling smaller cracks. Recent research has explored more specialized models such as DeepLabv3+ and Mask R-CNN, both of which have proven effective in structural crack segmentation. DeepLabv3+, as presented by Chen et al. (2018), excels at capturing multi-scale features and is particularly useful for complex segmentation tasks, while Mask R-CNN (He et al., 2017), known for its instance segmentation capabilities, has shown its strength in distinguishing individual cracks even in fragmented images. Additionally, the YOLO family of models, particularly the recently released YOLOv11, has gained attention for its real-time object detection capabilities, making it suitable for practical, on-site SHM applications where speed is crucial. These models have demonstrated significant improvements over traditional methods, offering better accuracy, efficiency, and adaptability.

In their work, Hsu et al. (2022) and others have successfully applied deep learning models like Mask

R-CNN and DeepLabv3+ for crack segmentation in structural images. Notably, Hsu et al. (2022) explored the impact of image cropping strategies, such as the CREC cropping strategy, to improve the crack-to- background ratio in training datasets, leading to enhanced model performance. The CREC cropping technique has been shown to be particularly effective in reducing the influence of background noise and improving the segmentation accuracy by focusing on the crack regions. This method, combined with label refinement techniques, has been shown to boost the Intersection-over-Union (IoU) metric significantly.

Similarly, Zhao et al. (2022) proposed a modified U- net model with Self-Attention-Self-Adaption (SASA) neurons and a Crack Random Elastic Deformation (CRED) algorithm for data augmentation. This work emphasizes the importance of tailored network architectures and advanced data augmentation techniques in improving the performance of crack detection models, particularly in the challenging context of tiny, irregular cracks in high-resolution images. Building on these advancements, Li et al(2022). presented a one-step deep learning-

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Table 1: Performance Comparison of Reference Models and Proposed Approaches for Fatigue crack segmentation

Reference	Model/Framework	Key Techniques	Performance (mIoU)	Notable Contributions
Hsu et al. (2022)	Mask R-CNN, DeepLabv3+	CREC cropping, label refinement	Mask R CNN: 75%(overall)	Demonstrated the effectiveness of CREC cropping in improving crack-to background ratio and segmentation accuracy.
Zhao et al. (2022)	Modified U-Net	SASA neurons, CRED data augmentation	40.9%(Crack)	Highlighted the importance of advanced augmentation and specialized neurons for fine crack detection.
Li et al. (2022)	CrackDet (Modified U-Net)	Dilated convolution, SPP, FPN, Dice loss	75.71% (full scale), 76.70% (cropped)	Developed CrackDet with backbone enhancements and optimized loss functions for pixel-level fine crack detection.

based framework specifically designed for pixel-level detection of fine cracks in steel girder images. Their model, termed CrackDet, incorporates structural innovations such as dilated convolution, Spatial Pyramid Pooling (SPP), and Feature Pyramid Networks (FPN) to handle complex backgrounds and small object detection effectively.

The performance of these methods, along with the models implemented in this study—YOLOv11 and DeepLabv3+—is summarized in Table 1, providing a comparative analysis of the mIoU scores achieved by various approaches. This study builds upon these recent advancements by integrating YOLOv11. The capability of YOLOv11 to simultaneously detect and segment cracks in real time makes it a powerful tool for SHM, where timely and accurate detection is critical. and DeepLabv3+ for semantic segmentation, alongside the CREC cropping strategy to enhance the dataset's crack-to-background ratio. The real-time capabilities of YOLOv11, combined with the multi- scale feature extraction capabilities of DeepLabv3+, provide a robust framework for precise and efficient crack detection. By leveraging these models and data preparation strategies, this project aims to further improve crack segmentation accuracy and efficiency, contributing to the development of more reliable and automated SHM systems. This Study YOLOv11, DeepLabv3+ CREC cropping, post processing (erosion, dilation) YOLOv11: 37.76%,DeepLabv3+: 23.76% (Crack) Integrated real-time detection (YOLOv11) and semantic segmentation with CREC strategy and post-processing refinements.

II. METHOD AND DATASET

A. *DATASET FOR TRAINING AND VALIDATION*

Data preprocessing is a critical step in preparing the dataset for training deep learning models, especially when dealing with challenges like small crack sizes, imbalanced datasets, and noisy backgrounds. In this study, we adopted a pre-processing pipeline that draws from the work of Hsu et al. (2022) and Zhao et al. (2022), with a focus on enhancing the quality and diversity of the training images to ensure the models perform effectively in detecting cracks. The dataset used in this study is the IPC-SHM 2020 dataset, which contains 200 high-resolution images of steel fatigue cracks on welding joints, with a resolution of 4928x3264 pixels. Of these, 120 images are annotated with binary labels, where cracks are marked with a label of 1 and non-crack regions are labeled as 0. These 120 annotated images were used as the training set, while the remaining 80 images served as the test set. To improve the model's ability to generalize and handle a variety of scenarios, data augmentation was applied to the training images. Instead of performing standard augmentation on individual images, a custom script was used to apply several transformations iteratively. The process begins by passing each original image through a for loop 7 times, with each iteration applying a random transformation to the image. A random function determines which augmentation operation—such as horizontal flip, rotation, brightness adjustment, or contrast adjustment—should be applied, depending on whether the output of the random function exceeds a predefined threshold. This random selection ensures that each image undergoes different combinations of transformations, creating a more diverse set of images for training. After this process, the training dataset is effectively 7 times larger than the original, with varied versions of each image, exposing the model to different orientations, lighting conditions, and shapes of cracks. Once the augmentation process is completed, the next crucial step is the CREC cropping strategy, which was inspired by Hsu et al. (2022). The CREC cropping method is designed to increase the crack-to- background ratio in each image. After the augmentation, each image is cropped to a bounding box that tightly encapsulates the crack region, ensuring that only the crack and a small surrounding area are retained. This cropping process helps remove unnecessary background information, which could distract the model from learning the important features of the crack. The cropped images are then resized to meet the input requirements of the deep learning models and are normalized as per standard practices to ensure consistent training across all images. The result of this preprocessing pipeline is a dataset that is more focused on the cracks themselves, with a significant reduction in background noise. To visually illustrate this, Figure 1 shows the progression of an image through each preprocessing step. Starting with the original image, it is then augmented through various transformations such as horizontal flips and rotations, followed by brightness and contrast adjustments. Finally, the image undergoes the CREC cropping step, where the crack is isolated from the surrounding background, providing the model with a clearer view of the crack region. This ensures that the model is trained on images that emphasize the features most relevant for crack detection. Through this comprehensive preprocessing approach, which combines augmentation and targeted cropping, the dataset is enriched and focused on the critical crack regions. The increased diversity in the images, coupled with the reduced background noise, helps improve the model's ability to detect cracks accurately and generalize to different scenarios in real-world SHM applications.

Fig. 1. Caption

1) DATASET FOR YOLOV11 : The preparation of the dataset for the YOLOv11 model required transforming the binary mask annotations from the IPC-SHM 2020 dataset into a format suitable for YOLO, specifically tailored for instance segmentation. This process ensured that crack annotations were captured with precision, leveraging polygon-based representations.

Starting with the binary masks, where each pixel was labeled as either 1 (crack) or 0 (non-crack), the dataset was first converted into the COCO format. This format supports polygon annotations, allowing cracks to be represented with their precise boundaries as a series of (x, y) coordinates.

Next, the annotations in COCO format were converted into the YOLO format. Unlike traditional YOLO annotations that use bounding boxes, the converted dataset used polygons to describe crack regions. Each .txt file, corresponding to an image, contained lines structured as: `<class\_id> <x1> <y1> <x2> <y2>` `... <xn> <yn>`, where:

- class_id: Always 0, as the dataset contains a single class (crack).
- `<x1>, <y1>...<xn>, <yn>`: Normalized polygon coordinates, scaled relative to the image dimensions.

This format ensures that the dataset captures the irregular shapes of cracks accurately, enabling the YOLOv11 model to perform precise instance segmentation. To ensure the correctness of these annotations, the dataset was validated using Roboflow, which allowed visualization of the polygon-based annotations. This step confirmed that the cracks' shapes and positions were correctly represented and that the conversion process from COCO to YOLO format preserved the annotation details.

Finally, the dataset was structured into the standard YOLO format:

- Images were organized into train/, val/, and test/ folders within the images/ directory.
- Labels in .txt format were placed in the labels/ folder, with filenames matching their respective images for easy mapping.
- A data.yaml file defined the dataset parameters, specifying the single class (crack) and the paths to the image and label directories.

This transformation pipeline, incorporating polygon- based annotations, ensured that the YOLOv11 model could effectively leverage instance segmentation. Combined with augmentation and CREC cropping, the dataset provided a rich and precise resource for crack detection. cracks effectively.

B. IMPLEMENTATION OF DEEPLABV3+ AND YOLOV11 MODELS

In this study, two advanced deep learning models—DeepLabv3+ and YOLOv11L Seg—were implemented to tackle the challenge of steel fatigue crack recognition. Both models were chosen for their effectiveness in segmentation tasks, and their performance was evaluated using the mean Intersection-over-Union (mIoU) metric, which combines the accuracy of detecting cracks and background regions.

- DeepLabv3+ Implementation The DeepLabv3+ model was implemented first, leveraging its proven ability to capture multi-scale features using atrous convolution and Atrous Spatial Pyramid Pooling (ASPP). This model is particularly well-suited for tasks like crack segmentation, where precision in identifying fine details and irregular shapes is critical. The architecture of DeepLabv3+ is designed to improve segmentation performance by capturing both global and local features, making it effective in complex segmentation tasks.

Figure 2 illustrates the architecture of DeepLabv3+, highlighting the key components such as the encoder-decoder structure, atrous convolution layers, and the ASPP module, which contribute to its ability to handle multi-scale information and refine boundaries

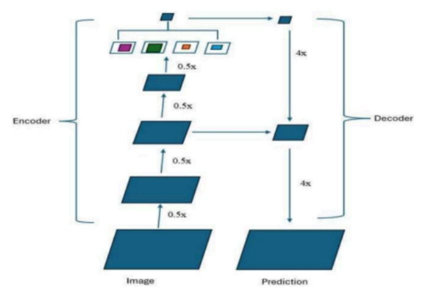

Fig. 2. Architecture of DeepLabv3+

The training parameters for DeepLabv3+, including the learning rate, batch size, optimizer, and other key settings, are summarized in Table 2. Using the augmented dataset prepared with the CREC cropping strategy, DeepLabv3+ was trained with a binary cross-entropy loss function. The model's performance was evaluated on the validation dataset using mIoU, which provided a comprehensive measure of the overlap between predicted and ground truth regions for both the crack and background classes. Despite the model's solid performance, achieving an mIoU of 65%, challenges remained in capturing finer details of cracks, particularly in more complex and irregular patterns.

Table 2 Hyperparameter for Deeplabv3+

Hyperparameter	Deeplabv3+
Batch Size	8
Epoch	200
optimizer	Stochastic gradient descent (momentum=0.9, weight decay=$^{10-4}$)
Learning Rate	2x10-4

Fig. 3. Table 2 Hyperparameter for Deeplabv3+

YOLOv11L-Seg Implementation To address the challenges of segmenting steel fatigue cracks, we implemented the YOLOv11L-Seg model, a state-of-the-art deep learning framework specifically designed for segmentation tasks. Building upon the robust YOLO architecture, YOLOv11 offers scalable variants—S, M, L, XL—allowing flexibility in balancing computational efficiency and precision. The L-Seg variant was chosen for its ability to handle intricate crack structures while maintaining real-time performance, a critical feature for practical Structural Health Monitoring (SHM) applications.

The architecture of YOLOv11L-Seg is modular, comprising three primary components—backbone, neck, and head— each tailored to optimize the segmentation process: Backbone: Responsible for feature extraction, the backbone processes the input images and extracts multi-scale spatial features. It incorporates advanced techniques such as dilated convolution and enhanced feature pyramids, enabling the model to capture both global and fine-grained details essential for crack detection. Neck: The neck refines and fuses features from multiple scales, bridging the gap between feature extraction and prediction. YOLOv11L-Seg employs Path Aggregation Networks (PANet) to enhance multi-scale feature learning, ensuring that even small cracks are effectively highlighted in noisy environments. Head: The segmentation-specific head generates precise pixel-level masks for crack detection. This component is optimized for boundary refinement and accurate classification of crack versus background pixels, making it particularly effective for segmenting fragmented or disconnected crack patterns. Figure 3 illustrates the architecture of YOLOv11L-Seg, showcasing the interplay between the backbone, neck, and head components.

The selection of YOLOv11L-Seg was driven by its advanced architecture, designed to extract detailed spatial features and produce pixel-level predictions for segmentation. Unlike traditional object detection variants, YOLOv11L-Seg incorporates a segmentation-specific head, enabling it to generate precise masks that capture the irregular and fragmented nature of crack patterns. Its improved backbone further enhances feature extraction, making it particularly suitable for high-resolution datasets like IPC-SHM 2020.

The training process for YOLOv11L-Seg involved fine-tuning key hyperparameters to optimize performance for crack segmentation. The learning rate was adjusted iteratively to ensure convergence, while the batch size was selected to balance training stability with memory constraints. The optimizer was tailored to YOLOv11's architecture to achieve efficient weight updates. These hyperparameters, summarized in Table 3, were tuned specifically for the YOLOv11L-Seg model, differing from those used for DeepLabv3+. The training dataset, prepared using the CREC cropping strategy, emphasized crack regions to improve the model's focus during learning. The same 700 training images and 140 validation images used for DeepLabv3+ were utilized to ensure consistency and enable direct performance comparisons. The model's performance was assessed using the mean Intersection-over-Union (mIoU) metric, which evaluates the overlap between the predicted masks and the ground truth annotations for each class. mIoU provided a comprehensive measure of segmentation accuracy, combining results for both the crack and background classes. YOLOv11L- Seg

demonstrated superior mIoU compared performance for crack segmentation. The learning rate was adjusted iteratively to ensure convergence, while the batch size was selected to balance training stability with memory constraints. The optimizer was tailored to YOLOv11's architecture to achieve efficient weight updates. These hyperparameters, summarized in Table 3, were tuned specifically for the YOLOv11L-Seg model, differing from those used for DeepLabv3+. The training dataset, prepared using the CREC cropping strategy, emphasized crack regions to improve the model's focus during learning. The same 700 training images and 140 validation images used for DeepLabv3+ were utilized to ensure consistency and enable direct performance comparisons. The model's performance was assessed using the mean Intersection-over-Union (mIoU) metric, which evaluates the overlap between the predicted masks and the ground truth annotations for each class. mIoU provided a comprehensive measure of segmentation accuracy, combining results for both the crack and background classes. YOLOv11L- Seg to both Mask R-CNN and DeepLabv3+, highlighting its advanced capability in handling complex crack patterns. The model excelled in several key scenarios: Fine and Irregular Cracks: YOLOv11L- Seg accurately segmented thin, fragmented cracks, a challenging task for most segmentation models. High-Noise Backgrounds: The model effectively differentiatedcracks from noisy environments, minimizing false positives. Complex Geometries: Its segmentation head captured intricate crack shapes, providing contiguous predictions even for disconnected regions.

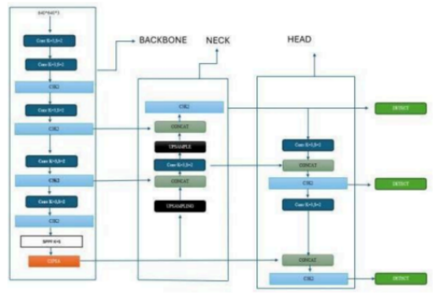

Fig. 4. Fig 3 YOLOv11L-Seg Architecture Overview

Hyperparameter	Yolov11L
Batch Size	8
Epoch	200
optimizer	Adam (Momentum =0.937,Weight decay =0.0005)
Learning Rate	0.01
imgsz	1064

Fig. 5. Table 3 Hyperparameter for Yolov11

C. POST –PROCESSING

To further refine the segmentation results and enhance model performance, post- processing techniques were applied to the predicted masks generated by the models. These steps were essential for addressing challenges posed by fine, fragmented crack structures and noisy backgrounds, common in steel fatigue crack detection tasks. Morphological Operations: Erosion and Dilation

The post-processing involved the application of morphological operations, specifically: Erosion: This operation was used to remove small, isolated false positives that often appear along the boundaries of predicted crack regions. By shrinking the predicted mask slightly, erosion refined the crack boundaries, ensuring cleaner and more accurate segmentation outputs.

Dilation: Following erosion, dilation was applied to enhance the connectivity of true positive regions. This operation expanded the predicted mask slightly, filling in gaps and reconnecting fragmented areas within the crack predictions. The result was a more complete and cohesive representation of the crack structures.

To achieve optimal results, these operations were performed using a kernel size of 3, with two iterations of dilation and one iteration of erosion. This sequence ensured a balance between removing noise and preserving the integrity of the crack predictions. Rationale for post-processing Post-processing was introduced to address specific challenges observed during segmentation:

- Fine Cracks: Thin and elongated crack patterns often resulted in fragmented predictions. Dilation bridged these gaps, creating more continuous crack representations.
- Noise Reduction: Small, isolated false positives were eliminated by erosion, reducing noise and improving segmentation clarity.
- mIoU Improvement: The combination of erosion and dilation refined the predicted masks, directly contributing to better mean Intersection-over-Union (mIoU) performance by improving both precision and recall

Figure 4 provides a basic illustration of how erosion and dilation operate, showing the impact of these morphological operations on segmentation masks. These steps played a crucial role in refining the output and achieving higher segmentation quality.

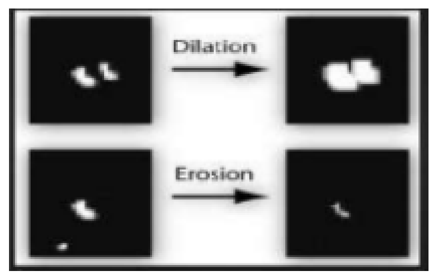

Fig 4 Dilation and Erosion

D. TRAINING AND VALIDATION INSIGHTS

The implementation of DeepLabv3+ and YOLOv11L-Seg revealed distinct advantages for each model. While DeepLabv3+ exhibited strong segmentation capabilities, particularly for well-defined cracks, it struggled to capture more complex or subtle crack patterns. YOLOv11L-Seg, on the other hand, demonstrated a more robust performance, especially in challenging scenarios where cracks had irregular shapes or appeared in cluttered backgrounds. Figure 5 illustrates the training loss curves for the YOLOv11L-Seg model across 175 epochs. These metrics provide critical insights into the model's optimization process and generalization performance. During the initial epochs, a steep decline in both training and validation losses is observed, indicating that the model is rapidly learning features from the dataset. This steep decline suggests effective gradient updates during the early stages of training. As the training progresses, the rate of decline in loss slows, eventually stabilizing toward the later epochs. This plateauing behavior reflects the convergence of the model to an optimal solution. Notably, the training loss consistently remains lower than the validation loss throughout the training process, a typical pattern suggesting proper regularization and absence of overfitting. However, the consistent narrowing of the gap between these losses over epochs highlights the model's improving generalization ability. The final loss values demonstrate the YOLOv11L-Seg model's ability to balance segmentation precision and computational efficiency. The gradual stabilization of validation loss suggests the model's robustness when applied to unseen data. These insights validate the choice of hyperparameters, and training strategy used during model development.

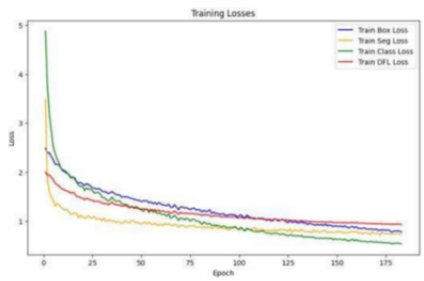

Fig. 6. Fig 5 Training loss vs epochs for the YOLOv11L-Seg

The training loss vs. epochs plot for the DeepLabV3+ model appears to show a similar pattern to the YOLOv11L-Seg model. You can see in the Figure 6 During the initial epochs, there is a steep decline in both the training and validation losses, indicating that the model is rapidly learning features from the dataset. As the training progresses, the rate of decline in the loss slows, eventually stabilizing toward the later epochs, which reflects the convergence of the model to an optimal solution.

Consistent with the YOLOv11L-Seg model, the training loss for the DeepLabV3+ model appears to be consistently lower than the validation loss throughout the training process. This is a typical pattern that suggests proper regularization and the absence of overfitting. The narrowing of the gap between the training and validation losses over the epochs highlights the model's improving generalization ability. The final loss values for the DeepLabV3+ model demonstrate its ability to balance segmentation precision and computational efficiency. The gradual stabilization of the validation loss suggests the model's robustness when applied to unseen data. These insights validate the choice of hyperparameters, and training strategy used during the model development process.

III. RESULTS

The performance of the implemented models—DeepLabv3+ and YOLOv11L Seg—was evaluated using the mean Intersection-over-Union (mIoU) metric, DeepLabv3+ achieved an initial mIoU of 22.53.00% for crack segmentation, while

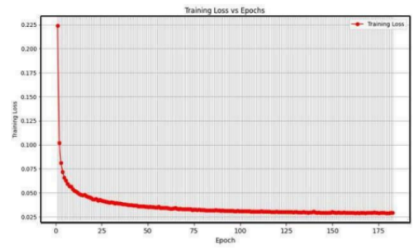

Fig. 7. Fig 6 training loss vs epochs for Deeplabv3+

YOLOv11L-Seg demonstrated a slightly higher mIoU of 34.96%. These results reflect the inherent strengths of YOLOv11L-Seg in capturing intricate crack structures, attributed to its advanced segmentation architecture and focusing specifically on the segmentation accuracy for cracks. The results highlight the models' capabilities and the impact of post-processing techniques on improving segmentation performance.

hyperparameter optimization. However, both models faced challenges in handling fine crack details and fragmented regions, especially in complex backgrounds. To address the limitations in segmentation accuracy, post-processing techniques, including erosion and

dilation, were applied

to the predicted masks. As described earlier, erosion was used to eliminate noise and refine crack boundaries, while dilation improved the connectivity of predicted crack regions. These morphological operations resulted in noticeable improvements in the mIoU scores for both models. After post- processing, the mIoU of YOLOv11L-Seg increased from 34.96% to 37.76%, demonstrating a significant enhancement in its ability to capture accurate crack representations. Similarly, DeepLabv3+ experienced an improvement from 22.53% to 23.76%, showcasing the effectiveness of post-processing in refining its predictions.

Fig 7 summarizes the mIoU scores of the yolov11 model, both before and after post- processing and Fig 8 for Deeplabv3+. YOLOv11L-Seg consistently outperformed DeepLabv3, yolov11l highlighting its superior capability for crack segmentation in structural health monitoring (SHM) applications. The results emphasize the role of post-processing as a critical step in improving segmentation outcomes, particularly for tasks involving fine, fragmented crack structures.

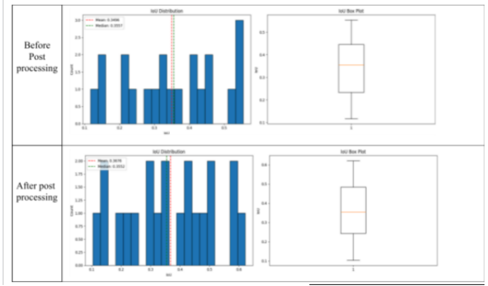

Fig. 8. Fig 7 Yolov11l

Before Post processing After post processin g Fig 8 DeepLabv3+

image, offering a clear, contextualized To further validate the performance of the implemented models, qualitative results are presented in Figure 9, offering a detailed visualization of the segmentation outputs impact of the post-processing techniques (erosion and dilation). Each sample showcases four distinct views:

Original Image: The unprocessed input image depicting steel surfaces with visible fatigue cracks, serving as the foundation for segmentation.

Ground Truth Mask: The reference segmentation mask manually annotated to highlight the actual crack regions, providing the benchmark for evaluating model predictions.

Predicted Mask: The mask generated by the model, illustrating the regions identified as cracks based on the trained model's inference. Overlay of Predicted Mask: The predicted segmentation mask overlaidon the original comparison between the prediction and the actual crack locations. The visualizations underscore the capability of Models .

By refining the predicted masks, Erosion and dilation techniques enhance the clarity and connectivity of crack regions while reducing noise and false positives. The visual contrast between pre- and post-processed masks emphasizes the critical role of these morphological operations in improving segmentation quality. This qualitative analysis not only supports the quantitative findings discussed earlier but also reinforces the rationale for focusing on YOLOv11L-Seg as the primary model. It highlights the potential for real-world applications of this approach in structural health monitoring (SHM), where precision and reliability in crack detection are paramount.

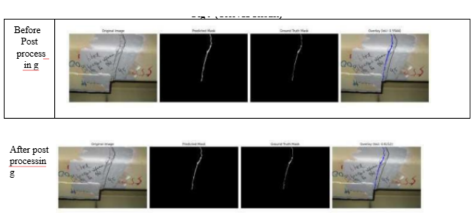

Fig. 9. Fig 9 (Yolov11 Result

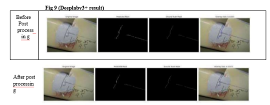

Fig. 10. Fig 9 (Deeplabv3+ result)

IV. Conclusion

This study evaluated the performance of two advanced deep learning models, DeepLabv3+ and YOLOv11L-Seg, for steel fatigue crack segmentation. The results revealed that YOLOv11L-Seg demonstrated superior segmentation capabilities compared to DeepLabv3+, achieving a higher mIoU of 34.96% compared to DeepLabv3+'s 22.53%. Post-processing techniques, including erosion and dilation, were applied to refine the predicted masks for both models, leading to further improvements in segmentation accuracy. After post processing, YOLOv11L-Seg achieved an mIoU of 37.76The qualitative and quantitative analysis highlights the effectiveness of YOLOv11L-Seg in addressing the challenges of crack detection, especially when coupled with post-processing to refine predictions. These findings emphasize the importance of combining robust segmentation models with post- processing techniques to improve crack detection performance in structural health monitoring applications. Future work could focus on optimizing these methods further or exploring hybrid approaches to enhance segmentation accuracy for complex crack patterns.

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Deep Learning Techniques for the Segmentation and Classification of Glaucoma

1st Deepak Kumar Mehta
dept. CSE Mandsaur
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
mdsdpk@gmail.com

2nd Dr. Firoj Parwej
dept.of CSE Mandsaur
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
mdsdpk@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Glaucoma is a progressive eye disease that can lead to irreversible blindness if not diagnosed and treated in its early stages. Traditional diagnostic methods rely on clinical expertise and are often time-consuming, subjective, and prone to variability. With advancements in artificial intelligence, deep learning techniques have emerged as powerful tools for automating glaucoma detection through medical image analysis. This study presents a comparative analysis of various deep learning methods used for the segmentation and classification of glaucoma, focusing on convolutional neural networks (CNNs), U-Net, and transformer- based models.**

The research examines the effectiveness of different architectures in segmenting key ocular structures such as the optic disc and optic cup and classifying glaucomatous images based on fundus photography. The study also discusses challenges such as dataset limitations, model interpretability. By analyzing the strengths and weaknesses of existing techniques, this study provides insights into the most effective approaches for glaucoma detection and highlights future directions for improving automated diagnostic systems.

***Index Terms*—Deep Learning, Neural Network, Glaucoma, CNN, Segmentation, Classification.**

I. Introduction

Glaucoma is one of the leading causes of irreversible blindness worldwide, affecting millions of people, particularly the elderly. It is a progressive eye disease that damages the optic nerve, often due to increased intraocular pressure (IOP). One of the most concerning aspects of glaucoma is that it typically develops without noticeable symptoms in its early stages, making early detection and diagnosis critical for preventing vision loss. Traditional methods of glaucoma diagnosis, such as intraocular pressure measurement, visual field tests, and optic nerve head examination, rely heavily on clinical expertise and are often time- consuming and subject to variability in interpretation. As a result, there is a growing interest in leveraging advanced artificial intelligence (AI) techniques to automate and enhance the accuracy of glaucoma detection.

Deep learning, a subset of AI, has gained significant attention in the field of medical image analysis due to its ability to extract meaningful patterns and features from complex datasets. In particular, deep learning-based segmentation and classification techniques have demonstrated remarkable performance in diagnosing glaucoma from retinal images, such as fundus photography and optical coherence tomography (OCT) scans. Unlike traditional machine learning methods, which require manual feature extraction, deep learning models can automatically learn hierarchical features from large datasets, improving diagnostic efficiency and reducing human intervention. Convolutional neural networks (CNNs), U-Net architectures, and transformer-based models have been extensively used to segment crucial eye structures, such as the optic disc and optic cup, as well as to classify images into glaucomatous and non-glaucomatous categories.

Despite the promising advancements in deep learning-based glaucoma detection, there remain challenges that need to be addressed. Variability in image quality, the need for large annotated datasets, and the risk of model overfitting are some of the key limitations that impact the reliability of AI-driven diagnostic systems. Moreover, different deep learning architectures have their own strengths and weaknesses in terms of accuracy, computational complexity, and generalization ability. Therefore, a comparative analysis of existing research in this domain is essential to understand which methods perform best under different conditions and how they can be further optimized for real-world clinical applications.

This study aims to provide a comprehensive review of deep learning techniques used for the segmentation and classification of glaucoma. It explores various neural network architectures, highlights their advantages and limitations, and discusses potential future directions for improving automated glaucoma diagnosis. By synthesizing findings from existing literature, this research seeks to offer valuable insights into the current state of AI-based glaucoma detection and contribute to the ongoing development of more accurate and efficient diagnostic tools.

II. Related Works

U-Net Architecture for Optic Cup and Disc Segmentation. The U-Net architecture is widely used for OD and OC segmentation. Sudhan et al. [1] employed a U- Net-based model for OC segmentation, achieving high accuracy. Similarly, Swapna et al. [2] integrated U-Net with CNNs for classification, demonstrating significant improvements.

Deep Learning with Optical Coherence Tomography

(OCT) OCT imaging is crucial for glaucoma diagnosis. Studies have demonstrated that deep learning models can accurately

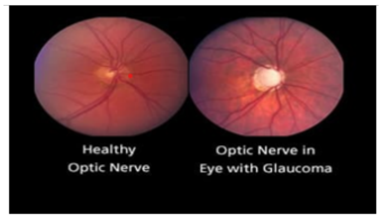


Fig. 1. Healthy Vs Glautomotus Eye

detect glaucoma in OCT scans with minimal human intervention [3]. These models outperform traditional manual segmentation approaches.

Multi-Stage Glaucoma Classification Using Pretrained CNNs Sreng et al. [4] proposed a multi-stage glaucoma classification system using pretrained CNNs, showing enhanced detection accuracy. This method highlights the effectiveness of transfer learning in glaucoma classification.

Snapshot Ensemble CNN with EfficientNet for Glaucoma Detection Innovative approaches such as the snapshot ensemble CNN combined with EfficientNet have demonstrated high accuracy in glaucoma classification [5]. These models optimize feature extraction for robust glaucoma detection.

Automatic Detection of Glaucoma via Fundus Imaging and AI AI-powered detection systems analyze fundus images, generating segmented OD and OC masks for glaucoma classification. Coan et al. [6] provided a comprehensive review of AI-driven glaucoma detection techniques.

Geometric Deep Learning for Glaucoma Diagnosis Thiery et al. [7] applied geometric deep learning to OCT scans, achieving superior diagnostic accuracy compared to traditional methods.

Two-Stage Framework for Optic Disc Localization and Glaucoma Classification Bajwa et al. [8] introduced a two-stage deep learning framework that first localizes the OD and subsequently classifies glaucoma, yielding improved classification performance.

(Melo Ferreira et al., 2023) developed a method based on deep learning, which uses fundus images and OCT volumes to aid in detecting glaucoma at early or progressive stages. In this way, it can have clinical use, being able to be used as a tool not only for the detection of the disease but also that it helps in searching for more severe cases of the disease. As a result, the proposed method achieves 0.886 kappa score.

(Shi et al., 2023) present an artifact-tolerant unsupervised learning framework called EyeLearn for learning ophthalmic image representations in glaucoma cases. To evaluate EyeLearn, we use the learned representations for visual field prediction and glaucoma detection with a real-world dataset of glaucoma patient ophthalmic images. Extensive experiments and comparisons with state-of-the- art methods confirm the effectiveness of EyeLearn in learning optimal feature representations from ophthalmic images.

(Sarhan et al., 2019) discussed the Cup to disc ratio calculation for detection and classification of glaucoma. And developed an approach for detection of glaucoma using fundus images. A Semi automated method using CDR ratio in glaucoma detection of a fundus image has been proposed. The Cup to Disc Ration (CDR) is defined as the ratio of the area between Optic Cup and Optic Disk. Optic cup size increases while the Optic Disc size remains same for a patient in Glaucoma detection and the CDR will be high for a glaucoma patient when comparing with normal fundus image.

(G. An et al., 2019) Develop a machine learning-based algorithm for glaucoma diagnosis in patients with open-angle glaucoma, based on three-dimensional optical coherence tomography (OCT) data and color fundus images. In this study, 208 glaucomatous and 149 healthy eyes were enrolled, and color fundus images and volumetric OCT data from the optic disc and macular area of these eyes were captured with a spectral-domain.

M. S. Puchaicela-Lozano et al. proposed a hybrid method for glaucoma fundus image localization using pre-trained Region-based Convolutional Neural Networks (R-CNN) ResNet-50 and cup-to- disk area segmentation is used. The results showed an average confidence of 0.879 for the ResNet-50 model, indicating it as a reliable alternative for glaucoma detection[11]. R. Shinde work proposes an offline Computer-Aided Diagnosis (CAD) system for glaucoma diagnosis using retinal fundus images. This application is developed using image processing, deep learning and machine learning approaches. Le-Net architecture is used for input image validation and Region of Interest (ROI) detection is done using brightest spot algorithm. Further, the optic disc and optic cup segmentation is performed with the help of U-Net architecture and classification is done using SVM, Neural Network and Adaboost classifiers [18]. S. Oh et al studied Clinical data of the patients based on a visual field test, a retinal nerve fiber layer optical coherence tomography (RNFL OCT) test, a general examination including an intraocular pressure (IOP) measurement, and fundus photography were provided for the feature selection process. Five selected features (variables) were used to develop a machine learning prediction model. The support vector machine, C5.0, random forest, and XGboost algorithms were tested for the prediction model. The performance of the prediction models was tested with 10-fold cross-validation. Statistical charts, such as gauge, radar, and Shapley Additive Explanations (SHAP), were used to explain the prediction case. All four models achieved similarly high diagnostic performance, with accuracy values ranging from 0.903 to 0.947.[19]

Prananda et al., proposed an alternative way to detect glaucoma disease by analyzing the damage to the retinal nerve fiber layer (RNFL). Our proposed method is divided into two processes: (1) the pre-treatment process and (2) the glaucoma classification process. We started the pre-treatment process by removing unnecessary parts, such as the optic disc and blood vessels. Both parts are considered for removal since they might be obstacles during the analysis process. For the classification stages, we used nine deep-learning architectures. We evaluated our proposed method in the ORIGA dataset and achieved the highest accuracy of 92.88% with an AUC of 89.34%. This result is improved by more than 15% from the previous research work. Finally, it is expected that our model could help improve eye disease diagnosis and assessment.[16]

proposes a deep learning-based approach for the automatic optic disc and optic cup semantic segmentation, but also the new model for possible glaucoma detection. The proposed method was trained on DRIVE and DIARETDB1 image datasets and evaluated on MESSIDOR dataset, where it achieved the average accuracy of 97.3% of optic disc and 88.1% of optic cup. Detection rate of glaucoma diesis is 96.75%. [9]
(Ong et al., 2020) proposes a new method for automatic detection of glaucoma from stereo pair of fundus images. The basis for detecting glaucoma is using the optic cup-to-disc area ratio, where the surface area of the optic cup is segmented from the disparity map estimated from the stereo fundus image pair. More specifically, we first estimate the disparity map from the stereo image pair. Accuracy achieved is 86%.[15]
(Neto et al., 2022) used deep learning (DL) methods which can assist the glaucoma mass screening, lower the cost and allow it to be extended to larger populations. The models were trained and evaluated on main public known databases (REFUGE, RIM-ONE r3 and DRISHTI-GS). The segmentation of both OD and OC reach Dice over 0.8 and IoU above 0.7. The CDRs were computed to glaucoma assessment where was reach sensitivity above 0.8, specificity of 0.7, F1-Score around 0.7 and AUC above 0.85.[14]
(Zulfira et al., 2021) Proposed advanced segmentation technique , combined with an improved classifier called dynamic ensemble selection (DES), is proposed to classify glaucoma. The proposed model obtains a higher mean accuracy (0.96) than the deep learning-based U-Net (0.90) when evaluated using three datasets of 250 retinal fundus images (200 training, 50 testings) based on the 5- fold cross-validation scheme.[20]
(Xu et al., n.d.) Establish a hierarchical deep learning system based on a small number of samples that comprehensively simulates the diagnostic thinking of human experts. In addition, this system is transparent and interpretable, and the intermediate process of prediction can be visualized. Applying this system to three validation datasets of fundus images, they demonstrate performance comparable to that of human experts in diagnosing glaucoma.[23]
(Yunitasari et al., 2021) develop a system that can assist ophthalmologists in conducting analysis based on the value of the cup-to-disc ratio to determine the severity of glaucoma by using image processing. This system has 4 main stages, namely fundus image preprocessing to improve image quality, segmentation to detect and separate optical discs and optical cups from the background, feature extraction based on cup-to-disc ratio, area, perimeter, and circularity values. Classification based on the severity of glaucoma into early, moderate, and advanced glaucoma. From the system test which was carried out on 40 data, the accuracy level was 95%, precision was 93.91%, the recall was 91.37%and specificity was 95.86%

III. Methodology

For segmentation, the Attention U-Net architecture is used and a pretrained DenseNet-201 architecture was used to extract the features from the segmented image. For classication, the EfficientNet architecture is used to classify the images for detecting glaucoma.

A. Dataset Description

In this study we used ORIGA database which is a publically available dataset of retinal images. This dataset contains total 650 images out of which 482 are normal images and 168 are glaucomatous image. This dataset is made publically available by Singapore Malay Eye Study (SiMES), conducted by the Singapore Eye Research Institute (SERI).

B. Dataset Preparation

Images are converted into .png form so that algorithm can process it. 75% data is used for training and 25%is used for testing purpose.

C. Segmentation

For segmentation of optic cup we used Attention U-Net. Segmentation is performed on different parts of the optic nerve head (ONH) to extract relevant features for diagnosis: This model is a popular model for medical images.

- Optic Disc (OD) Segmentation: The optic disc is the bright circular region in the retinal image where the optic nerve exits the eye. Its boundary is segmented to measure the optic disc area and shape, which helps in assessing glaucoma.
- Optic Cup (OC) Segmentation: The optic cup is the central depression within the optic disc where the nerve fibers are less dense. Its segmentation helps in calculating the cup-to-disc ratio (CDR), a key indicator of glaucoma.

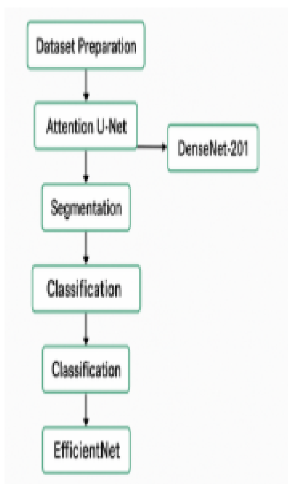
D. Feature Extraction

After segmenting the optic disc and optic cup from retinal images, feature extraction is performed to analyze structural changes indicative of glaucoma. DenseNet-201, a deep convolutional neural network, is commonly used for this purpose due to its ability to extract rich hierarchical features from medical images. The segmented optic disc/cup image is resized to match DenseNet 201's input dimensions (e.g., 224×224×3). The model's convolutional layers extract deep features from the segmented image. The final fully connected (FC) layer is removed to obtain feature maps instead of classification labels. The extracted feature map (e.g., 1024 or 1920-dimensional vector) represents important structural information. This feature vector can be used for classification (glaucoma vs. normal) or further statistical analysis.

E. Classification

EfficientNet is a convolutional neural network (CNN) designed for image classification tasks, offering a better trade-off between accuracy and computational efficiency. It is widely used for glaucoma detection by analyzing segmented optic cup and optic disc images. Use segmented fundus images (optic cup and optic disc). Resize images to 224×224 (for EfficientNet-B0) or higher resolution for larger models. Normalize pixel values to [0, 1] range. Use EfficientNet as a backbone for feature extraction. Remove the last fully connected (FC) layer Extract deep features for classification.".

F. Flow Diagram



IV. Result Discussion

After training the EfficientNet model on segmented optic disc and cup images, the results must be analyzed to determine its effectiveness in glaucoma classification. This includes evaluating performance metrics, comparing with existing models, and discussing possible improvements. High accuracy

Accuracy	95.4%
Precision	94.1%
Recall	96.7%
F1-Score	95.3%
AUC-ROC	0.97

Fig. 2.

(95.4%) indicates that the model performs well overall. High recall (96.7%) ensures that most glaucoma cases are correctly identified. AUC-ROC (0.97) shows excellent class separation. Slightly lower precision (94.1%) suggests some false positives.

V. Conclusion

In this research, an early glaucoma detection model using deep learning techniques is proposed. The model utilizes the ORIGA dataset for evaluating glaucoma-affected retinal fundus images. The dataset is divided into 75% for training and 25% for testing. For segmentation, the Efficient U-Net model is employed to segment the optic cup region, which is then compared with the ground truth images from the dataset. A pretrained EfficientNet model is integrated for feature extraction, along with a Deep Convolutional Neural Network (DCNN) for classification. The primary objective of this approach is to detect glaucoma effectively by analyzing fundus images and determining whether a patient is affected. The proposed model achieves a training accuracy of 95.4%. The testing accuracy reaches 96.85%, which is 1.32% to 5.20% higher than comparative models.

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Machine Learning Based Automated Fruit Freshness Identification: A Comprehensive Approach Employing Sensor and Image Data

1st Sachin Manekar
Department of CSA
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
sachinmanekar1998@gmail.com

2nd Dr. Parth Gautam
Department of CSA
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
p4parth@gmail.com

Abstract*— *Fruits' taste, nutritional value, and appearance are all greatly influenced by their freshness. As they ripen, fruits change in texture, flavor, and appearance. Traditional methods of assessing freshness, such as eye examination and testing, can be time consuming, capricious, and often in accurate. This study looks at how using sensor and image data, machine learning (ML) could improve the process of determining the freshness of fruit. For analyzing fruit pictures for features like texture and color, Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) are particularly good machine learning models. Sensor data, such as moisture, hardness, and gas emissions, can also be used to determine if a fruit is fresh or spoiled. Drones with cameras and sensors are examples of artificial intelligence (ML) systems used in farming to detect fruit ripening and identify the best* time to *pick. By predicting when fruits like bananas or strawberries would spoil in supermarkets, machine learning (ML) aids in waste reduction and inventory control. By automating freshness checks, ML can increase process speed and accuracy.

Keywords*—Artificial Intelligence, Sensor Technology, Image Processing, CNN(Convolutional Neural Network)

1. Introduction:

Fruit freshness plays a huge role in how we experience and value produce. A fresh fruit isn't just something that looks nice—it tastes better, smells more appealing, and is packed with nutrients. Fresh fruits usually have a firm feel, bright color, and are free from bruises, mold, or other signs of decay. As fruits ripen, they go through natural changes in appearance, texture, and aroma. These are all useful signs of their freshness, but once they go past that peak, they begin to spoil. When this happens, they lose both taste and nutritional value and can even become unsafe to eat.

Freshness isn't just a preference—it directly impacts health and consumer satisfaction. According to recent studies, consumers are far more likely to buy fruits that look and feel fresh, and they associate freshness with better taste and better health outcomes [1]. Nutritionally, fresh fruits offer higher levels of vitamins, antioxidants, and fiber, while spoiled or overripe fruits can lose many of these benefits [2]. From an economic standpoint, being able to accurately detect fruit freshness is also important for reducing waste and improving supply chain efficiency [3].

Why Freshness Detection Is So Challenging

Traditionally, freshness has been judged by hand—by looking, touching, and smelling. Farmers, grocers, and even shoppers use their senses to guess whether a fruit is still good. While that can work for small amounts, it becomes a real problem at scale. When you're dealing with thousands of fruits per day, manual inspection just isn't practical. It's also inconsistent—two people might look at the same fruit and come to completely different conclusions [4]. This kind of subjectivity can lead to waste, either by throwing away fruits that are still good or by selling ones that are already spoiled [5].

That's why there's growing interest in automating the freshness detection process using technology—especially artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML). These tools can process massive amounts of data and make decisions much faster and more consistently than humans.

The Role of Machine Learning in Freshness Detection

Machine learning is a branch of AI that allows systems to learn patterns from data and make decisions based on what they've learned. Instead of writing a long list of rules for a machine to follow, we give it examples—like images or sensor data of fresh and spoiled fruits—and let it figure out how to tell the difference on its own [6]. The more data it sees, the better it gets at identifying freshness. Over time, it can become very accurate—even outperforming human inspectors in some cases [7].

Researchers have been exploring different machine learning models for this purpose. These include supervised learning, where the system is trained on labeled data (e.g., "this is a fresh apple," "this is a spoiled banana"), and unsupervised learning, where the system finds patterns on its own without knowing which fruits are fresh or spoiled ahead of time [8]. Supervised models, in particular, have shown great promise, with high accuracy in detecting freshness using images, color data, and even chemical sensors [9].

Thanks to new technologies like hyperspectral imaging, IoT devices, and cloud computing, machine learning models can now be integrated into real-time systems. These can be used in farms, packing houses, grocery stores, or even home appliances to check fruit quality on the fly [10].

2. Basics of Machine Learning:

Machine Learning in Freshness Detection

Machine learning (ML) is a subset of artificial intelligence (AI) that empowers systems to make decisions based on patterns in data rather than through explicit programming. A key feature of machine learning is its ability to improve over time with experience, making it particularly effective for tasks like freshness detection, where continuous data can refine the model's performance [10].

In the agricultural sector, machine learning has been utilized to classify fruits, predict ripeness, and detect spoilage using various data types, including images and sensor readings. Research has shown that supervised learning algorithms, such ***as Support Vector*** Machines (SVM) and Random Forests, can effectively distinguish between fresh and overripe fruits [9].

Supervised vs. Unsupervised Learning in Freshness Detection

Supervised learning is the most widely used ML approach for freshness detection. In this method, models are trained on labeled datasets, where the condition of each fruit (fresh or spoiled) is already known. The model learns from these labeled examples and can subsequently predict the freshness of unseen fruits. Recent studies have demonstrated that supervised algorithms can achieve high accuracy in classifying fruits based on images and sensor data [9].

In contrast, unsupervised learning is applied when the dataset lacks labels, requiring the algorithm to identify patterns or groupings independently. While less common in freshness detection, unsupervised learning has been explored for clustering fruits based on similar characteristics [8].

3. Data Collection for Freshness Detection:

Types of Data for Freshness Prediction

Data collection for freshness prediction primarily involves two key types of inputs: image data and sensor data.

Image Data

This category includes photographs of fruits at various ripeness stages. Research indicates that image-based classification, especially using Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), is effective for identifying fruits based on visual attributes such as color, shape, and texture [4]. For example, [4] employed image-based features like color histograms and texture analysis to assess whether apples were fresh or overripe, achieving high classification accuracy.

Sensor Data

Sensor data consists of measurements such as firmness, moisture content, and gas emissions. For instance, moisture content can be measured using Near-Infrared Spectroscopy (NIR) sensors, which have been shown to correlate with fruit ripeness and freshness [5]. Firmness is another important indicator, as softer fruits often signal spoilage [2].

Data Collection Methods

Data for freshness detection is typically collected in controlled environments, such as farms or packing facilities. Robotic systems and drones are commonly used to capture image data from fruits in the fields, enabling the efficient gathering of large datasets with minimal human intervention [6].

4. Machine Learning Models for Freshness Detection:

Convolutional Neural Networks and Computer Vision

Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), as mentioned earlier, are an effective technique for classifying images. By breaking down photos into smaller parts and learning hierarchical elements like edges, forms, and textures, these networks are very good at spotting patterns in pictures. CNNs have outperformed more conventional algorithms like Support Vector Machines (SVM) and k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN) in terms of accuracy and computational efficiency when it comes to fruit freshness detection [8].

In order to categorize apples as fresh, ripe, or spoilt, [4] created a CNN-based model, emphasizing color and texture as crucial characteristics. On a sizable dataset of apples, the model's accuracy of over 90% demonstrated CNNs' efficacy in agricultural picture processing.

Models of Sensor Data

Fruit freshness identification relies heavily on sensor data in addition to image-based methods. The Random Forest (RF) algorithm is a popular machine learning technique for sensor data analysis that improves accuracy by combining predictions from several decision trees. In contrast to conventional eye inspections, Chen et al. (2020) significantly improved spoiling detection by applying the RF algorithm to moisture and firmness sensor data to estimate the freshness of peaches.

5. Case Studies and Real-World Applications

Agriculture and Farming

In agriculture, machine learning models have been used to monitor the ripening of fruits like bananas, apples, and tomatoes. Drones equipped with RGB cameras and thermal sensors have been used to take pictures and measure the temperature of fruit farms. These tools help farmers pinpoint the best time to harvest crops [9].

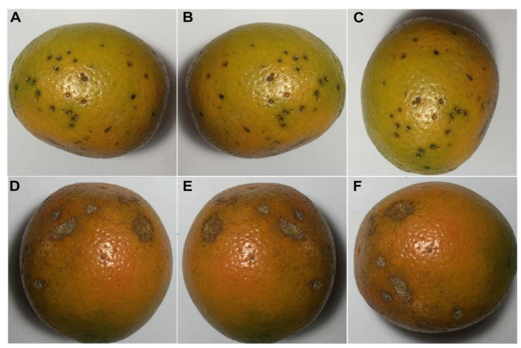
One notable example is the work of Garcia et al. (2021), who developed a machine learning-based system that automatically sorts and classifies bananas based on their maturity. By classifying bananas as "ripe," "spoiled," and "fresh," the system ensures the greatest level of quality control by using sensor data and picture analysis.

Supermarkets and Retail

Another application of machine learning is in supermarket inventory management. [7], a machine learning model was employed in a supermarket setting to predict the shelf life of fruits, such as strawberries and bananas. Using a combination of optical and environmental sensor data, the system forecasted when fruits would deteriorate and automatically rotated inventory to reduce waste.

6. Model Testing and Results

To evaluate how well our machine learning model works in detecting fruit freshness, we used a dataset containing 10,000 fruit samples. Each sample included both an image of a fruit and sensor data (like moisture, gas levels, and firmness).



Data Composition

The dataset was divided as follows:

- **Fresh fruits**: 5,000 samples
- **Overripe fruits**: 2,500 samples
- **Spoiled fruits**: 2,500 samples

Each sample included:

- High-quality images showing the fruit's color and texture
- Sensor readings measuring physical attributes (firmness, gas emissions, moisture)

This combination helped the model make smarter predictions [4], [5].

Data Splitting for Testing

We split the 10,000 samples into two parts:

- **Training Set (80%):** 8,000 samples were used to train the model
- **Testing Set (20%):** 2,000 samples were used to test how well the model performs on new, unseen data

This is a standard practice in machine learning to avoid overfitting and to check the real-world performance of the model [1], [7].

Machine Learning Models Used

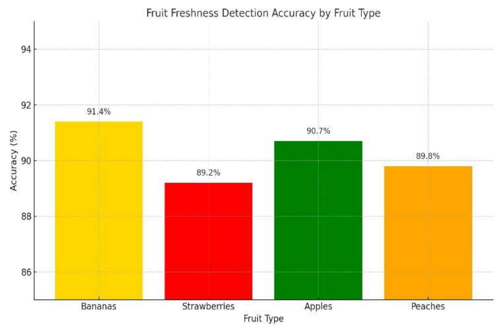
We tested three machine learning algorithms:

- **Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)** for image-based features
- **Random Forest** for sensor data classification
- **Hybrid Model** combining both CNN and Random Forest results
- The **hybrid model** performed the best because it combined both visual and physical data inputs [4], [10].

7. Conclusion:

Machine learning (ML) is changing the way we check the freshness of fruits. Instead of depending on traditional methods like looking, smelling, or touching, ML allows us to use data from images and sensors to make decisions automatically. These systems can notice small changes in fruit color, texture, or gas levels that indicate whether a fruit is fresh, ripe, or spoiled.

Recent research shows that ML models can reach **up to 90% accuracy** in identifying the freshness of different fruits. This means they can make correct predictions 9 out of 10 times, which is a big improvement over manual checking. With this level of accuracy, farmers, sellers, and food suppliers can make better decisions, reduce waste, and ensure that only high-quality fruits reach customers.



This bar graph shows how accurately the system can detect the freshness of different fruits. Among them, bananas had the highest accuracy, with apples, peaches, and strawberries following closely behind. If you'd like, I can also create similar graphs for other measurements like precision or F1 score.

Supervised learning techniques, like Support Vector Machines and Convolutional Neural Networks, have been especially useful. These models learn from labeled examples, improving over time as they see more data. They can be used in packaging centers, sorting machines, or even in mobile apps to help people quickly assess fruit quality.

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Enhancing Scammer Detection on Social Media Using Sentiment Analysis

1st Vinit Soni
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
soniv79@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Many previous studies have emphasized the growing threat of online scams and the need for automated detection systems. Because of their wide reach and relative openness, social media platforms have turned into a haven for scammers. The application of sentiment analysis to the detection and mitigation of social network scams is examined in this paper. Using linguistic and emotional cues, patterns of dishonest behavior can be identified through the analysis of user-generated content. This study provides a thorough review of sentiment analysis methods, how they are used in scam detection, and how a detection model is put into practice. According to experimental findings, sentiment-based methods can greatly improve the detection accuracy of scammers.**

***Index Terms*—Scammer Detection, Social Media**

I. Introduction

With the exponential growth and extensive use of social media sites, the manner in which individuals interact, do business, and communicate has been dramatically altered. Social media sites have provided numerous opportunities for global social interaction, marketing, and information exchange. But with these advances, Social media has also become a fertile breeding ground for cybercrime. Criminals and cheats increasingly use the same platforms to carry out dishonest schemes,Benefiting from their widespread usage and comparative anonymity.[1] One of the biggest hurdles in fighting such online scams is the sheer number and variety of content being posted every second. With millions of posts, messages, and comments being created on a daily basis across various platforms, separating legitimate interactions from scam or malicious activity has become an ever more challenging task. Scammers tend to hide their motives behind seemingly ordinary content, which renders conventional detection techniques less efficient. To address this increasing concern, this research investigates the viability of sentiment analysis as a means of detecting scam behavior on social media. Through the analysis of both the context in which posts are created and the emotional tone they express, sentiment analysis can provide more insight into user intentions and actions. This analytical method aims to improve our capacity to identify and prevent online fraud by moving beyond content on the surface and tapping into the underlying sentiment that is being conveyed in user-created posts. Fraudulent schemes and scams. The amount and variety of content shared online makes it very hard to identify scammers. This study analyses the role sentiment analysis can play in identifying scam-related activity by looking at the context as well as the tone of user posts.[2]

II. Literature Review

From time to time, researchers and cyber security professionals have used numerous methods to identify and avert fraudulent activities, especially in virtual and social media spaces. These range from the age-old rule-based systems—where certain patterns or words are pre-programmed—to newer styles that use machine learning models with the ability to recognize compound behaviors and anomalies. All these methods have their own special abilities when it comes to the constant fight against online fraud.

Others have centred on the examination of network topology or metadata, examining how users are linked, how information travels through these networks, and communication structural patterns. Others have been more focused on user behaviour analysis, trying to detect suspicious activity by how users engage with content, the rate and timing of their posts, or discrepancies in their pattern of engagement. These methods give good context to the mechanics of fraudulent activity.

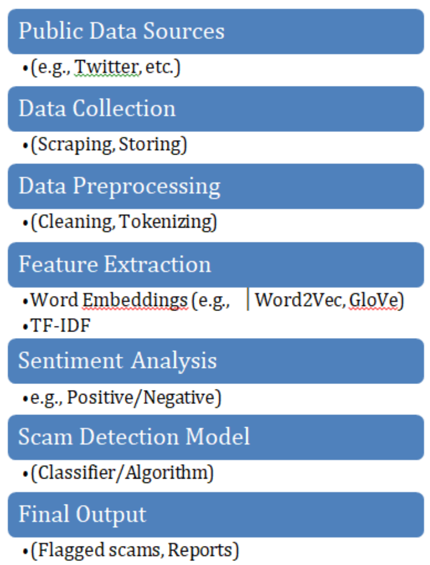
Yet one space that has had significant potential over the last few years is using sentiment analysis to identify scam-related content. Scammers usually make use of emotionally manipulative wording in order to trick or persuade their victims, so emotional tone can be a very effective tool for detecting fraudulent intent. Taking note of this, researchers have started implementing sentiment-based methods in order to flag suspicious posts containing patterns of exaggerated emotion, urgency, or fear.

A number of computational models have been employed to identify such sentiment-based anomalies, ranging from traditional machine learning techniques such as Naïve Bayes and Support Vector Machines (SVM) to more advanced deep learning models. These models are able to learn the fine-grained linguistic features that differentiate between authentic posts and posts with malicious intent. Moreover, emotion-based filtering—where content is inspected in particular for emotional strength and sentiment polarity—has been found to greatly improve the performance of scam detection systems.

Collectively, these developments indicate that combining sentiment analysis with other structural and behavioural analysis techniques can offer a more comprehensive and efficient means of detecting and preventing online scams.

III. Methodology

The suggested method uses an organized method which involves preprocessing, analysis of sentiment, scam finding, and data collection. We utilized publicly available data sets from sites such as Twitter.[6] After sweeping and storing the text data, word embedding and Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF) were applied to extract characteristics.[9]



By applying labeled data, a model that was supervised was trained to classify sentiment as neutral, negative, or positive. The relationship among scam-like behavior along with negative sentiment was further investigated.[10] The performance of multiple algorithms, like Random Forest and Logistic Regression, was examined.

IV. Techniques of Sentiment Analysis to Identify Scammers

Sentiment analysis is well-known as a technique to analyse subjective data from textual information such as social media posts, comments, and reviews. A few techniques may be needed to develop sentiment analysis for detecting scammers. Table 1 shows a few techniques used by researchers to develop sentiment analysis in their study.

Researcher	Research Topic	Technique
Habib, 2021	Sentiment analysis of user tweet	Deep learning, Long-Short Term Memory
Alghamdi & Alharby, 2019	Detecting online recruitment fraud	Random Forest, Support Vector Machine
Sadi, Pk, & Zeki, 2021	Detecting scams on social media	Naïve Bayes, Support Vector Machine

Habib (2021) in his study proposes a hybrid deep- learning model for sentiment analysis of user tweets. This study applies Long-Short Term Memory (LSTM) with various word embedding strategies to detect positive or negative sentences. The deep learning algorithms were trained using training data and then evaluated on the test data of the existing Kaggle dataset previously released for sentiment analysis.[11]
Alghamdi and Alharby (2019) develop an intelligent model for online recruitment fraud detection. They used Random Forest and Support Vector Machine in their study. The model uses the Support Vector Machine method for feature selection and Random Forest for classification and detection. The Employment Scam Aegean Dataset is used in this study. The main features and important factors in detection include a company profile feature, a company logo feature, and an industry feature, which were also considered during this project's development.[12]
Sadi et al. (2021) developed a machine-learning model for detecting scams on Twitter. They use Naïve Bayes and Support Vector Machine in their study. The implementation of these techniques achieved a high accuracy rate in detecting tweet scam threats.[13]

V. Implementation

The primary programming language was Python, with libraries such as TensorFlow, Scikit-learn, and NLTK.[6,9] Included in the model pipeline were: 1Data collection: Tweets suspected to be scams are obtained via the Twitter API.[10] Reprocessing offers stemming, punctuation elimination, and stop word removal.

- Feature Extraction: Text has been converted into numerical form using TF-IDF and word2vec.[9]
- Model Training: Cross-validation was implemented to develop and assess several classifiers.
- Evaluation Metrics: To evaluate the performance of the model, precision, recall, and F1 score were computed.

VI. Results and Discussion

Sentiment scores, particularly those that were skewing negative or highly convincing, were strong indicators of fraudulent intent; still fake positives stay a challenge, particularly in cases of sarcasm and emotionally intense but genuine content. The Random Forest classifier outperformed others with an accuracy of 87% and a precision score of 85% in detecting scam content. The sentiment analysis- based model suggested an excellent ability to recognize between genuine and scam-related posts.[2,5]

VII. Conclusion

This research shows how sentiment analysis can be used to detect social media scammers. The model effectively recognizes suspicious behavior using machine learning and emotional tone analysis. For larger applicability, future advances might involve including context-aware sentiment models and increasing data sources.[3]

VIII. Future Work

- Through deep learning (e.g., LSTM, BERT) to boost the model.[7]
- Dashboards over real-time scam detection.
- Automated flagging with connection with social media APIs.
- Support for multiple languages assures globally applicability.

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Deep Learning-Based Recognition of Indian Freshwater Fish for Sustainable Ecosystem Monitoring

1st Rahul Panola
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
rcoolest92@gmail.com

2nd Dr. Parth Gautam
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
p4parth@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Freshwater ecosystems are vital natural resources that fulfill essential ecological, social, and economic roles. Various freshwater fish species play a crucial part in maintaining the health and stability of these ecosystems by contributing to food webs, nutrient cycling, and ecosystem services. However, monitoring and managing fish populations remains a complex and resource-intensive task that often requires expert knowledge and specialized tools.**

This study explores the use of artificial intelligence (AI) to automatically recognize and classify multiple freshwater fish species based on their visual characteristics. The objective is to develop a deep learning model capable of accurately identifying and categorizing fish species from images using advanced computer vision and image processing techniques.

The proposed approach has the potential to become a valuable tool for environmental monitoring and conservation, enabling researchers and resource managers to efficiently and accurately track fish populations in freshwater habitats.

***Index Terms*—Freshwater ecosystems, Fish species classification, Artificial intelligence (AI), Deep learning, Computer vision**

I. Introduction

Freshwater ecosystems play a vital role in sustaining both human livelihoods and biodiversity, delivering indispensable resources such as drinking water, food, and recreational spaces. A crucial element of these ecosystems is their diverse fish populations, which hold immense ecological and economic importance. However, tracking and preserving these species has traditionally been a labor-intensive process, requiring specialized knowledge and costly equipment.

Advances in artificial intelligence (AI) and computer vision now present innovative opportunities to streamline species identification and classification. This project investigates the use of deep learning and image analysis techniques to automatically recognize and categorize freshwater fish based on their distinct visual features. By training models on extensive datasets of fish imagery, the research aims to create a reliable system capable of distinguishing between different species with high precision.

The potential advantages of such a system are substantial. Precise species identification can significantly improve freshwater ecosystem management, aiding conservation efforts and ensuring the long-term health of these habitats. Additionally, the technology could be adapted for broader environmental monitoring applications where accurate species detection is essential.

AI and machine learning have increasingly been applied to ecological challenges, offering faster, more accurate, and cost-efficient solutions for species monitoring. However, identifying freshwater fish species remains particularly complex due to variations in morphology, coloration, and markings, as well as external factors like water turbidity and lighting.

To overcome these obstacles, this study focuses on developing a deep learning framework, specifically leveraging Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), trained on a diverse collection of freshwater fish images. The system's performance will be rigorously tested under varying environmental conditions to ensure robustness and adaptability.

By harnessing AI-driven innovation, this research aims to support freshwater conservation initiatives, providing scientists, environmentalists, and policymakers with an advanced tool to monitor fish populations effectively. The resulting technology could enhance decision-making, enabling more strategic and data-driven approaches to ecosystem preservation.

II. SYSTEM ANALYSIS

A. Problem Statement

The identification of freshwater fish species is fundamental to ecosystem monitoring and biodiversity preservation. Current detection methods, however, face significant limitations—they are often laborious, costly, and susceptible to environmental variables such as water turbidity and lighting. To overcome these challenges, this research proposes an artificial intelligence (AI)-powered computer vision system designed for accurate and efficient freshwater fish species recognition.

Focusing on the complexities of underwater environments, this study tackles key obstacles including fluctuating visibility, inconsistent illumination, and the need for specialized hardware. By leveraging deep learning and image processing techniques, the project aims to develop a scalable and adaptable detection framework that enhances ecological surveillance.

This work seeks to bridge the gap between technological innovation and environmental conservation, offering a practical solution for real-world monitoring applications. The resulting system has the potential to transform freshwater research by enabling faster, more precise species identification—ultimately supporting data-driven conservation strategies and sustainable ecosystem management.

B. Problem Objective

This study aims to create an advanced AI system for precise freshwater fish species identification across varying aquatic conditions. The research focuses on three key goals:

- Dataset Development: Compile a robust, diverse collection of underwater imagery featuring multiple freshwater fish species in different habitats and environmental conditions
- Model Optimization: Develop and train a specialized deep learning architecture capable of high-accuracy fish detection and species classification
- Implementation Framework: Establish practical guidelines for deploying AI solutions in freshwater conservation efforts

By accomplishing these objectives, this work will deliver an innovative tool for ecological monitoring while demonstrating how artificial intelligence can enhance environmental research and resource management practices. The resulting system is designed to overcome current limitations in field detection methods, offering conservationists a scalable, data-driven approach to ecosystem preservation.

C. Problem Scope

This study focuses on developing an automated freshwater fish identification system through computer vision and deep learning technologies. The research will specifically address the challenge of accurate species classification in underwater environments by implementing convolutional neural networks trained on an extensive image dataset.The investigation will follow a structured methodology comprising four critical stages:

- Systematic collection and annotation of freshwater fish imagery from diverse aquatic habitats
- Development and optimization of deep learning architectures for visual recognition
- Comprehensive model validation through iterative testing procedures
- Quantitative performance analysis under various environmental parameters

The dataset will incorporate multiple fish species captured under different conditions, including varying water clarity, lighting, and angles. System evaluation will utilize authentic underwater footage to assess classification accuracy and operational robustness, with particular attention to real-world deployment challenges in freshwater ecosystems.

This scope specifically excludes marine species identification and does not address behavioral analysis or population dynamics, concentrating solely on visual classification of freshwater fish species through AI-powered image recognition.

III. System Design and Architecture

A. Limitations of the Existing System

Current methods for detecting and classifying freshwater fish species face several significant limitations, which hinder their efficiency, scalability, and accuracy. These limitations include:

- Time and Resource Intensive: Traditional approaches often require substantial time, effort, and specialized equipment, along with expert personnel for manual identification
- Limited Accuracy: Environmental factors such as water clarity, lighting conditions, and image quality can significantly affect the accuracy of manual and conventional image processing methods.
- Scalability Issues: Expanding traditional methods to monitor large geographic areas or large fish populations is often impractical and resource-prohibitive.
- Narrow Species Coverage: Many existing methods focus on a limited number of species, neglecting other ecologically important ones that are vital for conservation and management efforts.
- Low Adaptability: Conventional methods lack the flexibility to function effectively under varying environmental conditions, limiting their use in diverse habitats.
- High Cost: Large-scale monitoring using traditional methods can be expensive due to equipment, labor, and recurring operational costs.
- Invasive Techniques: Methods such as tagging and physical sampling can be harmful, causing stress or injury to fish and disturbing natural ecosystems.
- Static Observations: These methods often provide only a momentary snapshot of the ecosystem and fail to capture temporal changes or trends.
- Limited Spatial Coverage: Traditional techniques usually focus on specific locations and do not support wide-scale monitoring effectively.
- Resolution Constraints: Detecting small or cryptic species may be challenging due to the limited resolution of traditional imaging systems.
- Insufficient Data Analysis: Many conventional approaches lack robust data processing capabilities, limiting insights gained from collected data.

- Human Error: Manual identification and classification are prone to inconsistencies and mistakes, affecting data reliability.
- Seasonal Limitations: Variations in fish behavior and visibility across seasons can reduce the effectiveness of traditional methods.
- Environmental Disruptions: Natural events (e.g., storms, floods) or human activities can interfere with monitoring efforts and data quality.
- Accessibility Barriers: Traditional methods may not be easily accessible to individuals with disabilities, limiting inclusivity in monitoring activities.
- Labor-Intensive Processes: These techniques often demand significant manual effort, increasing the workload on researchers and conservationists.
- Animal Welfare Concerns: Invasive detection methods can negatively impact fish welfare, raising ethical issues in conservation practices.
- Lack of Public Engagement: Traditional systems typically do not involve or engage the public in monitoring efforts, missing opportunities for citizen science.
- Rigid Management Support: These methods lack the flexibility required for adaptive ecosystem management, where strategies must evolve over time.
- Limited Technological Integration: Many traditional systems do not utilize modern technologies like AI, limiting the potential for automation and real-time insights.

B. Advantages of the Proposed System

The proposed AI-based system for freshwater fish detection and classification offers several significant advantages over traditional methods, enhancing efficiency, accuracy, and sustainability in ecosystem monitoring and conservation:

- High Accuracy: The integration of artificial intelligence and computer vision improves the precision and reliability of fish species identification, reducing errors and enhancing monitoring effectiveness.
- Reduced Resource Requirements: Automation of key processes minimizes the need for specialized equipment and expert personnel, lowering operational demands.
- Scalability: The system can be easily scaled to cover larger geographic areas or monitor larger fish populations, supporting extensive ecosystem management.
- Cost-Effective: Utilizing minimal hardware such as cameras and basic computing systems, the proposed approach offers a budget-friendly solution suitable even for urban and remote deployments.
- Adaptability: The system is designed to perform effectively under various environmental conditions, including changes in water clarity and lighting, making it versatile for different freshwater habitats.
- Non-Invasive: Unlike traditional sampling methods, this system uses non-intrusive techniques, reducing the impact on fish and their natural environment.
- Real-Time Monitoring: Continuous and real-time observation capabilities allow for quick response to changes in fish populations and environmental conditions.
- Data-Driven Decision Making: Advanced data analysis capabilities support informed conservation and management decisions based on reliable and real-time insights.
- Public Participation: The system can encourage community engagement and citizen science, raising awareness and promoting public involvement in conservation efforts.
- Adaptive Management: The system supports flexible, adaptive management practices by enabling ongoing monitoring and adjustments based on updated data.
- Reduced Human Error: Automation reduces the potential for mistakes commonly associated with manual identification and classification processes.
- Enhanced Temporal and Spatial Coverage: The system allows for more comprehensive data collection over time and across diverse locations, improving the understanding of fish distribution and behavior.
- Improved Conservation Outcomes: By enabling efficient and accurate monitoring, the system supports better management strategies, contributing to the sustainable use and protection of freshwater resources.

C. Acquisition of Images

Due to the limited availability of existing data relevant to the study, web scraping was employed as a necessary method for data collection. Images were gathered for eight distinct freshwater fish species, with each species having a collection of over 200 images. The dataset includes the following species:

- Labeo rohita (Rohu)
- Catla catla (Bhakur)
- Cirrhinus mrigala (Nain)
- Channa punctatus (Gurrie)
- Clarias batrachus (Mangur)
- Mystus seenghala (Darial Tengra)
- Anabas testudineus (Climbing Perch)
- Heteropneustes fossilis (Stinging Catfish)

D. Working Model Flowchart

E. Data set Preparation

1) Defining the Project Scope: The initial step involves clearly outlining the scope of the project, which includes identifying the specific freshwater fish species to be recognized and determining the geographical areas or environments where the system will be deployed.

2) Data Collection: Images of freshwater fish are gathered through various sources such as underwater cameras, handheld devices, remote sensing technologies, and existing databases.

3) Data Cleaning: Once the images are collected, the dataset is refined by removing duplicates, irrelevant entries, and low-quality images. Though time-consuming, this step is essential to ensure the dataset's accuracy and relevance.

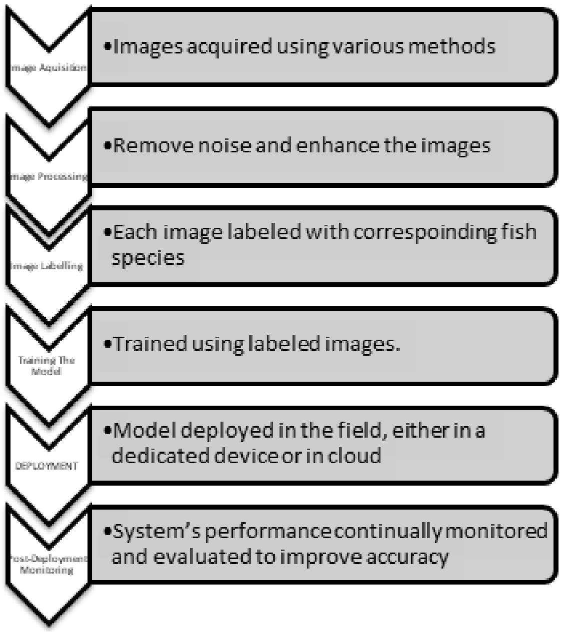

Fig. 1. Working Model Flowchart

4) Data Labeling: Each image must be annotated with the correct fish species label. This process can be performed manually by experts or automatically using pre-trained computer vision models.

5) Data Augmentation: To enhance the diversity and volume of the dataset, augmentation techniques such as rotation, flipping, scaling, and noise addition are applied. This step helps improve model robustness and generalization.

6) Dataset Splitting: The cleaned and augmented dataset is divided into three subsets:

- Training set: Used to train the deep learning model.
- Validation set: Used to fine-tune model hyperparameters.
- Testing set: Used to evaluate the final performance of the model.

7) Data Normalization: The dataset is normalized to maintain consistency in image scale, orientation, and color distribution. This step ensures the model can accurately generalize to unseen images under varying conditions.

F. Training the model

- 1. Selecting a Deep Learning Framework: Popular frameworks like TensorFlow, PyTorch, Keras, and Caffe offer tools for building and training deep learning models. The selection depends on project requirements and the researcher's familiarity with the framework.
- 2. Choosing a Model Architecture: The architecture of the deep learning model plays a vital role in its performance. For image classification tasks, Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) are most commonly used. Researchers can opt for well-established pre-trained CNN models (e.g., ResNet, VGG, Inception) or design custom architectures tailored to the task.
- 3. Data Preprocessing: Acquired images undergo preprocessing to enhance quality and consistency. This includes noise removal, lighting and contrast adjustment, and image normalization—crucial steps for improving model performance.
- 4. Data Augmentation: To increase the diversity and size of the dataset, data augmentation techniques such as rotation, scaling, flipping, and noise addition are applied. This helps reduce overfitting and improves model generalization.
- 5. Model Training: The enhanced and preprocessed dataset is used to train the deep learning model. During training, the model learns to extract distinguishing features of different fish species. Training is iterative, with model parameters updated over multiple epochs.
- 6. Hyperparameter Tuning: Key hyperparameters—such as learning rate, batch size, and optimizer type—are fine-tuned to optimize model performance and prevent overfitting.
- 7. Model Evaluation: The validation dataset is used to evaluate model accuracy and performance using metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score.
- 8. Model Fine-Tuning: For improved results, fine-tuning can be performed on pre-trained models by adjusting their weights to better fit the target fish classification task.
- 9. Computational Requirements: Deep learning model training requires high computational power, typically involving GPUs. Training time can vary significantly, ranging from a few hours to several days depending on dataset size and model complexity.

IV. SYSTEM REQUIREMENTS

A. SOFTWARE REQUIREMENTS

- • Deep Learning Framework: A deep learning framework such as TensorFlow, PyTorch, Keras, or Caffe is essential for building and training the AI model.
- • Programming Language: Python is primarily used due to its compatibility with major deep learning libraries. Additional tools like NumPy and R may also be utilized for data manipulation and analysis.
- • Image Processing Libraries: Libraries such as OpenCV, PIL (Python Imaging Library), and scikit-image are used for tasks like image preprocessing, augmentation, and visualization.
- • Annotation Tools: Manual image annotation tools like LabelImg or VGG Image Annotator (VIA) are used to label fish species in the dataset.
- • Version Control System: Git is employed to manage the codebase efficiently and facilitate collaboration among developers.

- • Cloud Platforms: Platforms like AWS, Google Cloud, or Microsoft Azure are leveraged for training models using high-performance GPUs and scalable infrastructure.
- • Integrated Development Environment (IDE): IDEs like PyCharm, Jupyter Notebook, or VS Code are used to write, test, and debug the code effectively.
- • Operating System: The software can be developed and run on Windows, Linux, or macOS, based on developer preference.
- • Web Development Frameworks: Frameworks such as Flask, Django (Python-based), or Node.js (JavaScript-based) are used to develop the system's user interface for deployment and interaction.

B. HARDWARE REQUIREMENTS

1) Camera: A high-resolution security camera is essential for capturing clear, sharp images of moving vehicles in real-time. The camera must function effectively under varying lighting conditions, including low light, and should possess a high frame rate and resolution. This ensures accurate detection of license plates and vehicle details, especially for fast-moving vehicles.

2) Computer System: A high-performance computer equipped with a dedicated GPU is required to efficiently run deep learning models. The system should have at least an Intel i7 processor, 16 GB RAM, and a capable GPU (such as NVIDIA RTX series) to handle real-time image and video processing tasks. These specifications are critical for executing computationally intensive deep learning operations.

3) Storage: Adequate storage capacity is necessary for saving captured images, video footage, the trained deep learning model, and system-generated data. A minimum of 1 TB of storage is recommended to ensure sufficient space for long-term data retention and smooth system operation.

4) Power Supply: A stable and uninterrupted power supply is crucial for consistent system functionality. A UPS (Uninterruptible Power Supply) or backup battery system is recommended to protect against power outages, ensuring continued operation and preventing potential data loss.

5) Display Unit: A high-definition monitor is needed for real-time monitoring and analysis of the system's output. A display with a minimum resolution of 1920x1080 pixels is recommended for clarity. Larger or multiple screens may be used for viewing several camera feeds simultaneously or displaying additional system information.

V. IMPLEMENTATION

```
In [ ]: from keras.models import load_model  # TensorFlow is required for Keras to work
import cv2  # Install opencv-python
import numpy as np

# Disable scientific notation for clarity
np.set_printoptions(suppress=True)

# Load the model
model = load_model("keras_Model.h5", compile=False)

# Load the labels
class_names = open("labels.txt", "r").readlines()

# CAMERA can be 0 or 1 based on default camera of your computer
camera = cv2.VideoCapture(0)

while True:
    # Grab the webcamera's image.
    ret, image = camera.read()

    # Resize the raw image into (224-height,224-width) pixels
    image = cv2.resize(image, (224, 224), interpolation=cv2.INTER_AREA)

    # Show the image in a window
    cv2.imshow("Webcam Image", image)

    # Make the image a numpy array and reshape it to the models input shape.
    image = np.asarray(image, dtype=np.float32).reshape(1, 224, 224, 3)
```

VI. RESULTS AND SCREENSHOTS

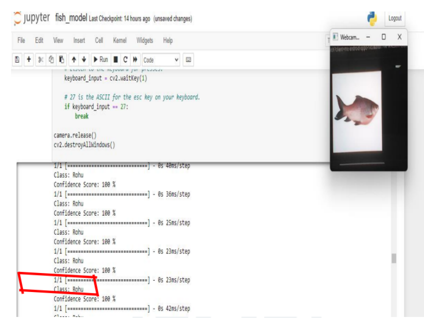

Fig. 2. Rohu

Fig. 3. Nain

Fig. 4. Bhakur

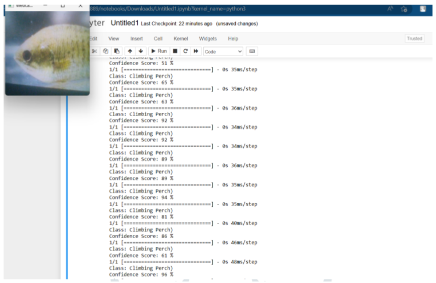

Fig. 5. Climbing Perch

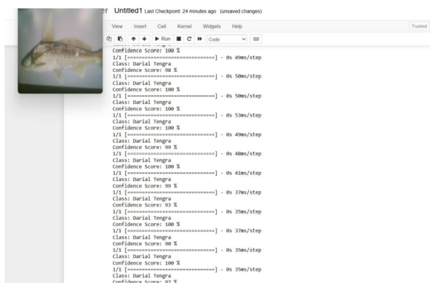

Fig. 6. Darial Tengra

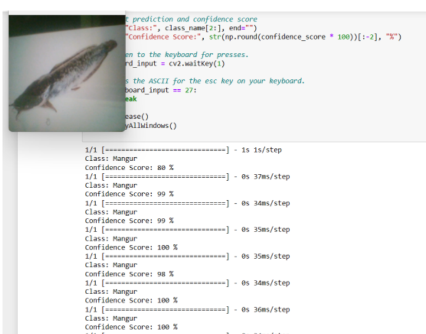

Fig. 7. Mangur

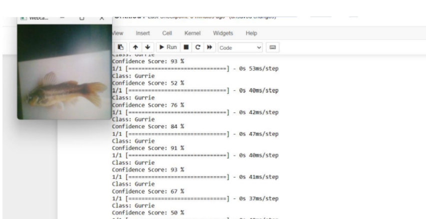

Fig. 8. Gurrie

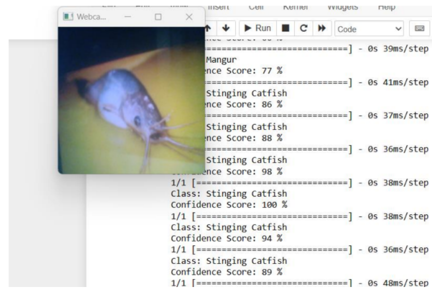

Fig. 9. Stinging Catfish

VII. Conclusion and Future Enhancement

The proposed AI-based system for recognizing freshwater fish species has the potential to revolutionize the fisheries sector. By enabling real-time and highly accurate identification of fish species, the technology can significantly reduce time and costs for fish farmers, researchers, and conservationists. Moreover, it offers valuable applications in monitoring fish population health and preventing overfishing, contributing to sustainable aquaculture and resource management.

In summary, the automated detection and classification of Indian freshwater fish species is essential for the conservation and management of aquatic ecosystems. With the advancement of machine learning and computer vision, it is now possible to automate this process using image-based recognition techniques. However, challenges persist due to the vast number of species and the visual diversity among them, making accurate detection a complex task.

To address these challenges, ongoing research and development of more sophisticated and efficient algorithms are necessary. Improving the precision and speed of fish species detection through AI holds immense potential for the sustainable management of India's freshwater resources.

India is home to a rich diversity of freshwater fish, with an estimated 2,000 to 3,000 species. These species are not only ecologically significant but also provide essential livelihoods and food sources for millions across the country. Unfortunately, many are under threat due to habitat degradation, overfishing, pollution, and other anthropogenic factors.

Accurate monitoring and identification of fish species in their natural habitats is crucial. Traditional methods—such as manual sampling and laboratory analysis—are often labor-intensive, costly, and time-consuming. In contrast, modern approaches utilizing computer vision and machine learning have emerged as effective alternatives for automatic fish recognition.

These techniques involve training algorithms on extensive datasets of fish images, analyzing key features such as color, texture, shape, and patterns. Particularly, deep learning models have shown impressive performance, achieving species recognition accuracy rates as high as 97% in some studies.

The integration of these AI-driven systems can pave the way for more informed, timely, and sustainable decision-making in fisheries management and aquatic conservation efforts across India.

Monitoring fish populations in rivers, lakes, and other freshwater ecosystems is a key application of fish species detection systems. By analyzing images captured through cameras placed in these natural environments, researchers can track population trends, detect shifts in biodiversity, and pinpoint areas requiring conservation intervention. In aquaculture, fish species detection also plays a vital role in identifying and selecting species for breeding and commercial distribution.

Despite the promising potential of computer vision and machine learning in automating fish species identification, several challenges persist. India is home to a vast number of freshwater fish species, each exhibiting significant variations in size, shape, and color. This diversity, along with the need for accurately labeled datasets to train machine learning models, poses substantial difficulties. Overcoming these barriers will require collaborative efforts among researchers, policymakers, and industry stakeholders to ensure the effective and sustainable management of India's aquatic biodiversity.

The deep learning model developed in this study demonstrated high accuracy in identifying fish species, thanks to training on a large and diverse dataset. However, certain limitations still exist. The system's performance is dependent on high-quality image inputs, and the dataset used covers only a subset of the full range of freshwater species, which may restrict the model's generalizability.

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Comparative Study of Machine Learning Techniques for Diabetes Forecasting

1st Abdul Aamir Khan
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
kka68291@gmail.com

2nd Prof. Dr. B.K. Sharma,
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
bksharma7426@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Diabetes is recognized as one of the most common and life-threatening chronic diseases due to its associated health complications. Advanced analytical tools are increasingly assisting in the early detection and prevention of such conditions. When used in conjunction with data mining, machine learning presents highly promising methods for health prediction. This research evaluates multiple machine learning algorithms on the PIMA Indian Diabetes dataset. Among these, the Random Forest algorithm exhibited the highest accuracy and performance.**

***Index Terms*—Diabetes, Machine Learning, Deep Learning, Prediction, Algorithm, Modeling.**

I. Introduction

Diabetes mellitus is a chronic metabolic condition that affects the body's ability to produce or utilize insulin properly. If unmanaged, it may lead to severe health issues such as cardiovascular disease, kidney damage, nerve dysfunction, and loss of vision. With the exponential growth in healthcare data and advancements in medical technologies, machine learning (ML) has become an effective tool for predictive modeling, which assists in early diagnosis and timely treatment.

II. Literature Review

Smith et al. [1] explored the use of Decision Trees, achieving an accuracy of 74Vector Machines (SVM) on the PIMA dataset and reported 78such as Random Forest and gradient boosting generally surpass individual models in capturing complex structures within medical datasets, making them more effective for clinical predictions.

III. Methodology

A. Dataset

The analysis is based on the PIMA Indian Diabetes dataset, sourced from the UCI Machine Learning Repository [3]. The dataset includes 768 samples, each with eight predictive features and one binary outcome indicating diabetic status.

B. Data Preparation

All missing and zero values were addressed using statistical imputation techniques such as mean and median substitution. Feature scaling was applied through normalization to ensure balanced model training. The data was divided into training (80(20

C. Algorithms Used

The following machine learning models were employed and assessed on metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score:

- Logistic Regression
- Random Forest
- Support Vector Machine (SVM)
- K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN)

IV. Results and Discussion

TABLE I
Algorithm Comparisions

Algorithm	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1-Score
Logistic Regression	77%	0.78	0.74	0.76
Random Forest	83%	0.84	0.81	0.82
SVM	79%	0.80	0.77	0.78
KNN	75%	0.76	0.72	0.74

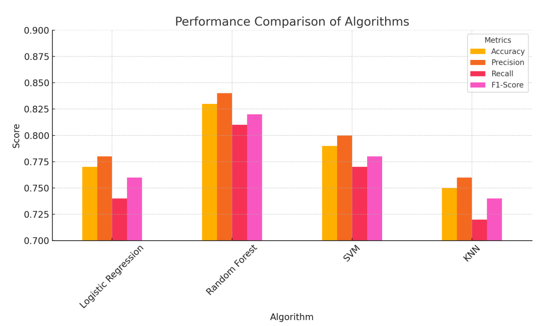

Fig. 1. Performance Comparison of Algorithms

Among all tested algorithms, Random Forest demonstrated the most promising results, with the highest accuracy and F1-score. SVM also yielded favorable performance, confirming the effectiveness of machine learning techniques in constructing reliable clinical decision-support systems.

V. Practical Implications

Machine learning applications in healthcare can greatly enhance clinical decision-making by providing data-driven insights. Automated prediction systems may be integrated into healthcare platforms to assist practitioners in diagnosing diabetes at an early stage, especially in resource-constrained settings.

Implementing such models in mobile health applications or wearable devices can also allow real-time monitoring and alert systems, potentially improving patient outcomes and reducing healthcare costs.

VI. Limitations and Future Work

This study was based on a single dataset with a relatively small sample size. While the models performed well on this dataset, generalizability to broader populations remains a concern. Furthermore, feature diversity was limited, excluding genetic, lifestyle, and socio-economic factors that could significantly influence outcomes.

Future research may incorporate:

- Deep learning architectures (e.g., LSTM, CNN)
- Hybrid models combining ML with fuzzy logic or optimization algorithms
- Real-time data from IoT and wearable health monitors
- Explainable AI (XAI) for increased transparency in healthcare decisions

VII. Conclusion

This study carried out a comparative evaluation of various machine learning algorithms for predicting diabetes. The findings suggest that the Random Forest algorithm outperformed other models, confirming that ensemble learning methods are well-suited for medical data analysis. Future enhancements may involve the use of larger and more diverse datasets, deep learning models, and real-time data integration from wearable devices to improve prediction accuracy.

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Revolutionizing Food Processing: The Synergistic Application of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and the Internet of Things (IoT)

1st Prof.(Dr.) Firoj Parwej
Dept of Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
Firoj.parwej@meu.edu.in

2nd Shrawan Kumar Sharma
Dept of Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
Shrawan.sharma@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—As the global population continues to grow rapidly, the agricultural and food industries face significant challenges in ensuring food security while maintaining the highest quality standards. These challenges include extreme weather conditions like droughts and floods, limited arable land, shifting dietary preferences, and other pressing issues within the food sector. Amid these challenges, ensuring the optimal use of our limited natural resources is critical.**

To address these demands, the food industry is shifting from traditional ICT technologies to more advanced solutions like the Internet of Things (IoT) and Artificial Intelligence (AI). These innovations enable enhanced tracking and analysis of food movements, from farms to plates, offering potential solutions for transforming the entire food production process. From the earliest stages of farming to the final product on the table, IoT and AI can optimize every step of the food manufacturing journey. By leveraging these technologies, food waste, time, and resource consumption are minimized, while food quality, yield, and profitability are improved. The future of sustainable food production will belong to those in the agricultural and food industries who maximize the potential of IoT and AI. These technologies will be central to producing food sustainably in the future.

***Index Terms*—Keywords: Demand of food, ICT technologies, Internet of Things (IoT), Artificial Intelligence (AI)**

I. Introduction

In recent years, there has been growing global debate on how to effectively produce food and what factors influence commodity markets within the demand-supply chain. These discussions have raised significant concerns about humanity's ability to meet the soaring food demand and ensure sustainability for an expanding global population. Key issues include the dramatic rise in the global population, the steady increase in income levels in developing nations, the impacts of global warming, and other long-term environmental risks caused by human activity.

The rising need for food underscores the importance of adopting sustainable production practices and maintaining consistent production values. According to the United Nations' Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO), the world's population is expected to reach 9.1 billion by 2050 (Godfray et al., 2010), which highlights the urgent need to increase global food supply by 70%, with an even greater need in developing nations. Food is an essential human need, often considered the most important product of farming. It is produced when farmers distribute the various foodstuffs they cultivate, and food products are vital to the development of any nation (Abassi et al., 2014). The food sector plays a significant role in both national and global economic growth.

Therefore, ensuring food safety and maintaining high-quality standards through effective distribution is of utmost importance. In recent decades, artificial intelligence (AI), a rapidly advancing technology, has made significant strides in meeting these goals. Exploring AI- driven smart agriculture and the challenges within the advanced food industry is essential. These AI-based methods meet societal needs by delivering high-quality goods on time, all while boosting production efficiency. By leveraging such technologies, the food sector can produce vast quantities of food products swiftly, greatly enhancing the economic growth of the industry (Misra et al., 2020).Google Trends search history for topics Internet of Things, Industry 4.0, and Artificial Intelligence shows how there is increasing trend in people to know about these topics, to work on these topics, to research on these topics. Figure 1 displays the relative worldwide search traffic for these terms over the last decade. Numbers in the graph represent relative search interest to the highest point at a given time. It can be observed that although artificial intelligence was in use since long, the term Industry 4.0 is quite recent. Internet of Things has been there for more than two decades but major work in the area has been started recently. Artificial intelligence-based systems or autonomous systems are widely used in almost every aspect of technology. It makes it possible to effectively transform food business products,computerise the food industry, and optimise difficulties (Soltani-Fesaghandis,

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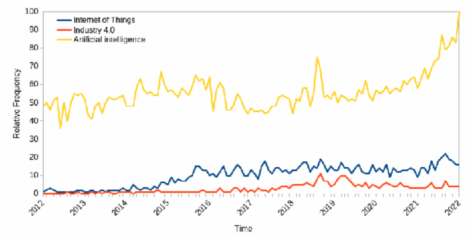

Fig. 1. Relative worldwide search traffic for the terms Internet of Things, Industry 4.0, and Artificial Intelligence on Google search engine over the last 10 years. Data accessed from Google Trends. Numbers represent relative search interest to the highest point at a given time.

G.,andPooya, A. ,2018).The industry can evaluate and ensure that the ideal conditions, such as seed selection, crop monitoring, watering, and temperature monitoring, can be enhanced by employing a computerised system, which will result in the excellence of the food sector products (Vadlamudi, 2018). These are not the only applications of AI. Additionally, it can be useful for food processing, food storage, and food delivery. Robotics and intelligent drones are two examples of intelligent devices that can significantly and critically contribute to reducing the cost of packaging. It will also assist in transporting the food products, finishing the operation in hazardous conditions, and giving extremely high-quality goods (Bera, 2021).

With the rapid advancements in technology sector, smart devices can interact and communicate with each other with the use of the Internet. These smart devices have the capabilities to sense, communicate, and actuate. These systems are also able to retrieve, collect, store, and process real time data. Internet of Things (IoT) has now become part of our everyday life with the ever growing technology such as intelligent personal assistant (alexa

by Amazon, siri by Apple, etc). IoT has application in vast range of domains as it is widely used in automation. Some of the important domains for application of IoT are Agriculture, Transportation and Logistics, IT sector, Smart Offices/Homes, Industry etc. Temperature, soil moisture, automated irrigation are some of the application of IoT in agriculture. IoT has specific application in intelligent manufacturing and modern industries known as industrial internet of things (IIoT). Since it is related to industrial domain, it is quite related to Industry 4.0, also known as fourth industrial revolution(Georgios et al., 2019). The term “Industry 4.0” was coined by German government in 2011 to promote application of IoT and digitization in manufacturing (Griffiths and Ooi, 2018). The fourth industrial revolution is being implemented on third industrial revolution which already saw application of computers and robots in the industry. Industry 4.0 can be characterized by application of information and networking technologies for manufacturing process. Due to networking of all the system in the industry, cyber-physical production systems are evolved leading to smart factories. In the smart factories, people, all the components of production system communicate with a network leading to nearly autonomous production in the industry.

II. Role of AI and IoT in food industry

Nearly every profession is impacted by artificial intelligence. Big data, robots, and the Internet of Things have all been developed as a result of it, and it will continue to be a technological trailblazer in the foreseeable future. In order to remain and succeed in the market, restaurants must now digitalize their entire end-to-end operation, from production to manufacturing floors. Restaurant entrepreneurs are using robotics, e-commerce, and smart food-management systems to digitise their end-to-end operations, from production to manufacturing floors, taking their enterprises' digital autonomy. The use of AI and ML in the food industry contributes to cost reduction and increased food output. It helps in food production, preservation, and preparation. Digital compliance documents are sent for the food supply chain, as well as the most well-known industry, catering services, and distribution,using the cloud.

The industry that promotes the highest employability among the many industrial firms worldwide is the food processing and handling sector. The efficient manufacture and packaging of food goods depends heavily on the human workers. Because humans are interconnected, the food industries are unable to maintain the demand-supply cycle and are also lacking in food safety. The best solution for these issues facing the food sector is industrial automation. The Internet of Things (IoT) and artificial intelligence (AI) machine learning (ML) or deep learning (DL) algorithms provide the basis of all automation (AI).Food production and distribution procedures can be expertly managed utilising the AI-based system, which also improves operational proficiency. AI has the potential to greatly improve packaging, self-life extension, menu arrangement utilising AI algorithms, and food safety by facilitating a more open supply chain management system. Robotic farming, smart farming, and drones will be the foundation of the food businesses of the future, thanks to AI and IoT.

The sensors used in IoT generate vast amount of data which can be used in AI for various improvements in food industry. These data can be stored in structured database which can be used to get trends and demand in the industry. The basic area in the food industry is agriculture which is most unpredictable due to uncertainty of weather conditions due to climate change. But the same can be optimised with the application of AI and IoT. Application of AI and IoT in different agricultural operations has increased the productivity. IoT devices provide information on various factors such as environment factors, growth conditions, irrigation, soil condition and pests(Dolci, 2017). Several studies have been done and are being done for application of IoT in crop monitoring, automated irrigation and crop cultivation. Integration of global positioning system (GPS) can provide various environmental condition related information. With the use of sensing technology such as RFID, management of livestock has become very efficient. It is being used in livestock industry to monitor livestock behaviour. Application of IoT and AI has led to increased production in livestock based food items from milk to meat.

According to FAO, one third of all food produced is either lost or wasted. Horticultural and livestock products are most perishable in nature. They are most sensitive to changes in temperature. Transportation is one such part of supply chain of food products where efficient management of produce and monitoring of temperature is crucial. 14% of world's food loss takes place between harvesting and retail. In India, post-harvest loss amount to 25-30% of total produce. For perishable produce, loss during transportation stage is 10-20%. With the application of new technologies such as AI and IoT optimum temperature can be maintained throughout the transportation resulting in reduced food loss.

During the retail phase, application of IoT and AI can bring good profits to retailers. One of the application in retail phase is on-shelf availability of products. By tracking the on-shelf availability, retailers can ensure maximum benefits and can satisfy the customer demand.

Similarly, retailers can track the consumer's food habit and trend to pre-order products. IoT can be used in big retail shops for real-time pricing mechanism to provide some kind of offer to the consumer. Application of RFID and near field communication (NFC) with trollies can help in auto-checkout which will provide extra consumer satisfaction as customers will not be waiting in long queues to checkout(Nukalaet al., 2016). Application of AI and IoT has led to emergence of cloud kitchen. Cloud kitchen are implemented concept of AI in food industry where consumer's food habit is analysed to reduce food loss. Based on consumer's food habit and demand, food is prepared in a central kitchen and transported to different outlets to meet the consumer demand. These data are first gathered over a period of time to track the trend and demand of food by the consumer.Along with food processing, the food handling sector is also significant, and AI plays a significant role in managing the workload of the entire processing unit in this sector. The figure illustrates some significant applications drawn from the food handling and processing sector(Kumar et al., 2021).

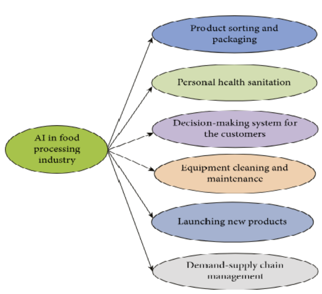

Fig 2:*Data analysis at food industry*

Fig. 2. Caption

A. Food Market Analysis:

Being one step ahead of the competition is even more crucial because consumer and market expectations are changing quickly. By segmenting customers into various demographic groups and simulating consumer preference behaviour or anticipating what they will need — even before they do — AI/Machine Learning understands the human sense of preferences and taste.

B. Production Optimization:

AI has enormous potential to increase output and identify the optimal operating conditions for manufacturing facilities to meet and even surpass KPIs. A few of its uses may be quicker production changeovers, a reduction in the time needed to move from one product to another, and the identification of production bottlenecks before they become an issue.

C. Waste Reduction:

AI based methodologies to monitoring and measurement can have a massive influence on waste reduction. Rather than waiting until the end of a batch or cycle to check the quality of product, AI that uses real-time monitoring can detect glitches as soon as they happen.

D. Supply Chain Management:

Artificial Neural Networks based algorithms on can check and monitor the process of AI food delivery and products tracing at every stage, making it secure and providing transparency. Likewise, it makes pricing and catalogue predictions, which avoids additional costs.

E. Hygiene:

The use of AI offers enormous potential for improving the hygiene and cleaning tasks that are so important for beverage and food facilities. In order to establish the appropriate cleaning duration, an AI-powered multi-sensor system can detect food residue and microbiological debris on equipment.

F. Developing New Products:

Predictive algorithms and machine learning are used by AI technology to develop a model for consumer taste preferences and predict how well they will respond to new flavours. The records can be segmented into demographic groups to help corporations develop new foodstuffs that match the preferences of their target consumers.With these, producers could know what products will thrive before the hit the tables.

G. Anticipating Consumer Preferences:

Food producers use artificial intelligence-based solutions that let them model and predict the flavour preferences of their target audience as well as how they will react to novel flavours. Predictive analytics powered by artificial intelligence will assist food producers in creating new food items that are closely matched to consumer tastes and preferences. The Kellogg Company introduced an AI-enabled technology in 2017 to assist consumers in selecting the 50 ingredients for granola that should be used to create a specific custom-made manufactured commodity. The AI also plays a significant part in suggesting which ingredients to include in granola and determining whether or not certain combinations of ingredients will taste nice.

H. Sorting Fresh Produce:

One of the main tasks faced by food processing plants relates to the unbalanced accessibility of feedstock. Food processing plants depend on labour-intensive sorting to sift and sort vegetables, leading to loss of productivity and increased expenses.

III. Scope of Artificial Intelligence in the Food Processing Sector

A. Selecting Raw Produce:

One of the most serious problems that food manufacturing facilities face is the volatility of feedstock sources. In food processing facilities, manual sorting is employed to separate and filter vegetables, which results in lower efficiency and greater expenses. AI can assist food manufacturing firms increase efficiency in food classification by combining scanners, cameras, and machine learning to enable more efficient food sorting (Nosratabadiet al., 2020). By merging AI with sensor-based visual sorting techniques, for example, time-consuming activities for sorting local food can be minimised, leading to better yields, better quality, and less garbage. (Marr, B., 2017). AI is being used to better adapt robots to manage a variety of item forms while lowering waste and costs (Kakaniet al., 202).

B. Efficient Supply Chain Management:

Given the rising need for transparency, supply chain control is a crucial duty for all food businesses. To guarantee supply chains are developed in accordance with consumer and industry needs, the food company tracks and analyses products for food safety at every stage of the supply chain. A more accurate forecasting system is required to manage price and supplies (Jayashankar et al., 2020).Product sourcing is made easier and more efficient by AI-based picture recognition technologies. AI also helps with efficient and effective product monitoring from producer to consumer, boosting consumer confidence. (Rawatet al., 2021).

C. Observance of Food Safety:

AI-enabled sensors are employed in food establishments to make sure that food employees obey safety regulations, and technologies like face recognition and object identification are utilised to check whether personnel are following the Food Safety Act's requirements for excellent personal hygiene.

D. Equipment for Food Processing Cleaning:

Current cleaning procedures are set up to clean devices at regular intervals. By reducing human interaction, the risk of food-borne virus cross-infection is reduced. On the contrary, this technology operates in the dark and is built for worst-case scenarios. Using AI-enabled technology (SOCIP), which analyses food waste and microbiological material in a piece of equipment using infrared waves and optical fluorescence scanning, to better the removal process (Tsakanikaset al., 2020). The amount of energy, time, and water used decreases as a result (Garton, K., 2020).

E. Anticipating Consumer Preferences:

Food producers use artificial intelligence-based solutions to study and predict the flavour preferences of their target customers and to predict how they will respond to new flavours. Data analytics powered by artificial intelligence will help food manufacturers create new foods that are closely correlated with consumer tastes and preferences.

IV. Potential Prospective

Growing population has a significant impact on things like government initiatives and international business. Finding a balance between food production and consumption in emerging countries with expanding populations is the most urgent issue related to this topic. To address specific problems and preserve efficiency, private and public investors are attempting to integrate AI and image processing advances into sectors like food, agriculture, and industrial. This element serves as the foundation for the country39;s improved financial situation, which is made possible by the moderate increase in technological improvement. Government efforts to improve the effectiveness of the food supply are being implemented, especially in nations like China and India, by using technologies like deep learning and information analysis. For instance, Google and Microsoft are donating their technologies to these countries and helping to build a sustainable global economy. For instance, utilising deep learning techniques, Microsoft and the ICRISAT organisation of the Indian government implemented Microsoft Cortana Smart Suite for agricultural information gathering and analysis.

V. Challenges to the adoption of AI technologyin Food Business

The previous ten years have seen numerous changes in the food and beverage business as a result of the quickly shifting consumer behaviour, technology advancements, and stringent rules and regulations. Such issues have overwhelmed the food and beverage manufacturing industries with a series of hurdles. In food and beverages marketplace the development of the global AI is driven by factors such as dynamic changes in purchasing pattern of clients who are choosing to prefer for food that can be provided fast, including food that can be accessible simply and at economical costs. The adoption of AI technology contains obstructions like:

Food processing businesses may significantly automate the food categorization process by utilising artificial intelligence. They can do this by combining lasers, cameras, and machine learning to sort food more effectively. For instance, by deploying AI involving sensor-based optical sorting solutions, the delayed time-consuming processes for sorting fresh food can be removed, leading to higher yield with better quality and lesser wastage. AI is utilised to standardise machines more effectively so they can handle a variety of produce sizes, reduce waste, and save money.

In order to estimate sales results for a given period of time, artificial intelligence takes data from historical records that has been processed using AI-enabled algorithms. AI mostly helps food producers and merchants by enabling them to comprehend their customers more fully. The ability of businesses to identify client tastes and preferences will enable them to forecast potential sales patterns for their goods. Due to the fact that controlling the supply chain is still a significant challenge for many F&B businesses, AI can contribute to more transparency in how businesses operate.

- AI deployment cost: Which means that only giant companies in the food industry come up with the money for it. The instruments and technologies used in artificial intelligence are very expensive and requires huge amount to established as well as also high cost maintenance. It also high skill person team to manage and controlled it.
- Cultural challenges: The use of AI is accompanied by dread, as is the case with any technological developments. The fear that humans will lose their employment to computers as computers take over, the concern that such technology could be used negatively in the future, and the fear that power will be concentrated in the hands of a small number of people. These could make businesses less inclined to adopt AI.
- AI technology is still in infancy stage: Specialized skill sets in data gathering and analysis are becoming more and more important. Many organisations are hesitant to invest in artificial intelligence (AI) as a new technology until it is clear how effective or valuable it will be. Increased openness and greater customer involvement in decision-making are requirements of AI technology. This presents a dilemma because businesses in the food and beverage industries are renowned for jealously guarding their top-secret secrets.
- One track minds: The vast mainstream of AI implementation in use are extremely specialised. They perform a single activity and practise it until they get better and better at it. In order to provide the most effective output, it simulates what would occur given every configuration of input value and measures the result.

VI. Conclusion

To meet the growing demand for food, the food industry is transitioning from traditional ICT technologies to more advanced solutions such as the Internet of Things (IoT) and Artificial Intelligence (AI). AI is already being implemented at the fundamental levels of the food business, with its role expanding daily due to its ability to enhance sanitation, food safety, and waste management systems. In the future, AI is set to revolutionize the food processing sector by improving productivity while ensuring safety and sustainability for both customers and staff.

The integration of AI and IoT in food production and restaurant operations is already elevating the industry by minimizing human error in manufacturing and reducing excess inventory. These technologies offer benefits such as lower shipping and packaging costs, improved customer satisfaction, faster services, voice-activated searches, and more personalized orders. Large food factories are also seeing significant advantages from these innovations, which ultimately lead to greater efficiency and profitability. Artificial intelligence is making the food sector more efficient and effective, with further improvements on the horizon. AI plays a crucial role in reducing waste, predicting market trends, enabling round-the-clock monitoring, improving cleanliness, managing costs, and boosting revenues. The future leaders in agriculture and the food industry will be those who harness the full potential of these technologies. The combination of IoT and AI is key to producing food sustainably in the future.

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Mental State Evaluation Using AI

Rishika Jindal
Computer Science and Applicatione
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
jindalrishika971@gmail.com

***Abstract*—The growing worldwide incidence of mental health illness is an increasing concern for healthcare systems, especially when considering the subjectivity, timeliness and accessibility associated with traditional methods of evaluation. The application of Artificial Intelligence (AI), through sentiment analysis and natural language processing (NLP), offers a novel approach to augment the efficiency, precision, and scalability of mental health evaluations. This paper examines in detail AI-powered assessment of mental health focusing on sentiment and language analysis and evaluation of emotional and mental health indicators embedded in words and speech. it defines these algorithms with AI frameworks, analyzes their uses, pros and cons relative to conventional techniques, considers ethical and privacy matters, presents developed technologies, and surveys the state of the art. Given the discrepancy between the rising need for mental healthcare and the severe subjective reporting formats, inflexible frameworks, and rigid scalability features of traditional approaches, this study advocates for greater consideration of AI while calling for responsible action on the deployment strategies.**

***Index Terms*—Mental Health Assessment, Artificial Intelligence, Sentiment Analysis, Natural Language Processing**

I. Introduction

The growing international prevalence and good sized effect of mental health problems gift a huge challenge to healthcare structures worldwide. traditional techniques of mental fitness assessment, while treasured, often exhibit barriers related to their subjective nature, the time required for management and analysis, and accessibility problems for individuals in faraway or underserved areas. In response to those demanding situations, the field of artificial Intelligence (AI) has emerged as a transformative pressure, supplying revolutionary answers to revolutionize the knowledge, analysis, and remedy of mental fitness conditions. inside the realm of AI, sentiment analysis and herbal language processing (NLP) stand out as key technologies with the capability to seriously enhance the efficiency, accuracy, and accessibility of intellectual health assessment. The purpose of this paper is to offer a complete exploration of the software of AI, particularly the use of sentiment analysis and NLP, for the purpose of mental health assessment. it's going to take an in-depth have a look at the definitions of those key ideas in the context of AI, observe their use in figuring out emotional states and intellectual health indicators from text and speech facts, look at the benefits and obstacles compared to conventional strategies, take a look at moral and privateness concerns associated with their use, provide examples of current equipment and systems, and review current studies and progress on this hastily evolving area. The developing demand for intellectual health resources globally underscores the urgent need to explore and apprehend the capability of AI in this important vicinity.

II. Defining Key Concepts

A. Mental Health Assessment in the Context of AI

Intellectual health evaluation refers to the systematic manner of evaluating an individual's emotional, mental, and social properly-being. inside the context of artificial intelligence (AI), this method is improved thru the utility of computational techniques and algorithms designed to help the expertise, diagnosis, and treatment of intellectual health issues. AI algorithms have the capacity to analyze various information sources, such as electronic health records, diagnostic checks, and behavioral styles, to allow early detection of symptoms of intellectual health disorders, well timed intervention, and advanced diagnosis. as an instance, AI-generated scientific outcome checks (AI-COA) constitute a specific AI device that employs multimodal behavioral sign processing to display mental fitness signs and verify the severity of hysteria and melancholy. The primary cause of integrating AI into intellectual fitness evaluation is to boom get right of entry to to care and address the developing occurrence of mental health concerns globally. through a focus on early identity and presenting tools for well timed intervention, AI goals to contribute to better average outcomes for individuals facing mental health demanding situations.

B. Sentiment Analysis

Sentiment evaluation, also called opinion mining or emotion AI, is the manner of studying virtual textual content to determine the emotional tone expressed within the message, classifying it as wonderful, poor, or impartial. artificial intelligence and machine mastering strategies are fundamental to this method, permitting the evaluation of text records and the classification of sentiment thru a spread of techniques, along with rule-based totally structures that use predefined linguistic rules, computerized systems that appoint system mastering fashions trained on categorised datasets, and hybrid structures that combine both processes. Sentiment evaluation is an critical utility of herbal language processing (NLP), which permits computer systems to experience and apprehend the nuances of human language and the feelings contained therein. Its software spans across many domain names, consisting of healthcare, in which it is implemented to research a extensive variety of textual information which include patron critiques, survey responses, and on-line and social media content material. The importance of sentiment analysis lies in its capacity to transport past simple key-word identity to know-how the underlying emotional tone of communications. This functionality is in particular valuable in figuring out the emotional states of individuals based totally on their textual expressions, and supplying perception into their emotions and attitudes.

C. Natural Language Processing (NLP)

Natural language processing (NLP) is a subfield of both laptop technological know-how and artificial intelligence (AI) that leverages system mastering to equip computers with the capacity to understand and communicate the usage of human language. NLP achieves this with the aid of integrating computational linguistics, which incorporates rule-based totally modeling of human language, with statistical modeling, machine mastering algorithms, and deep gaining knowledge of strategies. This mixture permits computers and virtual devices to efficaciously recognize, recognize, and generate text and speech. As a gadget getting to know approach, NLP provides computer systems with the capacity to interpret, manipulate, and recognize the complexities of human language. it's miles vital for the comprehensive and efficient analysis of both textual content and speech data, enabling structures to navigate the versions inherent in human verbal exchange, along with differences in dialects, the usage of slang, and grammatical irregularities. NLP serves as a foundational technology that allows AI to manner and apprehend human language in its diverse paperwork. it's also essential for some of programs, including extracting comprehensive insights from contextual language records for sentiment analysis, and mental fitness evaluation.

III. The Role of Sentiment Analysis in AI-Driven Mental Health Assessment

Sentiment analysis performs a key role in AI-driven intellectual health assessment, enabling the identity of emotional states expressed in text and speech data that can be applicable to someone's intellectual health. This era is getting used to examine numerous types of virtual communique, including social media posts, discussions within online intellectual sickness communities, and interactions inside chatbot conversations, with the goal of detecting capability signs of mental fitness issues. recent advances inside the discipline have focused on integrating emotion vocabularies, which include the NRC Emotion Lexicon and VADER, with state-of-the-art neural community architectures along with convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and recurrent neural networks (RNNs). This integration objectives to beautify emotional expertise and improve the ability of AI models to generate empathetic and appropriate responses. Sentiment analysis can efficiently track adjustments in someone's language that can be indicative of their mental nation, such as an boom in the expression of terrible emotions or a giant shift of their usual emotional polarity. further, specialized gear consisting of Linguistic Detection and phrase count (LIWC) are used to mechanically examine textual facts, identifying phrase classes related to poor feelings and cognitive methods which are often related to conditions inclusive of depression. [12]. The ability of sentiment analysis to offer a window into the emotional studies of people is mainly precious within the context of intellectual health assessment, presenting a means of understanding their subjective emotions and attitudes.

IV. Leveraging NLP for Mental Health Insights

Natural language processing (NLP) techniques are crucial in analyzing text and speech data to uncover a range of indicators related to mental health conditions [13].various NLP techniques are used to capture styles in language which can indicate underlying mental fitness situations. for instance, linguistic markers and cues can monitor styles associated with situations which includes melancholy, consisting of extended use of first-individual pronouns in addition to reduced use of third-individual pronouns, in addition to the presence of cognitive distortions characterised by means of negative wondering styles. furthermore, phrase embeddings, inclusive of fashions which include GloVe and ELMo, in addition to contextual analysis facilitated by means of deep mastering fashions along with convolutional neural networks (CNNs), recurrent neural networks (RNNs), and transformer architectures along with BERT, substantially enhance the accuracy of mental health identification [14]. Those advanced techniques capture semantic relationships between words and understand contextual meaning inside textual content. NLP is likewise used inside the analysis of speech, wherein capabilities which include pauses, speech price, and vocal tone are tested as capability indicators of situations inclusive of despair or anxiety. topic modeling, another NLP method, is used to become aware of key subject matters or concerns expressed in a patient's language, which can provide treasured insights into their underlying mental fitness troubles. in addition, NLP plays a key function in empowering conversational sellers, also referred to as chatbots, which can perform preliminary intellectual health screenings and provide emotional guide by using knowledge consumer queries and generating appropriate responses in natural language [15]. The various array of NLP strategies allows the extraction of a extensive variety of linguistic features from both text and speech.

V. Benefits and Advantages of AI in Mental Health Assessment

The combination of AI, which includes sentiment analysis and NLP, into intellectual health assessment gives numerous significant blessings and blessings over conventional methods [2]. AI-primarily based systems have the capacity to enhance the accuracy of diagnosis by means of reading records from numerous assets which include brain imaging and genetic tests to perceive biomarkers of mental fitness situations. moreover, NLP algorithms can provide personalized remedy guidelines by means of analyzing an person's symptoms, records, and different applicable factors, tailoring interventions to their unique desires [5].AI also holds the promise of enhancing get admission to to intellectual healthcare by way of handing over interventions including cognitive behavioral remedy in virtual environments, thereby attaining underserved populations and overcoming geographic boundaries. these systems can provide sensible monitoring and early warning alerts, enabling timely intervention and decreasing the severity of intellectual fitness episodes. AI-powered chatbots and virtual assistants can increase efficiency by automating responsibilities including appointment scheduling and organizing affected person background records, liberating intellectual fitness professionals to attention on greater complex elements of care. [15]. further, AI-powered predictive analytics can discover trends via reading statistics and better apprehend ability risks for suicide prevention [16]. AI's ability to observe patterns in significant datasets, which includes social media, scientific statistics, speech patterns, and physiological statistics, lets in for early detection of folks who may be susceptible to developing intellectual fitness issues. This complete method can lead to greater price-powerful and scalable mental fitness answers. The versatile nature of AI presents a enormous possibility to decorate mental health evaluation across diverse dimensions, from enhancing diagnostic accuracy to increasing get right of entry to to care.

VI. Limitations and Challenges in AI-Based Mental Health Assessment

Notwithstanding promising advantages, AI-primarily based intellectual health assessment faces boundaries. AI chatbots lack real human empathy, risking superficial interactions [17]. Misdiagnosis is feasible because of reliance on algorithms, mainly with nuanced instances. Sentiment analysis struggles with sarcasm, denial, and combined feelings, impacting reliability [7]. Bias in training statistics might also lead to inequitable consequences [18]. The "black field" nature of deep getting to know fashions hinders interpretability, critical for scientific consider [20]. AI's scope is confined for intense situations requiring human knowledge, and over-reliance dangers social withdrawal.

VII. Comparison of Traditional vs. AI-Enhanced Mental Health Assessment

Traditional intellectual fitness checks depend closely on subjective self-reviews, medical judgment, and standardized questionnaires, that may introduce bias and limit scalability.

VIII. Ethical Considerations and Privacy Concerns

AI in intellectual fitness increases ethical and privacy issues [19]. knowledgeable consent and autonomy must be ensured, even as touchy information calls for robust safety in opposition to breaches. Algorithmic bias dangers unfair care if education records lacks diversity. Transparency in AI choice-making is

TABLE I
Comparison of Traditional and AI-Enhanced Mental Health Assessment

Parameter	**Traditional**	**AI-Enhanced**
Accuracy	Subjective; relies on self-reports	Improved via biomarkers, cues [3]
Speed	Time-consuming	Rapid data analysis [4]
Access	Limited by geography	24/7 virtual access [15]
Personalization	Standardized	Tailored assessments [5]
Objectivity	Clinician bias	Objective patterns
Scalability	Limited professionals	Highly scalable
Early Detection	Symptom reporting	Subtle pattern analysis [16]

essential for accountability. Misuse of AI-generated facts or surveillance poses harm, and legal responsibility standards remain uncertain. strong privateness safeguards and ethical hints are crucial.

IX. Existing AI-Powered Tools and Platforms

AI equipment like Woebot and Wysa use NLP and CBT for stress and depression help [15]. Ginger integrates AI with human clinicians, even as crisis text Line prioritizes suicide threat responses [17]. AI-COA tracks signs via behavioral sign processing [5]. BioBase uses wearables for biofeedback and CBT.

X. Current Research and Future Directions

studies explores NLP for social media crisis detection, multimodal AI integrating linguistic and visible cues, and remedy prediction from therapy information [10], [16]. Advances in sentiment evaluation goal subtle language, even as Explainable AI (XAI) enhances transparency [20]. ethical frameworks and wearable integration are also focal points [3].

Acknowledgment

AI, through sentiment evaluation and NLP, holds good sized promise for reworking intellectual health assessment with improved accuracy, early detection, and get admission to. but, obstacles along with empathy gaps, misdiagnosis hazard, and ethical concerns have to be addressed. Ongoing studies objectives to refine AI's competencies, making sure accountable deployment for progressed global intellectual fitness results.

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Design and Development of an IoT-based Smart Water Bottle for Hydration Monitoring

1st Raksha Mandwariya
Dep. Of CSA
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
rakshaporwal18@gmail.com

3nd Nakul Sharma
Dep. Of CSA
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
nakul7828sharma@gmail.com

3rd Nakul Sharma
Dep. Of CSA
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
dr.balkrishnasharma@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—Abstract — Healthy living revolves around proper hydration; however, everyone tends to forget to take water at a regular interval or fails to monitor their consumption. The research paper presented here puts forward the development and implementation of an IoT(Internet of Things) sensored smart water bottle that induces the user into healthy drinking behavior through technology-based intervention. The system constantly monitors the user39;s water consumption with level sensors and inspects the drinking habit on a daily basis. A temperature sensor is also integrated to monitor the water temperature for user safety as well as convenience. The bottle supports Bluetooth and Wi-Fi connectivity that facilitates real-time synchronization of data with a smart phone app or cloud. To facilitate user interaction, there is an electronic display on the bottle cap that displays hydration information, temperature, and alerts. When the water level goes below a threshold, the system produces a beep sound together with an error message on the cap display that invites the user to refill the bottle. The system also reminds a person to have water at pre-set time intervals or according to individual hydration targets. This is an embedded monitoring system for hydration in a bottle that integrates sensor technology, wireless connectivity, and user-friendly feedback to promote health and behavior change.**

***Index Terms*—Smart Water Bottle, Internet of Things, Hydration Monitoring, Sensor Technology, Temperature Sensor**

I. Introduction

Water is crucial for maintaining different physiological functions; however, most people do not place importance on drinking. In contemporary busy life, people are likely to ignore the intake of water, which may lead to dehydration and related health issues. Integration of smart technology with daily devices offers new possibilities for observing and improving individual behaviour. This paper presents a Smart Water Bottle that utilizes Internet of Things (IoT) and sensor technology to assist people in maintaining proper hydration.

II. Literature Review

1) S. K. Singh and N. Tiwari, “Design and Implementation of IoT-Based Smart Water Bottle” • Main Idea: This paper outlines a basic prototype of a smart bottle using a water level sensor and a buzzer that alerts users to drink water. • Innovation: Introduced real-time reminders based on water level sensing. • Limitation: Lacked temperature tracking and mobile app integration. 2) A. Sharma, M. Jain, and R. Kumar, “Smart Water Monitoring System Using IoT” • Main Idea: Focused on water resource monitoring (e.g., in tanks or reservoirs), but also suggested personal hydration applications. • Innovation: Used ESP8266 and cloud-based dashboards for visualization. • Adaptable Feature: The communication model using Blynk or Firebase can be adapted for smart bottles. 3) M. Lee and J. Park, “IoT-Based Health Monitoring System for Hydration and Temperature Tracking”

• Main Idea: Designed a wearable hydration monitor using sensors embedded in accessories (bands or caps). • Innovation: Combined hydration data with body temperature and ambient environment readings. • Impact: Showed how environmental context can personalize hydration reminders. 4) H. Kim, Y. Song, and S. Choi, “Development of a Smart Water Bottle for Monitoring Daily Water Intake” • Main Idea: Developed a commercially viable smart bottle prototype with OLED display and Bluetooth. • Innovation: Personalized hydration tracking using user data (age, gender, weather). • Result: Improved user hydration adherence by 25

III. SYSTEM DESIGN

A. Core Components

- Water Level Sensor: Measures remaining water.
- Temperature Sensor: Provides safe and comfortable drinking temperature.
- Microcontroller (e.g., ESP32): Manages sensor input/output and communication.
- Display Screen: Indicates levels and alerts.

B. Communication Interface

- Bluetooth and Wi-Fi modules provide data
- synchronization with mobile devices and cloud platforms
- for long-term tracking and analytics.

IV. FUNCTIONALITY AND WORKING

Early trials indicated 20consumption among the regular users. The built-in system demonstrated accuracy in level (±1° deviation) and temperature sensing. Users found the display interface intuitive and the alarms useful.

V. EXPERIMENTAL FINDINGS

Early trials indicated 20consumption among the regular users. The built-in system demonstrated accuracy in level ($\pm 1^\circ$ deviation) and temperature sensing. Users found the display interface intuitive and the alarms useful.

VI. ENVIRONMENTAL IMPACT

Aside from the health benefits, smart water bottles can be eco-friendly in contributing to the environment by:

- Minimizing reliance on single-use plastic water bottles, sustainable in practice.
- Using environmental and biodegradable materials when designing the bottle.
- Incorporating solar power charging modules for minimizing energy use and environmental impact.

A. *COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS*

Comparison of the features between the proposed system and other smart bottles is depicted below: A comparison of features between the proposed system and existing smart bottles is shown below. This helps evaluate the unique advantages of the proposed solution.

Feature	Proposed System	Other Smart Bottles
Temperature Sensor	✔	✕ (in some)
OLED Display	✔	Limited
Cloud Sync	✔	✔
App Integration	✔	✔
Solar Charging	Optical	Rare

Fig. 1.

VII. NUSER INTERFACE DESIGN

- The mobile companion application has user-centric interface features. Major features include:
- Clean design where the user can access daily hydration reports.
- Simplified settings to customize hydration level and reminder period.
- In-bottle feedback updated in real-time shown as a graphical view like charts and graphs.
- Facility to compare past hydration trends to identify trends over a longer period.

VIII. SAFETY AND COMPLIANCE

To ensure user safety and meet regulatory standards, the Smart Water Bottle has been carefully designed with the following considerations:

- It uses food-grade, BPA-free materials for all water-contacting parts, making it safe for everyday drinking.
- A waterproof casing protects the internal electronics, helping the bottle last longer even with regular use.
- The system follows electrical safety and EMI/EMC standards, ensuring it works reliably without causing or receiving interference.
- Additionally, the materials and build are made to be skin-friendly and non-toxic, so the bottle is comfortable and safe for users of all ages.

IX. CONCLUSION

Staying hydrated is essential, yet often overlooked in our busy lives. The Smart Water Bottle developed in this project is a step toward making healthy hydration a natural part of the day. By combining sensor technology, wireless connectivity, and user-friendly feedback, the bottle helps users monitor their water intake, stay on track with reminders, and even check water temperature for added comfort and safety. Real-world testing showed that users responded well to the bottle's alerts and display features, with many increasing their daily water intake. Its practical design makes it especially helpful for athletes, older adults, and anyone trying to build better health habits. That said, there's still room to grow. Some current limitations include battery usage due to the display brightness, the need for a waterproof casing for long-term use, and limited storage that relies on cloud backup. Looking to the future, the bottle can become even smarter. It could sync with fitness bands to track hydration alongside physical activity, use machine learning to suggest personalized drinking routines, and even support voice assistants for easier interaction. Adding fun elements like rewards and progress tracking might also keep users more motivated.

Overall, this Smart Water Bottle is more than just a gadget—it's a personal wellness companion designed to make hydration simple, smart, and effective.

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5G Technology: A Catalyst for Smart City Development

1st Aayushi Ghatiya
Computer Science and Application Department
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
aayushighatiya1124@gmail.com

***Abstract*—This report examines the transformative potential of fifth-generation (5G) mobile network technology in the development of smart cities. It provides a comprehensive analysis of 5G, its advantages over previous generations, and the core concepts and objectives of smart cities. The report explores various applications of 5G within a smart city framework, including transportation, energy management, public safety, healthcare, and governance, highlighting the specific benefits 5G offers compared to existing technologies. Global examples of cities implementing 5G for smart city initiatives are presented, alongside a discussion of the challenges and limitations in deploying and utilizing 5G in urban environments.**

***Index Terms*—5G, Smart Cities, Internet of Things (IoT), Urban Development, Bhopal**

I. Introduction

The world is experiencing an unprecedented rate of urbanization, placing immense pressure on existing urban infrastructure and resources. Cities are increasingly seeking innovative solutions to manage their growing complexities, enhance the quality of life for their citizens, and promote sustainable development. In this context, the convergence of 5G technology and the concept of smart cities presents a significant opportunity. 5G, the latest generation of mobile network technology, offers capabilities far exceeding those of its predecessors, promising faster speeds, lower latency, and massive connectivity. Smart cities, on the other hand, represent a vision of urban environments where technology and data are leveraged to improve the efficiency, sustainability, and overall well-being of the city and its inhabitants . This report delves into the intricate relationship between these two transformative forces, exploring how 5G technology can act as a powerful catalyst in realizing the full potential of smart cities, with a specific focus on the opportunities and challenges for Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh. The subsequent sections will provide a detailed examination of 5G technology, the concept of smart cities, the potential applications of 5G within this framework, global implementation examples, challenges, future trends, and a specific analysis of Bhopal's smart city journey.

II. Understanding 5G Technology

A. *Definition and Key Characteristics of 5G*

The fifth-generation (5G) technology represents the latest advancement in mobile networks, succeeding the 1G, 2G, 3G, and 4G networks that have shaped the landscape of wireless communication. It is defined as a new global wireless standard designed to connect not only individuals but also machines, objects, and devices—essentially bringing together almost everyone and everything. This fundamental shift in network design, from primarily human communication to a vast ecosystem of connected entities, highlights its potential in smart cities. Key features of 5G include significantly higher data rates, capable of reaching peak speeds of several gigabits per second—potentially up to 20 Gbps. It also offers ultra-low latency. In addition, 5G boasts massive network capacity, supporting a hundredfold increase in traffic capacity and efficiency compared to previous generations. Enhanced availability—reaching up to 99.999%—and a more consistent user experience are also hallmarks of this technology. These features are not isolated improvements; rather, they collectively enable a new class of applications that require real-time responsiveness and high data throughput.

The foundation of 5G technology is built on advanced techniques such as Orthogonal Frequency Division Multiplexing (OFDM), a modulation format that encodes data across multiple channels to reduce interference. 5G also utilizes wider bandwidth, including both sub-6 GHz and millimeter wave (mmWave) frequencies. Furthermore, 5G is designed to operate across a broad range of spectrum bands, including low, mid, and high frequencies. This flexibility allows it to balance broad coverage (achieved through lower bands) with high speed and capacity (provided by higher bands), catering to the diverse communication needs within smart cities.

The evolution from previous generations has culminated in 5G, which is specifically designed not only for faster mobile broadband but also to support mission-critical communications and the widespread deployment of the Internet of Things (IoT).

This represents a fundamental shift in mobile network capabilities, as each generation has built upon the previous one, with 5G specifically designed to meet the needs of a hyper-connected world that goes beyond human communication. The focus on latency and capacity reflects an understanding of the requirements of emerging technologies such as autonomous vehicles and large-scale sensor networks.

The use of mm Wave spectrum allows for significantly higher speeds but comes at the cost of shorter range and increased sensitivity to obstacles. Higher frequencies inherently carry more data, but their shorter wavelengths result in lower penetration and coverage. This technical limitation has important implications for infrastructure deployment strategies in smart cities, necessitating the deployment of dense networks using small cells.

B. Advantages of 5G Over Previous Mobile Network Generations

5G technology offers several advantages over its predecessors, particularly 4G networks, which are crucial for enabling the vision of smart cities. One of the most significant improvements is the significantly faster speed provided by 5G, which can be up to 100 times faster than 4G. This increased speed allows for the rapid transfer of large volumes of data, essential for applications such as high-definition video streaming, large-scale data analysis from IoT devices, and quick software updates for connected vehicles.

Another major advantage is the significantly lower latency in 5G networks, which is often less than 5 milliseconds and potentially even below 1 millisecond. This near real-time responsiveness is critical for applications where timing is of utmost importance.

Additionally, 5G offers enhanced capacity to handle a much larger number of connected devices simultaneously, supporting the large-scale deployment of fundamental IoT devices in smart city infrastructure. This vast IoT support enables the connection of millions of sensors, smart meters, and other devices within a city without compromising network performance.

Compared to previous generations, 5G also provides better reliability and more consistent connectivity, ensuring stable communication for critical services.

Another significant advantage is the potential for better coverage, including in rural and remote areas, which is achieved through the use of various frequency bands, including low-frequency sub-6 GHz bands that offer wider coverage areas.

A unique feature of 5G is network slicing, which allows network operators to create multiple independent virtual networks on the same physical infrastructure, with each slice tailored to different services and business needs. This capability enables customized network performance for specific smart city applications—for example, ultra-reliable low latency for autonomous vehicles and massive connectivity for IoT sensors—all on the same network infrastructure.

Additionally, 5G networks are integrated with advanced security features, including enhanced encryption and authentication protocols, ensuring more secure communication compared to previous generations.

The combination of high speed, low latency, and massive capacity establishes 5G as a fundamentally different technology compared to 4G, enabling entirely new applications and services rather than just incremental improvements.

While 4G primarily focused on mobile broadband for consumers, 5G has been designed with a much broader range of use cases in mind, including industrial automation, autonomous systems, and large-scale sensor deployments, all of which require diverse performance characteristics. This fundamental shift makes 5G a key enabler for the next generation of smart city innovations.

The ability of 5G to support network slicing allows for customized network performance for specific applications—such as ultra-reliable low latency for autonomous vehicles and massive connectivity for IoT sensors—all within the same physical infrastructure.

This resource optimization is a critical advantage for smart city deployments, as smart cities comprise a diverse set of applications with varying network requirements. Network slicing provides the flexibility to efficiently meet these varied demands, avoiding the limitations of a one-size-fits-all network approach and enabling better resource management and cost-effectiveness.

C. Key Technical Specifications of 5G

The technical specifications of 5G technology have been defined by the International Telecommunication Union (ITU) under the name IMT-2020. These specifications establish the overall framework and minimum performance requirements for 5G networks.

Among the key minimum requirements are peak data rates, with a downlink capacity of 20 Gbit/s and uplink capacity of 10 Gbit/s. These represent the theoretical maximum speeds achievable under ideal conditions.

There are also strict requirements for user plane latency—the delay experienced by data packets—with a target of 4 milliseconds for Enhanced Mobile Broadband (eMBB) applications and even lower, 1 millisecond or less, for Ultra-Reliable Low-Latency Communication (URLLC).

These latency targets are especially important for enabling real-time applications within smart cities. For 5G, the maximum aggregated system bandwidth is specified to be at least 100 MHz, with the potential to reach up to 1 GHz in high-frequency bands above 6 GHz.

This wider bandwidth allows for higher data throughput and the ability to support a large number of simultaneous connections, which is essential for the dense device environments found in smart cities.

5G networks are also designed to support high mobility, maintaining connectivity for users traveling at speeds of up to 500 km/h in rural eMBB scenarios. This capability is particularly relevant for applications in smart transportation systems, such as high-speed trains.

III. The Vision of Smart Cities

A. Defining Smart Cities: Key Components and ObjectivesA smart city is broadly defined as an urban area where technology and data collection are strategically employed to enhance the quality of life for residents, improve the overall sustainability of urban practices, and increase the efficiency of city operations.At its core, the smart city concept involves leveraging Information and Communication Technology (ICT) and the Internet of Things (IoT) to effectively manage the city's diverse assets, resources, and public services. This includes everything from optimizing traffic flow and energy consumption to enhancing public safety and delivering more responsive citizen services.Several key components are commonly associated with smart cities. These components include an intelligent and integrated infrastructure that uses sensors and networks to connect various urban systems.Data and connectivity form another crucial element, where the collection, analysis, and seamless flow of data are essential for informed decision-making.Sustainable solutions are also a major focus, as smart cities aim to reduce their environmental footprint through initiatives like renewable energy usage and efficient waste management.Finally,citizen engagement is vital—ensuring that smart city initiatives are aligned with the needs and priorities of the people who live in the city.The objectives of smart cities are multidimensional. A primary goal is to improve the quality of life for residents by delivering better public services, enhancing safety, and making urban living more convenient and comfortable.This includes reducing traffic congestion and travel time, lowering energy consumption and costs, decreasing pollution levels, and minimizing crime rates.Environmental and economic sustainability are also key objectives. Smart cities aim to reduce their environmental impact through sustainable practices, while also boosting the local economy by supporting businesses and creating new employment opportunities.Additionally, smart city design often emphasizes resilience, enabling cities to better withstand and recover from various challenges, and inclusivity, ensuring that the benefits of smart city technologies are accessible to all residents.

The definition of a smart city goes far beyond merely adopting technology; it is about the strategic use of technology to address urban challenges and improve the lives of citizens in a sustainable way.Technology acts as an enabler, but the core of a smart city lies in its focus on outcomes—such as better living conditions, a healthier environment, and a more efficient urban ecosystem. The emphasis is on how technology is applied to solve real-world problems and enhance urban life.Citizen engagement is a vital component of smart cities, ensuring that technological solutions align with the needs and priorities of residents. This participatory approach fosters a sense of ownership and improves the effectiveness of smart city initiatives.Smart city projects should not be implemented in a top-down manner, but rather as collaborative efforts that involve those who are most affected by them.

A. The Foundational Role of Technology in Smart City Development

Technology serves as the very foundation upon which smart cities are constructed, with the Internet of Things (IoT) acting as its central nervous system by enabling the collection and analysis of data for smarter urban management . Smart sensors and cameras play a pivotal role in analyzing real-time data related to various aspects of urban life, including traffic management, the operation of public lighting systems, the efficiency of waste collection processes, and the management of vital resources . Artificial intelligence (AI) is also crucial, processing the vast amounts of data generated to facilitate automation, ensure the efficient management of infrastructure, and enhance public safety measures . Robust connectivity, encompassing high-speed internet access and various wireless communication technologies, is essential for ensuring seamless communication between the multitude of devices and systems that comprise a smart city . Furthermore, digital platforms and mobile applications play a vital role in fostering citizen engagement and providing residents with convenient access to a wide range of public services . Technology is not merely an added convenience; it is the foundation upon which smart cities are built, enabling data-driven decision-making and efficient resource allocation across various urban functions,without the ability to collect, process, and act upon real-time data, the concept of a truly "smart" city cannot be realized. Technology provides the tools and infrastructure necessary for this data-driven approach, transforming how cities are managed and operated.The integration of various technologies (IoT, AI, connectivity, cloud computing) is crucial for the creation of a holistic and interconnected smart city ecosystem, where different systems can seamlessly communicate and operate together.A smart city is not merely a collection of individual smart solutions; it is an integrated platform where various technological components are brought together to achieve synergistic benefits, enhancing overall efficiency and effectiveness.

B. Relevant Smart City Frameworks and Standards

The development and implementation of smart cities are supported by various international frameworks and standards that provide guidance and ensure interoperability. The International Organization for Standardization (ISO) plays a crucial role in this regard by developing standards aligned with the principles of sustainable and smart urban development.ISO 37120 is of particular significance as it is the first standard designed to propose a set of indicators specifically aimed at measuring and monitoring the success of smart city initiatives. This standard provides cities with a valuable framework to assess their progress and evaluate the impact of their smart city projects.In addition to ISO 37120, a series of other ISO standards are relevant to various aspects of smart city development, including energy efficiency (e.g., ISO 50001). These standards help ensure that different components of smart cities are developed and maintained in a way that promotes sustainability, efficiency, and resilience.4o mini 39001 35), and the management of water and wastewater services (e.g., ISO 24511 35). These standards provide best practices and guidelines for specific areas within smart cities. Additionally, BS ISO/IEC 30182 provides a framework for data sharing within smart cities, aiming to establish a common language that promotes interoperability across various city services.The ISO/IEC Joint Technical Committee 1 (JTC 1) Working Group 11 is particularly active in developing ICT-related standards for smart urban environments. These standards focus on areas such as ICT frameworks, data management, and performance indicators.The Institute of Electrical and Electronics Engineers (IEEE) also contributes to the standardization landscape for smart cities, with efforts such as IEEE P1951.1, which focuses on a standard for facilitating discovery and intent sharing.

The existence of these international standards and frameworks provides guidance and best practices for cities adopting smart city initiatives, ensuring interoperability, quality, and performance. Standards help in risk reduction, cost-cutting, and provide a common set of language and guidelines that promote sustainability and adaptability.The focus of standardization bodies on areas like data sharing and interoperability emphasizes the importance of breaking silos between various systems and stakeholders within a smart city, enabling seamless communication.For a smart city to operate effectively, its various components must be able to exchange data and coordinate their actions. Standards play a crucial role in enabling this integration, leading to more efficient and effective urban management.

IV. Unlocking the Potential of Smart Cities: Applications of 5G Technology

A. Smart Transport: Revolutionary Changes in Mobility with 5G Through its ability to enable Vehicle-to-Everything (V2X) communication, 5G technology is poised to bring revolutionary changes to urban mobility, facilitating safer and more efficient travel. This technology allows vehicles to communicate seamlessly with each other (V2V), surrounding infrastructure (V2I), and even pedestrians (V2P), paving the way for numerous advanced transportation applications. Intelligent traffic systems can leverage 5G's high speed and low latency to implement AI-powered traffic signals that dynamically adjust in real-time to traffic flow, reducing congestion and optimizing travel time. Additionally, smart parking solutions powered by 5G-connected sensors can provide real-time data on parking availability, helping drivers find spots more quickly and efficiently, thus reducing traffic congestion and emissions Additionally, 5G plays a critical role in enabling real-time public transportation tracking, allowing passengers to receive minute-by-minute updates on arrival times and potential delays, making travel planning more efficient. The low latency and high bandwidth of 5G are crucial for the development and deployment of advanced transportation systems, such as autonomous vehicles and intelligent traffic management, which require real-time data exchange and decision-making. The ability of vehicles and infrastructure to communicate instantly opens up possibilities for improved safety, reduced congestion, and more efficient mobility, transforming the way people commute in smart cities. By providing real-time information and enabling efficient payment systems, 5G can enhance the public transportation user experience, potentially encouraging greater adoption of public transport.

A. Smart Energy Management: Enhancing Efficiency and Sustainability through 5G

The 5G technology offers significant potential in enhancing energy management in smart cities, facilitating the adoption of renewable energy solutions, and enabling the implementation of smart grids for more sustainable energy systems. The high speed and low latency of 5G enable real-time energy monitoring of various systems, including HVAC (Heating, Ventilation, and Air Conditioning), lighting, and renewable energy sources, through IoT sensor networks. This allows for more precise and immediate adjustments in energy usage, leading to substantial cost savings and a reduction in energy waste.

5G also supports advanced automation for energy efficiency in smart buildings, allowing systems to adjust heating, cooling, and lighting based on real-time occupancy levels and environmental conditions. Additionally, 5G can support advanced metering infrastructure (AMI), providing utilities with real-time data on energy consumption patterns, enabling more accurate billing, usage analysis, and the implementation of time-of-use tariffs. The high capacity and low latency of 5G enable the efficient management of complex energy systems in smart cities, facilitating the integration of renewable energy sources and optimizing energy consumption in real-time.. Achieving energy efficiency and sustainability requires the ability to monitor and control energy production and consumption at a granular level, which 5G makes possible through its support for a large number of connected devices and real-time data transmission . 5G can support smart parking systems in large buildings or complexes through real-time communication between sensors, cameras, and payment systems, contributing to energy savings by reducing time spent searching for parking. Smart parking is not just about convenience; it also has environmental benefits by reducing vehicle idling and fuel consumption, contributing to the overall energy efficiency of the smart city.

B. Smart Public Safety: Fortifying Urban Security with 5G Capabilities

5G technology provides a powerful toolkit to enhance public safety within smart cities, significantly improving the responsiveness of emergency services through the deployment of smart surveillance systems and connected emergency response teams. The high bandwidth and low latency of 5G enable real-time situational awareness for first responders, giving them access to live video feeds from various sensors and surveillance cameras deployed throughout the city. This immediate access to critical information allows for better decision-making and more effective response strategies.

5G-enabled drones can be utilized for various public safety applications, including search and rescue operations in disaster scenarios, rapid delivery of essential medical supplies to remote areas, and remote surveillance of critical infrastructure or public spaces. Traffic management for emergency vehicles can also see significant improvements with 5G, enabling faster routes, prioritization, and reducing response times. Additionally, the integration of 5G with AI-powered surveillance systems opens up possibilities for advanced capabilities like facial recognition and predictive analytics, which can aid in crime prevention and enhance overall urban safety. The high bandwidth and low latency of 5G are crucial for enabling real-time data sharing and communication in public safety scenarios, leading to faster response times and better coordination between emergency services . In emergency situations, timely information can be life-saving. 5G provides the infrastructure for this rapid and reliable exchange of critical data, empowering first responders to make better decisions and respond more effectively.

The widespread connectivity of 5G allows for the deployment of a large number of sensors and surveillance devices across the city, offering a more comprehensive security blanket and enabling proactive crime prevention.

C. Smart Healthcare: Transforming Patient Care and Access with 5G

5G technology holds immense potential to revolutionize healthcare within smart cities, promising advanced telemedicine services with high-quality remote consultations and virtual care options. The high bandwidth and low latency of 5G enable seamless video communication and rapid transmission of large medical files, improving the accessibility and quality of healthcare, especially in remote or underserved areas. Remote patient monitoring can be significantly enhanced through 5G-connected wearable devices and sensors, allowing continuous tracking of vital signs and health metrics. This facilitates early detection of potential health issues and enables proactive intervention by healthcare providers. This technology also supports the use of Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR) for surgical assistance, medical training, and even patient care, offering immersive and interactive experiences. Within hospitals, the expansive connectivity of 5G enables the deployment of a wide range of Internet of Medical Things (IoMT) devices, improving operational efficiency through real-time tracking of patients, staff, and medical equipment. 5G has the potential to revolutionize healthcare delivery in smart cities by enabling remote consultations, monitoring, and even surgeries, thereby enhancing access to care and improving patient outcomes. The ability to provide healthcare services remotely can overcome geographical barriers and make specialized medical expertise more widely available, particularly benefiting underserved populations within a smart city. 5G facilitates the seamless exchange of critical medical information. Smart Governance: Empowering Efficient and Citizen-Centric Urban Administration with 5G.

In the realm of smart governance, 5G technology provides a powerful platform to enhance the efficiency and citizen-centricity of urban administration. The widespread connectivity of 5G enables the deployment of a vast network of sensors across the city, facilitating the collection of real-time data on various aspects of urban life — from the status of street lights and flow within water pipes to the movement of buses and trains. The high bandwidth and low latency of 5G allow for the rapid transmission and processing of this large volume of data, enabling city administrators to make informed decisions and implement proactive governance strategies based on real-time insights. The integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML) with 5G-enabled data streams enhances the ability of city officials to efficiently manage urban resources and services, optimize operations, and respond effectively to the needs of their citizens. Additionally, 5G plays a crucial role in supporting e-governance platforms and promoting greater citizen engagement through various digital platforms and mobile applications, making it easier for residents to access government services, provide feedback, and participate in decision-making processes. 5G provides the necessary infrastructure to collect and analyze vast amounts of data across all aspects of city operations, enabling more efficient and responsive governance. Data-driven governance allows city administrators to make informed decisions based on real-time insights rather than relying on outdated information or assumptions, resulting in more effective urban planning and management. The high connectivity of 5G can also facilitate better communication and coordination among various government agencies and service providers, leading to more integrated and effective urban management.

D. The Competitive Edge: Benefits of 5G over Existing Technologies in Smart City Applications

5G technology offers distinct advantages over existing technologies like 4G, Wi-Fi, and wired connections, making it a superior choice for various smart city applications. In smart transportation, 5G's real-time data processing capabilities and instant communication for autonomous vehicles overcome the limitations of 4G's high latency and Wi-Fi's limited coverage. For smart energy management, 5G provides enhanced connectivity and data processing for real-time monitoring and automation, better integration of renewable energy sources, and large-scale IoT connectivity—surpassing 4G's capacity constraints and Wi-Fi's range and security limitations. In smart public safety, 5G's high throughput for real-time video analytics, ultra-low latency for remote operations, and high reliability for critical communications are key advantages For smart healthcare, 5G enables near-instant communication for advanced telemedicine, continuous remote patient monitoring through sophisticated wearable devices, and rapid transmission of high-resolution medical images—capabilities that are significantly limited by 4G and Wi-Fi. Finally, in smart governance, 5G's ability to support advanced data collection and transmission from a large number of sensors, combined with real-time data analytics for proactive decision-making, offers a substantial advantage over the capacity limitations of 4G and the deployment challenges of large-scale Wi-Fi networks.The benefits of 5G are not merely incremental improvements but represent a significant leap in capability—enabling applications that were previously not feasible with existing technologies, especially those requiring ultra-low latency and high bandwidth.key differentiators are its ultra-low latency, massive capacity for IoT devices, and improved reliability, which unlock entirely new possibilities for urban innovation.

V. Global Pioneers: Cities Leading the Way in 5G-Enabled Smart Initiatives

Many cities around the world are at the forefront of implementing 5G technology to drive their smart city initiatives across various sectors.

In smart transportation, Guangzhou, China, has made significant progress by deploying 5G to manage its smart metro, bus, and railway systems—enhancing operational efficiency and improving the passenger experience. Seoul, South Korea, is another leader, utilizing 5G to power its advanced public transportation systems while offering features like smart payments and real-time information.In the United States, cities like Orlando and Altamonte Springs are providing valuable insights into the potential of 5G for local transportation and urban planning. Meanwhile, Greater Manchester in the UK is piloting 5G-powered smart junctions that use AI and real-time video analytics to optimize traffic signals.

In Japan, Fukuoka is leveraging sensor data and 5G connectivity to build models for monitoring and optimizing water usage. San Diego in the US has implemented connected smart streetlights through a 5G-enabled wireless network for remote monitoring and energy savings. Vienna, Austria, is also focusing on smart streetlights as part of its 5G-driven urban development.energy practices as a core component of its smart city strategy.

For smart public safety, London in the UK is employing 5G to enhance its smart policing initiatives, utilizing data analytics and connected technologies to improve crime prevention and response.10 New York in the USA has also made significant progress in using technology, including 5G, to reduce crime and improve public safety through initiatives like data-driven policing . Chicago, also in the USA, is utilizing 5G to support projects like gunshot detection systems and smart surveillance networks to enhance public safety.

The healthcare sector is also witnessing the transformative impact of 5G in smart cities.

In Guri, South Korea, Hanyang University Hospital has deployed a private 5G network to support AI-powered patient monitoring and real-time infusion tracking, revolutionizing healthcare operations. In Bangkok, Thailand, Siriraj Hospital has implemented a standalone 5G network, significantly improving the efficiency and effectiveness of healthcare services, resulting in increased survival rates for emergency patients.Kaohsiung in Taiwan has an ambitious plan to become a global leader in AI-powered urban management and smart healthcare, with 5G serving as a key enabler of these initiatives.In the realm of smart governance, London remains a leading smart city, supported by a strong 5G infrastructure that underpins integrated digital services and various aspects of urban management. Meanwhile, New York is focusing on open data initiatives and the development of smart infrastructure, leveraging 5G to enhance urban efficiency and The healthcare sector is also experiencing the transformative impact of 5G in smart cities.

In Guri, South Korea, Hanyang University Hospital has deployed a private 5G network to support AI-powered patient monitoring and real-time infusion tracking, leading to revolutionary improvements in healthcare operations. In Bangkok, Thailand, Siriraj Hospital has implemented a standalone 5G network, resulting in significant enhancements in healthcare efficiency and effectiveness, which has led to improved survival rates for emergency patients .Kaohsiung in Taiwan has an ambitious vision to become a global leader in AI-powered urban management and smart healthcare, with 5G serving as a major catalyst for these initiatives.

In the area of smart governance, London remains a leading smart city, supported by a robust 5G infrastructure that underpins integrated digital services and various aspects of urban management. Meanwhile, New York is focusing on open data initiatives and the development of smart infrastructure, leveraging 5G to enhance urban efficiency and increase citizen engagement. Although 5G deployment often requires new infrastructure, there is also potential to leverage existing infrastructure from previous generations of mobile networks, such as upgrading current cell towers to support 5G technologies. Close collaboration between mobile network operators and municipal governments is crucial for a smooth and efficient rollout—especially in streamlining zoning and permitting processes for the installation of new 5G infrastructure.

Deploying a comprehensive 5G network in a smart city requires significant infrastructure investment and meticulous planning, including the strategic placement of small cells and the availability of a robust backhaul network. Unlike previous generations, 5G—especially in the mmWave spectrum—has different coverage characteristics, necessitating changes in deployment strategies and potentially requiring a much larger number of base stations.

A. Addressing Critical Security Concerns in a Hyper-Connected Urban Environment

The hyper-connected nature of smart cities, combined with the widespread deployment of 5G-enabled IoT devices, presents a significantly expanded attack surface, raising critical security concerns. The vast number of connected devices, ranging from sensors and smart meters to autonomous vehicles and surveillance cameras, represents potential entry points for cybercriminals.

Moreover, the growing reliance on software-based network functions in 5G networks, including the virtualization of network resources and the implementation of network slicing, introduces new vulnerabilities that could be exploited. The global supply chain involved in the construction of 5G network components also presents risks, including the potential for counterfeit components, tampered firmware, or hidden backdoors introduced into the network.

To mitigate these risks, the implementation of a robust cybersecurity framework is essential.Building a flexible infrastructure with features such as programmable networks, end-to-end encryption, and regular security updates is another critical aspect of securing 5G-enabled smart cities. The increased connectivity and complexity of 5G networks in smart cities present significant cybersecurity risks that need to be actively addressed through strong security measures and a deep understanding of potential vulnerabilities.

With potentially billions of connected devices, each device and connection point represents a potential entry for cyber threats. Securing this vast and interconnected ecosystem is a major challenge, requiring a multi-layered approach to cybersecurity. An active and comprehensive cybersecurity strategy, incorporating aspects like zero-trust architecture and secure supply chain management, is essential to mitigate the risks associated with 5G deployment in smart cities and ensure the security and reliability of urban infrastructure and services.

B. Economic Realities: Cost Considerations for 5G Smart City Implementation

The implementation of 5G technology in smart cities involves significant economic considerations. Deploying 5G networks requires substantial upfront investment in new infrastructure, including the installation of numerous small cell base stations and the laying of fiber optic cables for backhaul. Telecom operators also face high costs associated with acquiring 5G spectrum licenses and purchasing advanced network hardware.

While the initial capital expenditure can be considerable, 5G-enabled improvements in efficiency and automation across various smart city applications, such as energy management and public services, have the potential for long-term cost savings. However, the business case for deploying 5G can be challenging for operators, especially in low population density areas where the return on investment may be less attractive.The initial investment required for 5G infrastructure deployment in smart cities can be substantial, posing a financial challenge for both telecom operators and municipal authorities . A careful cost-benefit analysis is crucial to justify the investment in 5G infrastructure and to identify sustainable funding models that involve both public and private sector participation . Exploring low-cost smart city solutions and leveraging opportunistic communication networks might be necessary to overcome the high infrastructure costs associated with widespread 5G deployment, particularly in budget-constrained environments.Innovative approaches to network deployment and technology adoption can help make smart city initiatives more affordable and accessible to a wider range of cities.

C. Other Potential Limitations of 5G Technology in the Context of Smart Cities

Beyond infrastructure, security, and costs, 5G technology presents other potential limitations in the context of smart city deployment. A notable limitation is the coverage of millimeter wave (mmWave) 5G, which offers extremely high speeds but has a limited range and is more susceptible to being blocked by physical obstacles like buildings and trees. This requires a denser deployment of small cells to ensure continuous coverage. Interoperability issues may also arise between the existing 4G networks and older devices during the transition to 5G. Additionally, the deployment and maintenance of complex 5G networks require skilled personnel.

Despite its benefits, 5G technology has some limitations, such as coverage challenges and potential security vulnerabilities, which must be considered and mitigated in smart city deployments. A realistic evaluation of 5G's limitations is crucial for developing effective deployment strategies and ensuring that expectations are properly managed. Addressing these limitations will be essential for the successful adoption of 5G in smart cities.

VI. Looking Ahead: The Future Evolution of 5G and its Impact on Smart Cities

A. Emerging Trends in 5G Technology and Beyond (e.g., 5G-Advanced, 6G)

The landscape of 5G technology is not static; it is continuously evolving with emerging trends that promise to further enhance its capabilities and impact on smart cities. One significant trend is the development of 5G-Advanced (also known as 5.5G), which represents the next phase in the evolution of 5G. 5G-Advanced aims to achieve higher data rates, improved spectral efficiency, and even lower latency, while supporting more complex applications such as Extended Reality (XR) and Ultra-Reliable Low-Latency Communication (URLLC), which are critical for autonomous transportation and real-time public safety systems. Another key trend is the rise of private 5G networks, which are dedicated wireless networks deployed for the exclusive use of a single organization.

Open RAN (O-RAN) is also gaining momentum as an industry movement that promotes open interfaces and virtualized Radio Access Network (RAN) solutions, in contrast to traditional proprietary systems. This fosters greater vendor diversity and innovation in 5G deployment. Progress in network slicing is also expected to continue, enabling the creation of multiple, distinct virtual networks on shared physical infrastructure with greater flexibility and customization to meet the specific requirements of various smart city services. Additionally, the growing integration of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and the Internet of Things (IoT), often referred to as AIoT, is a major trend that enables sophisticated data analysis and decision-making processes for a wide range of smart city applications—from predictive maintenance to personalized public services. Looking ahead to the future, the concept of 6G technology is emerging, with commercial deployment expected around 2030. 6G promises more revolutionary capabilities, including data speeds potentially reaching up to 1 terabit per second and ultra-low latency of less than 0.1 milliseconds.
5G technology is not static; rather, it is continuously evolving with trends such as the emergence of 5G-Advanced and the eventual arrival of 6G, which promise even greater capabilities for future smart city applications. Keeping pace with these technological advancements is crucial for long-term planning and ensuring that smart city infrastructure remains future-proof, allowing cities to leverage the latest innovations to enhance urban life.

B. The Potential for More Advanced and Integrated Smart City Solutions Driven by the Evolution of 5G

The ongoing development of 5G technology and the eventual emergence of 6G have the potential to accelerate the creation of more advanced and highly integrated smart city solutions. Future iterations of 5G, such as 5G-Advanced, will enable more seamless integration of various smart city systems and services, facilitating improved communication and coordination in urban operations.
This paves the way for more sophisticated autonomous systems, including fully autonomous vehicles and delivery drones, along with more powerful real-time data analytics capabilities that can provide deep insights for urban planning and management.
The growing integration of AI with 5G networks will lead to smarter and more adaptive urban management systems capable of anticipating and proactively responding to citizens' needs.
Looking ahead, technologies like 6G envision hyper-connected cities with ubiquitous connectivity and intelligent infrastructure. The future of smart cities is inherently tied to the evolution of 5G and the emergence of 6G, which will provide the ultra-fast, low-latency, and highly reliable connectivity needed to support increasingly advanced and integrated urban solutions.
As these next-generation network technologies mature, they will unlock new possibilities for creating truly intelligent and responsive urban environments that can adapt to the evolving needs of their citizens while becoming more sustainable and resilient.

VII. Bhopal: Charting a Smart Future with 5G?

A. Overview of Existing and Planned Smart City Initiatives in Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh

The capital of Madhya Pradesh, Bhopal, is actively participating in the Smart Cities Mission launched by the Government of India, aiming to transform itself into a technologically advanced and sustainable urban center. The Bhopal Smart City project focuses on several key areas, including the development of critical infrastructure to modernize transportation systems, water supply, sanitation, waste management, and power distribution through the integration of advanced technologies.
There is a strong emphasis on technology integration across various sectors such as governance, healthcare, education, public safety, and citizen services. A notable example of this is the establishment of an Integrated Command and Control Center (ICCC), which serves as a hub for efficiently managing and monitoring urban services.
Sustainable development is another core principle, emphasizing green energy, efficient waste management, and reduced carbon footprint . Bhopal also fosters a culture of innovation through its startup incubation center, B-Nest, which provides mentorship and Providing resources to young entrepreneurs is also a key focus. Under the Bhopal Smart City initiative, several specific projects are currently underway or have already been completed. These include the development of smart roads with integrated utilities, the deployment of an Intelligent Transport Management System (ITMS) for adaptive traffic control, installation of smart poles and intelligent street lighting, implementation of the "Bhopal Plus" mobile application for citizen services, and the establishment of a public bike-sharing system.
There is also a strong emphasis on enhancing e-governance and improving the delivery of citizen-centric services through digital platforms. Bhopal has a well-defined smart city vision and has already implemented several initiatives focused on infrastructure improvement, leveraging technology, and promoting sustainability.
Understanding the current smart city landscape in Bhopal is essential to recognize how 5G can amplify these efforts and contribute to the city's overall smart city goals.

B. Analyzing the Potential Role of 5G Technology in Enhancing Bhopal's Smart City Projects

5G technology holds significant potential to enhance both existing and planned smart city projects across various sectors in Bhopal. For initiatives like the Intelligent Transport Management System (ITMS), 5G's high speed and low latency can enable more advanced real-time traffic optimization and

pave the way for the integration of autonomous vehicles in the future.
Smart pole and intelligent street lighting infrastructure can benefit from the enhanced connectivity provided by 5G, supporting higher-density sensors, high-resolution surveillance cameras for improved monitoring, and reliable public Wi-Fi hotspots.
In the realm of e-health initiatives and remote citizen services, 5G's high bandwidth can facilitate high-quality video consultations, improving access to healthcare and government services for citizens—particularly in remote or underserved areas.
By leveraging 5G's transmission and processing capabilities, more advanced data analytics and artificial intelligence applications can be implemented to support better city management and informed decision-making.
5G technology has the potential to significantly enhance the capabilities and impact of Bhopal's existing and planned smart city projects across various sectors, enabling more sophisticated applications and services.
By mapping the strengths of 5G to the specific needs and goals of Bhopal's smart city initiatives, we can identify concrete opportunities to harness this technology to accelerate the city's smart transformation.

C. Assessment of the Current Technology Infrastructure in Bhopal

Bhopal has already made progress in establishing the foundational technological infrastructure required for smart city development, including the early adoption of 5G technology. Jio launched its 5G services in Bhopal in December 2022, making it the first city in Madhya Pradesh to offer next-generation connectivity.Prior to this commercial launch, Vodafone Idea conducted a 5G pilot project in Bhopal, using small cell networks to test various 5G use cases.Additionally, in 2022, the Government of Madhya Pradesh indicated Bhopal's potential to become India's first 5G-enabled smart city, highlighting the city's ambitions in the technological domain.Bhopal also benefits from a growing IT infrastructure, with the presence of multiple IT parks and infrastructure providers across the state of Madhya Pradesh.
Additionally, Bhopal hosts a center under the Software Technology Parks of India (STPI), which supports innovation and entrepreneurship in emerging technologies and provides a conducive ecosystem for the development of 5G-enabled smart city solutions.
Bhopal has already taken initial steps toward 5G deployment, with pilot projects and commercial launches indicating the emergence of a growing 5G ecosystem in the city. This existing 5G infrastructure provides a foundation upon which other smart city applications can be built, positioning Bhopal as a potential leader in 5G-enabled urban innovation in India.The presence of a supportive IT infrastructure and ecosystem in Bhopal and across Madhya Pradesh suggests a favorable environment for the adoption and integration of 5G technology into smart city initiatives.

VIII. Conclusion: Realizing the Promise of 5G for Smarter Urban Living

5G technology stands as a powerful catalyst for transforming urban environments into smart cities. Its unprecedented capabilities in terms of speed, latency, and capacity provide a foundation on which innovative solutions can be developed to address the growing complexities of urban life. This report has explored the versatile potential of 5G across various critical sectors within the smart city framework, including transportation, energy management, public safety, healthcare, and governance.
The analysis shows that 5G not only offers significant improvements over existing technologies but also enables entirely new applications that were previously unimaginable. Cities around the world are already recognizing and harnessing the transformative power of 5G, with many successful examples of its Emerging 5G implementations and pilot projects are taking shape across different application areas. However, the journey to realizing the full potential of 5G in smart cities is not without its challenges. Significant investments in infrastructure are required for widespread deployment, and critical security concerns in hyper-connected urban environments must be actively addressed. Economic realities and other technical limitations also need to be carefully considered.
In the future, the continuous development of 5G technology, with trends like 5G-Advanced and the emergence of 6G, promises even more advanced and integrated smart city solutions. In the specific context of Bhopal, Madhya Pradesh, the city has demonstrated a clear vision for smart urban development and has already taken initial steps toward implementing 5G technology.
To strategically leverage 5G capabilities for enhancing its existing and planned smart city initiatives, Bhopal will ultimately need a strategic plan, strong collaboration among stakeholders, an active approach to addressing security concerns, and a commitment to using technology for the benefit of all citizens to realize the promise of smart urban living with 5G.

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Review Paper on Deep Learning-Based Computer Vision for Sonar Imagery

1st Aklesh Kumar
Assistant Professor
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
aaklesh99@gmail.com

2nd Mohit Sahu
Assistant Professor
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
mohitsa9691@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Data-driven deep learning models.paper discusses the benefits of deep learning in Automatic Target Recognition (ATR), as well as the current issues related to data availability, computational limitations, and domain adaptation. Finally, this paper explains some possible research perspectives with the aim of improving sonar image analysis through like feature extraction, classification, object detection, and segmentation. ThisTransformers (ViTs) and Autoencoders (AEs), in sonar image analysis. You are taken through essential tasks of computer vision exploration and defense, as well as marine research. This review article covers the role of Deep Learning models, namely Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN), Vision computer vision and artificial intelligence in general, and its use is gaining momentum in sonar imagery. Sonar imaging plays an important role for both underwater Deep learning has transformed.**

***Index Terms*—Sonar image analysis, Deep learning, CNN, Vision Transformers, Auto encoders, Feature extraction, Object detection, Image classification, Image segmentation, Domain adaptation, Transfer learning, Explainable AI, Underwater exploration, Marine defense, Data augmentation, Hybrid models, GANs, Embedded systems.**

I. INTRODUCTION

higher accuracy and efficiency [1] on hand-designed features and classical machine learning models. Nevertheless, in the past few years, deep learning-based approaches have achieved much for underwater navigation, seabed mapping, shipwreck detection, and defense applications. Traditional sonar image processing methods were based Marine sonar imagery is commonly used including low image resolution, noise and lack of data. This paper presents an CNNs, achieving better results than traditional methods in features extraction, detection, and segmentation [2]. Nevertheless, sonar image analysis comes with its own set of challenges learning approaches have been used to improve sonar image analysis through automated feature extraction, and better object detection and classification abilities [1, 2]. Sonar imagery tasks have also heavily used Deep

II. FEATURE EXTRACTION IN SONAR IMAGERY

Feature extraction is a fundamental step in sonar image analysis, as it helps identify patterns and structures within an image. Traditionally, statistical and geometric features were used for sonar image processing, but these methods often struggled with complex underwater environments.

Image Feature Extraction 2.1 Sonar learn different levels of abstraction and capture low and high-level characteristics [2]. widely used in sonar imagery for automatic feature extraction, especially architectures such as AlexNet, VGG and ResNet [2]. Hierarchical representations: these models can automatic feature extraction [1, 2]. CNNs have been Deep learning provides a compelling alternative with classifiers (e.g., Support Vector Machines (SVM) [20], [21]). successfully used sonar datasets to achieve enhanced classification accuracy by fine-tuning these models [3]. Performance has also been boosted by hybrid methods that integrate the rich features derived from deep learning with conventional model is trained on larger datasets like ImageNet [3]. Researchers have Transfer Learning - Appropriate pre-trained models can been used for sonar applications by transfer learning methods, especially if the Despite these advancements, feature extraction in sonar imagery remains challenging due to variations in image quality, noise interference, and domain-specific factors. Future research should focus on developing domain-adaptive deep learning models for more robust feature extraction.

III. CLASSIFICATION OF SONAR IMAGES

Classification is a crucial step in sonar image analysis, where objects or regions of interest are categorized into predefined classes such as mines, shipwrecks, or seabed types. Deep learning models, particularly CNNs, have demonstrated remarkable success in classifying sonar images [1].

A. CNN-Based Classification

CNN architectures such as VGG, ResNet, and DenseNet have been extensively used for sonar image classification [4]. These models excel at learning spatial hierarchies, enabling accurate differentiation between objects of interest [4]. Transfer learning has further improved classification performance, allowing models trained on large natural image datasets to be adapted for sonar applications [3].

B. Hybrid Approaches

In addition to CNNs, researchers have explored hybrid approaches that combine deep learning with traditional machine learning classifiers. For instance, CNN-extracted features can be fed into an SVM or Random Forest classifier for improved classification accuracy. Ensemble learning techniques, where multiple deep learning models are combined, have also been investigated to enhance robustness. Despite these improvements, sonar image classification faces challenges related to data imbalance and environmental variability. Data augmentation techniques and synthetic data generation using Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) [9] can help mitigate these challenges.

IV. Object Detection in Sonar Imagery

Object detection in sonar images involves identifying and localizing objects such as underwater mines, shipwrecks, and marine organisms. Traditional template matching approaches were limited by variations in object appearance and background noise. Deep learning-based object detection methods have significantly improved detection accuracy.

A. Deep Learning-Based Detectors

Modern object detection frameworks, including YOLO (You Only Look Once) [5], Faster R-CNN [6], and SSD (Single Shot Multibox Detector), have been successfully applied to sonar imagery [5, 6]. YOLO is particularly well-suited for real-time applications due to its fast inference speed [5], while Faster R-CNN provides higher accuracy for complex underwater scenes [6].

B. Enhancements for Sonar Object Detection

Several enhancements have been proposed to improve object detection in sonar images. Gabor filters have been integrated into CNN architectures to enhance feature extraction in noisy environments. Attention mechanisms, such as self-attention and spatial transformers, have been explored to improve model focus on relevant regions of the image. While deep learning-based object detection has shown promising results, challenges remain in detecting small, occluded, or low-contrast objects. Future research should explore multi-scale detection techniques and domain adaptation strategies.

V. Segmentation in Sonar Images

Segmentation is essential for understanding sonar images, as it helps differentiate object boundaries and seafloor structures. Traditional segmentation methods often struggle with sonar-specific challenges such as low resolution and high noise levels.

A. Deep Learning for Segmentation

Several deep learning architectures, including U-Net [7], Fully Convolutional Networks (FCNs), and DeepLab [8], have been applied to sonar image segmentation [7, 8]. These models provide pixel-wise classification, enabling accurate delineation of underwater objects [7, 8]. 5.2 Hybrid and Post-Processing Techniques To improve segmentation accuracy, researchers have combined deep learning-based segmentation with traditional methods such as Markov Random Fields (MRFs) and Conditional Random Fields (CRFs). Post-processing techniques, including edge enhancement and noise filtering, have also been used to refine segmentation results. Despite these advancements, segmentation in sonar imagery remains an active research area, requiring further improvements in model generalization and robustness.

VI. Challenges and Research Gaps

Deep learning-based sonar image analysis faces several key challenges:

A. Data Scarcity

The lack of publicly available annotated sonar datasets limits model training and generalization [11, 12]. Data augmentation and synthetic data generation using GANs [9] are potential solutions.

B. Computational Constraints

Real-time sonar analysis on embedded systems requires efficient models with lower computational complexity [10]. Model pruning, quantization, and edge AI techniques [10] can help address these constraints.

C. Domain Adaptation

Models trained on specific sonar datasets often fail to generalize across different environments. Transfer learning [3] and domain adaptation strategies can enhance model robustness.

D. Explainability and Robustness

Deep learning models often function as "black boxes," making interpretation difficult [10]. Explainable AI (XAI) techniques [10] can improve model transparency and trustworthiness.

VII. Future Directions

Future research should focus on: Developing large-scale, publicly available sonar datasets [11, 12]. Exploring Vision Transformers and hybrid deep learning architectures. Integrating deep learning with physics-based models for better interpretability.Implementing real-time sonar analysis on embedded systems [10].

VIII. Conclusion

Deep learning has significantly advanced sonar image analysis, improving feature extraction, classification, detection, and segmentation [1, 2]. However, challenges such as data scarcity [11, 12], computational constraints [10], and model interpretability [10] remain. Future research should focus on addressing these limitations to enhance the effectiveness and reliability of sonar image analysis, benefiting applications in marine defense, oceanography, and underwater exploration.

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Advancements in Deep Learning for Detecting and Diagnosing Diseases in Black Gram Crops: A Comprehensive Review of Technique

1st Priyanka Parihar
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur university
City, Country
priyanka.parihar@meu.edu.in

2nd Prof(Dr.)Firoj Parwej
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
firoj.parwej@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—Black gram (Vigna mungo) is a vital pulse crop that plays a significant role in global agriculture, particularly in countries like India and Southeast Asia. However, its yield and quality are often compromised by various diseases, which can severely impact crop production and food security. Traditional methods of disease detection and diagnosis are time-consuming, labor-intensive, and often prone to errors. Recently, deep learning (DL) techniques have emerged as powerful tools for automating and enhancing disease identification in crops. This paper presents a comprehensive review of the advancements in deep learning models for detecting and diagnosing diseases in black gram crops. We explore various deep learning approaches, such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs), recurrent neural networks (RNNs), and transfer learning, that have been effectively applied to plant disease detection. The paper also discusses datasets, challenges in image acquisition, and model evaluation metrics. Moreover, we examine the integration of deep learning with precision agriculture techniques, enabling real-time, accurate disease monitoring. The review highlights the potential of DL models to improve disease management strategies, reduce crop loss, and enhance yield prediction. Finally, we identify future research directions, including the need for more diverse datasets, model interpretability, and the development of hybrid models to tackle complex disease scenarios in black gram cultivation.**

***Index Terms*—Black Gram Plant Leaf Diseases, Disease classification, Agricultural sector, Food security, Deep Learning. Crop disease recognition.**

I. Introduction

Black gram (Vigna mungo), commonly known as urad bean, is an essential leguminous crop grown primarily in South Asia, particularly in India, where it is a key source of protein. Its cultivation contributes significantly to food security and the livelihoods of millions of farmers. However, like many agricultural crops, black gram is highly susceptible to a range of diseases caused by pathogens, including fungi, bacteria, viruses, and nematodes. These diseases can lead to substantial yield losses, reduced quality, and economic hardship for farmers, thereby jeopardizing food security in the region.

Traditionally, disease detection and management in black gram crops have relied on manual inspection, field surveys, and laboratory-based diagnostic methods. These approaches are not only time-consuming and labor-intensive but also prone to human error and often require expert knowledge to accurately identify the specific pathogens. Moreover, environmental factors, such as changing climate conditions, have further complicated disease forecasting and management. In recent years, the integration of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) techniques, particularly deep learning (DL), has revolutionized the field of agricultural disease detection. Deep learning, a subset of machine learning, utilizes advanced neural networks to automatically learn and extract features from raw data, such as images, and has shown great promise in automating disease identification in plants. Convolutional neural networks (CNNs), for instance, have demonstrated remarkable success in the image-based recognition of plant diseases by learning hierarchical patterns in plant leaf images.

This paper presents a comprehensive review of the advancements in deep learning techniques applied to the detection and diagnosis of diseases in black gram crops. The review highlights the state-of-the-art DL models, including CNNs, recurrent neural networks (RNNs), and hybrid architectures, that have been used to detect diseases in black gram plants. Additionally, we explore the challenges associated with collecting high-quality datasets, the role of image preprocessing, and the need for model interpretability and generalization across different crop environments.

By providing an in-depth overview of the various techniques, applications, and challenges, this paper aims to underscore the transformative potential of deep learning in revolutionizing disease management in black gram crops, thereby contributing to sustainable agricultural practices and improved food security.

II. BLACK GRAM PLANT LEAF DISEASE AND DEEP LEARNING (LITERATURE REVIEW)

Singh et al. (2023) [1] explored the application of deep learning techniques for early disease detection in wheat crops, demonstrating that Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) can effectively identify common diseases through leaf image analysis, significantly improving disease management practices. Patel et al. (2024)[2] presented a framework for the monitoring of rice crop health using drone imagery and AI algorithms. Their study highlighted the potential of machine learning models to analyze aerial images, enabling farmers to make informed decisions regarding irrigation and pest control. Gupta et al. (2023)[3] investigated the use of computer vision and AI to assess the health status of tomato plants. The research showed that AI-driven image analysis could accurately classify plant conditions, offering a scalable solution for monitoring crop health in large agricultural settings. Kumar et al. (2023) [4]developed a machine learning model for detecting diseases in soybean crops, utilizing hyperspectral imaging to enhance the accuracy of disease classification and reduce the dependency on traditional field assessments. Choudhary et al. (2024)[5] demonstrated the use of a smartphone application powered by AI to diagnose pest infestations in various crops. Their findings emphasized the effectiveness of mobile technology in providing real-time assistance to farmers for pest management. Verma et al. (2023) [6]investigated the role of deep learning in the identification of leaf spot diseases in chili crops. The study reported significant improvements in disease detection accuracy, highlighting the effectiveness of AI techniques in agricultural practices. Reddy et al. (2024)[7] presented a comprehensive review of machine learning applications for precision agriculture, focusing on disease prediction and yield forecasting. Their work underscored the importance of integrating AI with traditional agricultural practices to enhance crop management. Zhang & Wang (2019)[8] discussed the application of deep learning in crop disease detection, emphasizing how CNNs can be trained on large datasets to improve diagnostic accuracy. Their findings highlighted the potential for deep learning models to outperform traditional methods in various crops. Mahlein & Oerke (2016)[9] explored the integration of digital phenotyping with machine learning techniques for crop disease detection. The research demonstrated how drones equipped with imaging technologies can provide real-time monitoring and analysis, thereby enhancing the effectiveness of disease management strategies. Zou & Chen (2018)[10] provided a comprehensive review of remote sensing technologies combined with machine learning for plant disease detection. They noted the advancements in image processing techniques that enable precise identification of disease symptoms in various crops, facilitating timely interventions. Hussain & Zaidi (2017) [11]focused on early detection of crop diseases using image processing and neural networks. Their work illustrated the effectiveness of AI in analyzing images for early signs of disease, thereby contributing to improved yield and crop health management.

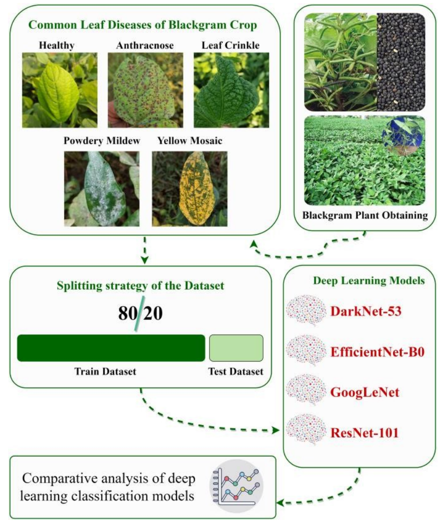

Fig. 1. Black gram plant leaf diseases flow diagram

III. Research gap

- Limited Research on Black Gram: Despite the significance of Black Gram (Urad Dal) in Indian agriculture, there is a scarcity of studies focusing on disease detection and monitoring specifically
- Underutilization of AI Techniques: While AI and machine learning methods have been applied to various crops, the application of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) for early disease detection in Black Gram remains largely unexplored. This represents an opportunity to develop tailored models that can effectively address the unique challenges posed by this pulse crop.
- Lack of Comprehensive Image Datasets: There is a deficiency of publicly available, high-quality image datasets specifically for Black Gram diseases. The absence of such datasets hinders the development and training of robust AI models, as most models rely on extensive and diverse data to achieve high accuracy.
- Integration of Field Data: Many existing studies do not integrate real-time field data with AI models for disease prediction. The potential for combining environmental factors and field conditions with AI-based image analysis remains an underexplored area, which could enhance the precision of disease detection.
- Economic and Practical Implications: There is limited investigation into the economic viability and practicality of deploying AI-driven disease detection tools among smallholder farmers. Understanding the cost-effectiveness and ease of use of such technologies is crucial for widespread adoption.
- Comparative Studies with Traditional Methods: There is a lack of comparative studies that evaluate the performance

of AI techniques against traditional disease identification methods in Black Gram. Such studies are essential to validate the effectiveness of AI-driven approaches and encourage their adoption in agricultural practices.

IV. Methodology

This study employs a multi-pronged, AI-driven diagnostic framework to detect and categorize diseases affecting black gram crops. Central to the methodology is the utilization of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) trained on curated plant image datasets. These models are fine-tuned using transfer learning to enhance accuracy, particularly when data availability is limited. Data preprocessing includes techniques like image normalization and augmentation (e.g., rotation, zooming), ensuring the model adapts well to field variability. Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) supplement dataset diversity by synthesizing realistic diseased leaf images. Field integration is achieved through IoT-enabled sensors and real-time imaging devices, allowing seamless, continuous data capture. Model performance is benchmarked using precision, recall, and F1-score metrics. Furthermore, hybrid architectures combining CNNs and RNNs are explored to capture both spatial and temporal disease patterns. This robust, scalable methodology underpins a transformative leap from manual disease detection to smart, precision agriculture.

V. CONCLUSION

This comprehensive review of advancements in deep learning for detecting and diagnosing diseases in black gram crops highlights the transformative potential of AI-driven methods in agricultural management. Deep learning techniques, especially CNNs and hybrid architectures, have shown impressive results in accurately identifying diseases from leaf images. The integration of transfer learning and data augmentation has further enhanced model performance, even in scenarios with limited training data. Additionally, the review explores the role of GANs in generating synthetic data to address data scarcity and improve model generalization.

A key takeaway from the review is the synergy between deep learning models and IoT-based systems, which enables real-time disease detection and effective decision-making in crop management. However, challenges such as limited annotated datasets, computational demands, and the need for model interpretability remain, calling for continued research and development in these areas. Ultimately, deep learning techniques offer a promising approach to enhancing crop disease management, reducing losses, and promoting sustainable farming practices.

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WORD SENSE DISAMBIGUATION SYSTEM FOR MAITHILI LANGUAGE USING SUPPORT VECTOR MACHINE

1st Yashika Mathur
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
Yashikamathur1193@gmail.com

2nd Prabhat Kumar Singh
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
prabhatprobable@gmail.com

3rd Dr. Harish Patidar
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
harish.patidar@gmail.com

4th Wasim Ansari
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
Ansarwasim744@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Maithili is the member of Indo Aryan family spoken in some state of India (Bihar and Jharkhand) and mostly region of Nepal. Very little work has been done in the field of Natural Language Processing(NLP) for Maithili language. Some research for Parts of Speech (POS) tagging has been done for the language but there exist no work towards development of Word Sense Disambiguation(WSD) system for the language. WSD deal with ambiguous word, means words having more than one meaning depending on context. Designing Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD) system for any language is crucial task in Natural Language Processing. In the present work we have created dataset containing 3500 sentences of Maithili and used supervised machine learning approach Support Vector Machine (SVM). We have achieved overall 70 % accuracy for the designed model which is good accuracy for any resource poor language. Accuracy can be enhanced by enlarging size of dataset for the training of model.**

***Index Terms*—Maithili, WSD, POS, Machine Learning, NLP , SVM.**

I. Introduction

Maithili is an Indo-Aryan language spoken in many parts of India, especially in Bihar, and Jharkhand state of India and in some parts such as Janakpur , Kathmandu of Nepal. Cultural and Historical background of Maithili is rich.with a strong literary, need of designing and developing WSD tradition that has lasted for centuries. Maithili is officially recognized as one of the 22 scheduled languages of India by the Indian Constitution. In earlier days, Maithili was the court language of the Mithila kingdom. Ancient texts and manuscripts have preserved it and have established its legacy as one of the Indian subcontinent's oldest languages.

Word Sense Disambiguation: Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD) is a process to identify the correct meaning of a word based on the context in the sentence. In Maithili, senses means meaning of a word changes sentence to sentence. It is required in developing other tools such as parsing, machine translation and Information Retrieval System. WSD is also helpful in searches more accurately. As there exist no word sense disambiguation system for Maithili language, we need to work in the area of designing WSD system for the language. Example for ambiguous words in Maithili language is shown in the table 1.

Table 1: Maithili Ambiguous Word

Maithili Word	Romanized	Meaning 1	Meaning 2
गाछ	Gaach	Tree	Growth
बात	Baat	Matter	Air
धन	Dhan	Money	Crops

Approaches for WSD System : There exist various methods for WSD , such as Knowledge based approach, supervised and unsupervised approach , hybrid approach, and deep learning approach.

- Knowledge based Approach
  It uses dictionaries and semantic network such as WordNet. Techniques used in knowledge based approaches include Semantic Similarity and Lesk Algorithm. In semantic similarity words in a semantic network(WordNet) is analyzed, whereas in Lesk Algorithm word overlap between dictionary gloss and words context in the sentence determined. Example of Knowledge based approach is given as follows:

Sentence: "राम माछ खाइत रहला।"

In English :"Ram was eating fish."

In the above sentence "माछ" (maachh) is ambiguous word as there are two meaning of the word "माछ"

Meaning 1 : "fish" as a food item
Meaning 2 : "fish" as a living aquatic creature

In knowledge based approach , the model analyzes gloss from Maithili dictionary for the ambiguous word.

Gloss of "fish" in the context of food is"A prepared edible item derived from aquatic creatures" and Gloss of "fish" in the context of living creature is "A cold-blooded aquatic animal".

The model compares these glosses with context and determines that "माछ" in this sentence refers to "fish" as food since eating implies a prepared item rather than a live creature.

- Supervised and Unsupervised Approach
  Supervised approach treats WSD as classification task using labeled dataset, it requires large labeled dataset. Decision tree , Support Vector Machine , Neural Network are example of supervised approach. In the case of unsupervised approach there is no need of labeled data, statistical methods and clustering used in this approach. Contextual similarity and word embedding techniques come under the unsupervised approach.
- Hybrid Approach
  It is the combination of statistical methods and knowledge based method which includes strength of both methods and overcome the limitation of using individual method.
- Deep Learning Approach
  In this approach , context of words can be understood better using sequence models like Recurrent Neural Network and Transformer. BERT , and ELMO understand word senses at sentence level.

Approach	Advantages	Disadvantages
Knowledge-Based	No need of annotated corpus	Limited by lexical resource quality
Supervised Learning	High accuracy	Requires large annotated corpora
Unsupervised Learning	No need for annotations	Lower accuracy; hard to evaluate
Hybrid	Balances resource use	Complex implementation; computationally heavy
Deep Learning	Captures deep context relationships	Requires extensive data and resources

II. RELATED WORK

Bevilacqua(2021) reviewed research work done on Word Sense disambiguation using different approaches like supervised, knowledge based and hybrid approaches. Researcher highlighted considerable enhancement in different WSD models, mainly in supervised learning approaches and pre trained models which gives more than 80% accuracy. Authors found, hybrid model, combination of knowledge based and supervised as most effective solution. Researchers surveyed different datasets such as WordNet Corpus, SemCor , and XL-WSD. In this work significance of challenges such as sense granularity also addressed.[1] Prafullit et. al. (2021) proposed Word Sense Disambiguation System for Hindi language using modified Lesk algorithm. Proposed approach uses calculated sense score of the words in the corpus.Hindi WordNet is used for definition, synonyms, hyponyms, and hypernym of words. Challenges of ambiguous words in the language rectified by preprocessing step like tokenization, stemming or lemmatization and POS tagging .Proposed modified Lesk Algorithm gives an accuracy of 78.9 %. Precision and recall for the proposed work reported as 79.5 % and 76.2 % respectively. Scoring method improves performance of polysemous word present in the language.[2] The Word Sense Disambiguation system is proposed for 18 Indian languages scheduled in the Indian constitution by Surendra Shukla et. al.(2021) using a Graph Based Method. Graph based approach is used with the combination of lexical knowledge without using any manual training or labeling. Context of multi- lingual with graph connectivity is created for resolving ambiguities in the proposed method. Calculated evaluation metrics found to be better than existing approaches.[3] Rodrigo et. al.(2020) proposed WSD to improve text readability with language, cognitive and learning disabilities. In the proposed model, contextualized definitions for words in Spanish texts is provided to improve their accessibility with the integration of BERT model. Proposed model gives an accuracy of 64.95% for 117 instances and precision of 70.48%. Proposed model improves accuracy by increasing instances of 408 and accuracy reached to 72.06%. Model still challenges with recall value, which can be improved in future.[4] Josh et. al. (2021) presented WSD using semi supervised approach and used models for word embedding such as Word2Vec,GloVe,FastText ,Electra. They have used these models with POS tags and SSL algorithms including Gaussian Random Fields, OMNI-Prop, Researchers concluded that ELECTRA embeddings gives best performance as compared to supervised learning methods.[5] Anup et. al. (2024) proposed WSD for the machine translation system of Assamese to Hindi language using statistical approach and machine learning approach.Main focus of the study was to improve accuracy of the system.Authors used machine learning approach and existing WordNet of Hindi to compare Decision tree and Naive Bayes approach, so that robust model can be developed.Due to lower error rates Naive Bayes performed better than Decision tree algorithm.Proper Noun and ambiguous word translation improved using SMT due to integration of transliteration system and WSD.Proposed system obtained an accuracy of 77 % in translating ambiguous tokens for 300 Assamese sentences.Precision and recall also improved by using Hindi WordNet. As very little work has been done for Assamese language , proposed work is a great contribution towards Natural language processing of Assamese language.[6] Novel approach for WSD has been presented by Sunjae et. al.(2021) using word similarity and context selection, which improves performance of the system. Knowledge based representation of vector . In the proposed method cosine similarity has been calculated to select appropriate words as per the context.Ambiguous words analyzed by using subgraph build from the contextual words, irrelevant information ignored and in this way performance has been improved. Evaluation metrics such as accuracy, precision and recall calculated and found to be better than existing model performance.[7] Roberto(2009) reviewed research work on word sense disambiguation systems, in which the meaning of words changes as per the context in the sentence. Resource of knowledge.researcher highlighted challenges in designing WSD. Author focussed on different approaches such as knowledge based, machine learning and focussed on contextual source of knowledge as well as external. Researcher conveyed that designing of WSD is not simple task and recognized as AI- complete problem.[8] Zhi Zhong and Hwee Tou Ng(2010) designed a word sense disambiguation system for the English language using Support Vector Machine. Researchers designed an IMS system which means It Makes Sense , which is an advanced WSD for English.Proposed system used POS tagging and SVM for the design. Researchers used different datasets like SensEval-2, SensEval-2007. Accuracy achieved in Senseval-2, SensEval-3, and SensEval - 2007 are 65.3 %, 72.6% and 82.6% respectively.[9] Rahmand and Bhogeswar(2021) developed Word Sense Disambiguation (WSD) system using an unsupervised approach which uses WordNet and Wikipedia corpus.Likelihood of co occurring words has been calculated by evaluating ”collocation extraction score”. This evaluation is significant for the proposed work. Correct sense of word obtained using this parameter. Performance of the proposed WSD better than existing system for English language.[10] Christopher and Michel(2003) presented WSD to improve accuracy of existing WSD. Authors used term frequency and Inverse Document frequency to improve the accuracy and other evaluation metrics. Proposed word sense disambiguation system can be used in Information Retrieval system.[11]

III. PROPOSED METHODOLOGIES

Following is the proposed methodologies for designing the WSD for Maithili language. the best algorithm shown in figure 1.

Algorithm WSDM
Input: Word having Ambiguity, Context C Output: Possible Sense S for the given word W
Start

```
    \# Step 1: Preprocessing
    Maithili corpus from LDCIL
    Clean the text
    Tokenize words and and remove stop words
    Tag POS for individual word

    \# Step 2: Feature Extraction
    Extract features on the basis of context
    (POS tags ,Neighboring words)
    Extract semantic features (WordNet
    synsets, dependency parsing)
    Convert features to numerical vectors

    \# Step 3: Prepare Training Data
    Label dataset with correct word senses
    Split data into training and testing sets

    \# Step 4: Train SVM Model
    Initialize SVM with appropriate kernel
    function (linear, RBF)
    Train model using labeled feature vectors
    Perform hyper parameter tuning with
    cross-validation

    \# Step 5: Predict Word Sense
    FOR each ambiguous word W in test data:
    Extract features from context C
    Apply trained SVM model on feature vector
    Predict most probable sense S

    \# Step 6: Evaluate & Optimize Model
    Compute accuracy, precision, recall,
    and F1-score
    Adjust feature selection and model
    parameters if necessary
    RETURN Predicted Sense S
    END
```

We have used corpus from LDC-IL for the preparation of the dataset of Maithili. First step of the algorithm is to tokenize Maithili sentences and after tokenization process words are tagged with parts of speech. POS tagging for the Maithili words are shown in the table 3.

Table 3:POS Tagging for Maithli Word

Word	Meaning	POS Class
ओकर	His/her	Pronoun
के	Of	Postposition
कते	How much	Determiner
चल	Move	Verb
हम	I	Pronoun

After tokenization of sentence and POS tagging, features are extracted on the basis of nearby words and POS tagging. These features are converted into vector representation. In the next step dataset for training is prepared. Dataset contains ambiguous word, their meaning and senses for the word. Sample of the dataset shown in the table 4.

Table 4: Sample Format of Dataset

Maithili Word	Meaning	Possible Sense
आगू(Aagu)	Front	Direction, Position
रोज(Roj)	Daily ,Employment	Time, Occupation
चक्कर	Circle , Trouble	Shape , Situation
जोर	Strength , Pair	Power , Quantity
हाथ	Hand, Help	Body Part, Assistance

Prepared dataset is supplied for training SVM model using cross validation. Features from the given set of context is extracted for each ambiguous word and predict sense for the word. Finally evaluation of the proposed model calculated and printed.
Experiments are done on the windows platform (Microsoft Windows 10 Pro) with Processor Intel(R) Core(TM) i5-6600K CPU @ 3.50GHz, 3504 Mhz, 4 Core(s), 4 Logical Processor(s) and Physical Memory (RAM) of 16.0 GB

IV. RESULT ANALYSIS

We have used total of 3550 Maithili sentences, out of which 67 unique words and 1027 unique word sense pair. Five most frequent ambiguous word in the dataset found are shown in the table 5.

Table 5: Most Frequent Ambigous Words

Frequent Word	No. of Sentences
'बहुत'	406 Sentences
'बहुत कम'	190 Sentences
'कम'	178 Sentences
'अधिक'	172 Sentences
'बहुत अधिक''	180 Sentences

We have tested proposed word sense disambiguation system for ambiguous words. Following are the result we have obtained using our WSD for Maithili language.

Word: आओर
Sentence: "हम आओर थोड़े समय रुकब।"
Actual sense: And Predicted sense: And
Translation: And
Sense probabilities:
And: 0.9300 look: 0.0300
tire: 0.0200
Distinguishing context words: हम, समय, णय, इस

Word: आओर

Sentence: "तुम आओर मेहनत करो, सफलता तुम्हारे पास होगी।"

Actual sense: More Predicted sense: More
Translation: More
Sense probabilities:
More: 0.6943 And: 0.2657
सफलता मिलेगी।: 0.0200
Distinguishing context words: सकत, कर, यह, अच

Word: आएल
Sentence: हम आएल घर पहुँच गेलहुँ।
Actual sense: Came Predicted sense: Came
Translation: Came
Sense probabilities:
Came: 0.8300 went: 0.1500
And: 0.0100
Distinguishing context words: और, हम, वह, सबक

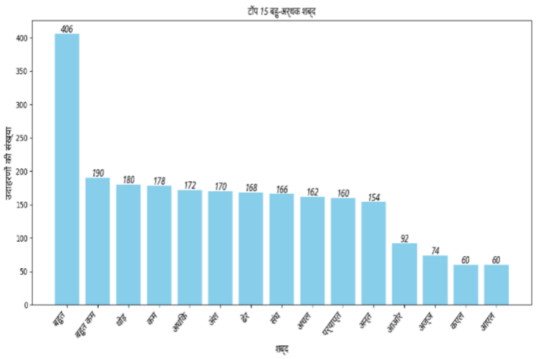
Word: आएल
Sentence: मेहमान गाँव में आइएल।
Actual sense: come Predicted sense: come
Translation: come
Sense probabilities:
come: 0.9200
books: 0.0200
day: 0.0200
Distinguishing context words: आइएल, हम, शह, वह

Word: अओताह
Sentence: वह अओताह जल्दी।
Actual sense: Will come Predicted sense: will come
Translation: will come
Sense probabilities:
will come: 0.4500 Will come: 0.4200
day: 0.0700
Distinguishing context words: अओत, खबर, कल, भर, समय

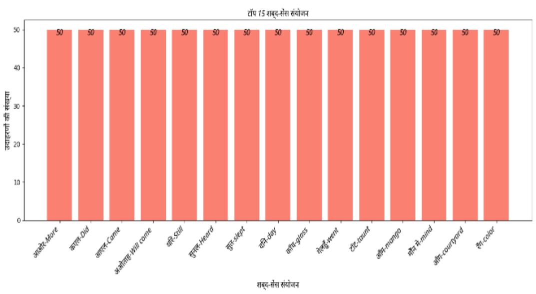
Word: अओताह
Sentence: वह कल गाँव अओताह।
Actual sense: will come Predicted sense: will come
Translation: will come
Sense probabilities:
will come: 0.8600 Will come: 0.0900
day: 0.0200
Distinguishing context words: अओत, खबर, कल, भर, समय

Word: थिर
Sentence: वह थिर खड़ा रहल।
Actual sense: Still Predicted sense: Still
Translation: Still
Sense probabilities:
Still: 0.9500 day: 0.0200
stiff: 0.0112
Distinguishing context words: रहल, खड़, हम, वह, और

Top 15 word-sense combination frequency is shown in the figure .



Most important features in classification is shown in the figure.



Overall accuracy of the model is 70

V. CONCLUSION

We have designed word sense disambiguation system for Maithili language using supervised machine learning algorithm SVM. There exist WSD for many Indian language but till now there is no work towards design and development of WSD for this language, very little work has been done in the field of Natural language processing for Maithili. Researcher's uses different methods such as rule based, statistical, machine learning, dictionary based and graph based e.t.c for the task. We have manually created dataset containing 3500 Maithili sentences for training the SVM model. Proposed model gives an accuracy of 70%. We have tested model for different Maithili words containing more than one meaning and mostly obtained correct sense for the ambiguous word. As there is no existing WSD system for the language, there is no question of comparing performance of the proposed model. Obtained accuracy can be improved further by increasing dataset size used for the training. Model can be used in developing other NLP applications like Question Answering System, Machine translation System, Parsing and many more.

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A Comparative Study of Black Box vs. White Box Testing Techniques

1st Swapnil Joshi
Assistant Professor
Department of Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University,Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
swaditi04@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Software testing is a cornerstone of software quality assurance, and among the many testing methodologies, black box and white box testing represent two fundamentally different approaches. This study provides a comprehensive comparative analysis of these techniques, emphasizing their definitions, key characteristics, testing strategies, advantages, and limitations. Black box testing focuses on evaluating a system's functionality from the user's perspective without any knowledge of its internal workings, making it ideal for functional, system, and acceptance testing. In contrast, white box testing requires deep understanding of the source code and internal structures, offering more rigorous code-level analysis, often applied in unit and integration testing. The paper discusses various techniques under each method, such as boundary value analysis, decision table testing for black box, and code coverage metrics for white box. It also explores when and how to employ each method effectively. The findings underscore that both techniques have unique strengths and are most effective.when used complementarity to ensure thorough and reliable software testing. This study highlights the importance of integrating both approaches to enhance software robustness, security, and user satisfaction.**

***Index Terms*—Software Testing, Black Box Testing, White Box Testing, Test Strategies, Software Quality Assurance**

I. Introduction

Software testing plays an indispensable role in the software development lifecycle (SDLC), acting as a critical gatekeeper to ensure that the final product meets the stringent demands for reliability, functionality, security, and overall quality. In an era marked by increasingly complex software systems that underpin various aspects of our lives and work, the necessity of employing effective testing methodologies has never been more pronounced. These methodologies provide structured approaches to verifying and validating software, ultimately contributing to user satisfaction and the integrity of the systems themselves. Among the diverse array of software testing techniques, black box testing and white box testing stand out as two fundamental and widely adopted approaches. These techniques represent distinct philosophies in how software is evaluated, each with its own set of principles, methodologies, and applications. This report aims to provide a comprehensive comparative study of these two essential testing techniques, delving into their definitions, key characteristics, various types, advantages, and disadvantages. By examining these facets, this study seeks to offer a thorough understanding of when and how to effectively apply each technique in the pursuit of high-quality software.

II. Defining Black Box Testing

Black box testing is a method of software evaluation that examines the functionality of an application without any knowledge of its internal code structure, implementation details, or internal workings. 1 In this approach, testers interact with the software's external interface, providing inputs and observing the outputs, much like an end-user would. 1 The system under test is essentially treated as a "black box", where the internal mechanisms and code are concealed from the tester. 1 The focus is solely on validating whether the software meets the specified requirements and functions as expected from an external perspective. This method is particularly useful for evaluating the functionality, security, performance, and usability of an application.

The core principle of black box testing lies in its emphasis on the user's viewpoint and the verification of functionality against established requirements, without necessitating an understanding of the underlying source code. 3 This approach allows individuals with diverse technical backgrounds to participate in the testing process, as the primary concern is the software's behavior as perceived by the end-user.

Black box testing is characterized by several key attributes that distinguish it from other testing methodologies:

- Independence from Code:
  A fundamental characteristic of black box testing is that testers do not require access to the software's source code, internal algorithms, or implementation details. 1 This separation between the testing team and the development team fosters an objective evaluation of the software. 1 Testers approach the application with a fresh perspective, simulating real user interactions without being influenced by the internal implementation specifics or potential developer assumptions. This independence can lead to the identification of issues that might be overlooked by individuals deeply involved in the code.
- Focus on Functionality:
  The central objective of black box testing is to verify

that the software functions as expected and adheres to the specified requirements. 1 This is achieved by concentrating on the external behavior of the application, mirroring how an end-user would interact with it. The emphasis on the user's perspective ensures that the testing process prioritizes the user experience, ultimately leading to software that is more intuitive, reliable, and aligned with user expectations.

- Requirements-Based Testing:
  Black box test cases are meticulously designed based on the software's requirements, specifications, and design parameters. 1 This ensures a direct correlation between the testing process and
  the intended functionality of the software as documented. By grounding test design in these external descriptions, testers can verify that the application behaves as anticipated according to the defined criteria, ensuring that all documented features are addressed during the testing process. This approach aids in identifying discrepancies between the actual software behavior and the expected behavior as outlined in the requirements.
- Applicability at Different Testing Levels:
  Black box testing demonstrates its versatility by being applicable across all levels of software testing, encompassing unit, integration, system, and acceptance testing. 1 This adaptability renders black box testing a valuable tool that can be employed throughout the SDLC to validate different aspects of the software at various stages of development.
- Focus on External Behavior:
  Black box testing fundamentally emphasizes evaluating the software's functionality from an end-user's perspective, concentrating on how the system behaves in response to different inputs and usage scenarios. 1 This approach directly mirrors how an end-user would interact with the application, making it highly effective in identifying issues related to usability, functionality, and overall user experience. By focusing on the observable behavior rather than the internal code, testers can ensure that the software behaves as expected from the user's standpoint.
- No Programming Knowledge Required for Testers:
  A significant advantage of black box testing is that it typically does not necessitate testers possessing deep technical knowledge or programming skills. 1 This characteristic broadens the scope of individuals who can participate in the testing process, including business analysts, end-users, and other non- technical stakeholders. It also potentially reduces the cost associated with hiring specialized testers with coding expertise.

III. Types of Black Box Testing Techniques

Black box testing encompasses a variety of techniques, each tailored to specific testing needs and scenarios:

- Boundary Value Analysis (BVA):
  This technique centers on testing the boundary values of input ranges, predicated on the observation that errors are more likely to occur at these limits. 1 Test cases are typically designed to include values at the minimum, just above the minimum, a nominal value, just below the maximum, and the maximum of each input range. 53 For instance, if a system accepts ages between 18 and 60, BVA would involve testing values like 17, 18, 30, 59, and 60. This technique proves effective in identifying errors related to the incorrect handling of edge cases and input limitations.
- Equivalence Partitioning:
  This technique involves dividing the input data into distinct groups or partitions, where all values within a specific group are expected to be processed by the software in a similar manner. 1 Testers then select one representative value from each valid and invalid partition to create test cases. 1 For example, when testing a field for age (18- 60), partitions could be ¡18, 18-60, and ¿60. This technique helps reduce the total number of test cases while still ensuring adequate test coverage by testing representative inputs from each group.
- State Transition Testing:
  This technique models the system's behavior as it transitions between different states based on various inputs or events. 1 Test cases are then designed to validate these state transitions. 1 This technique is particularly suitable for applications where the system's behavior is dependent on a sequence of events or previous states, such as testing the different states of a user login process (e.g., logged in, logged out, locked).
- Use Case Testing:
  In this approach, test cases are derived directly from use cases, which describe the system's behavior in response to specific user requests or needs. 1 By focusing on use cases, testers can ensure that the testing process covers real-world scenarios and user interactions, thereby validating that the software meets the user's goals and provides the expected functionality in practical usage scenarios. For instance, a use case for an e-commerce site might be "Purchase Item", and test cases would be designed to cover all the steps involved, from selecting an item to confirming the order.
- Error Guessing:
  This is an experience-based testing technique where testers leverage their existing knowledge and intuition to anticipate where errors might occur within the software. 1 Based on common mistakes, past experiences with similar software, and known problem areas, testers design test cases to specifically target these potential error-prone sections. 1 While this technique is subjective, it can be quite effective in uncovering unexpected issues, especially when performed by seasoned testers who have a deep understanding of software development pitfalls.

IV. Defining White Box Testing

White box testing is a software testing methodology that involves examining the internal structure, design, and coding

of an application. 3 In contrast to black box testing, where the tester has no knowledge of the application's internals, white box testing provides testers with complete knowledge, including access to the source code and design documents. 15 This method is also commonly referred to as clear box testing, glass box testing, transparent box testing, and structural testing, highlighting the tester's ability to ”see through” the software's outer layer and examine its inner workings. 15
The fundamental aspect of white box testing is the tester's access to and comprehension of the software's internal operations, enabling a thorough examination of the code. This knowledge allows for the creation of test cases that specifically target potential problem areas within the code. 92
White box testing is characterized by several key features:

- Knowledge of Codebase Required:
  A prerequisite for effective white box testing is that testers possess a deep understanding of the programming languages, code structure, algorithms, and implementation details of the software being tested. 15 This typically means that white box testing is conducted by developers or testers who have strong technical skills and a solid grasp of the software's architecture.
- Focus on Internal Structure: The testing process in white box methodology is primarily directed at the software's internal logic, structure, flow, and coding. 86 By examining the inner workings of the software, testers can identify structural problems, uncover hidden errors, and assess the efficiency of the code. This internal perspective allows for a detailed analysis of how inputs function within the code and how data flows through the program.
- Code Coverage Analysis:
  A significant aspect of white box testing often involves a thorough analysis of code coverage to pinpoint areas of the code that have not been adequately tested. 15 Various techniques, such as statement coverage, branch coverage, and path coverage, are employed to measure the extent to which the code is exercised by the test suite. 15 This emphasis on code coverage helps ensure that all parts of the software are tested, leading to a more thorough and reliable testing process.
- Early Bug Detection:
  White box testing plays a crucial role in the early detection of bugs and errors during the software development process. 15 Unit testing, a fundamental type of white box testing, is frequently performed by developers as they write the code. 15 Identifying and resolving bugs at these early stages is generally more efficient and less costly compared to addressing them later in the development lifecycle.
- Code Optimization Opportunities:
  Through the detailed examination of the code, white box testing can identify inefficient code segments, redundant code blocks, or areas where performance can be improved. 15 This capability allows developers to optimize the code for better performance, enhanced readability, and improved maintainability, ultimately leading to a more efficient and robust software product.
- Design Verification: White box testing also plays a crucial role in verifying that the code operates in accordance with the intended design and specifications. 87 By having full visibility into the code, testers can ensure that the implementation aligns with the architectural and design decisions made during the initial phases of software development. This helps in confirming that the software is built not only to meet the functional requirements but also to adhere to the planned structure and logic.

V. Types of White Box Testing Techniques

White box testing encompasses several techniques that focus on examining the internal aspects of the software:

- Statement Coverage:
  This is a fundamental technique that aims to ensure every executable statement within the code is executed at least once during the testing process. 15 While it's a basic form of coverage, it helps in identifying dead code and ensures a minimum level of testing has been performed on all parts of the program. For example, if a code has an if-else block, statement coverage would require test cases that execute statements within both the ”if” and ”else” parts.
- Branch Coverage (Decision Coverage):
  This technique goes a step further than statement coverage by ensuring that every possible branch or outcome of a decision point (like if-else statements, loops) in the code is executed at least once. 15 For an if-else block, branch coverage requires test cases that
  make the ”if” condition evaluate to both true and false, thus covering both execution paths. This provides a better level of testing than statement coverage as it ensures all possible control flows are exercised.
- Path Coverage:
  Considered one of the most comprehensive structural testing techniques, path coverage aims to test all possible execution paths through the code, from the entry point to the exit point. 15 This includes testing all combinations of branches, loops, and conditions. While it provides the highest level of assurance, achieving full path coverage can be impractical for complex programs due to the potentially large number of paths. Tools can be used to analyze the control flow of the code and identify the different paths that need to be tested.
- Condition Coverage:
  This technique focuses on testing all the individual logical conditions within decision statements for both true and false outcomes. 27 For a decision like if (a ¿ 0 & b = 5), condition coverage would require test cases to ensure that a ¡ 0 is true and false, and b = 5 is true and false, independently. This provides more detailed coverage than branch coverage for complex conditions.
- Loop Testing:
  This set of techniques is specifically designed to test the

functionality of loops within the code. 19 It involves testing loops for various scenarios, including when the loop is executed zero times, once, multiple times, and at its boundary conditions. For example, a loop that iterates a specific number of times should be tested to ensure it starts correctly, runs the correct number of iterations, and terminates as expected.

- Mutation Testing:
  This technique aims to evaluate the quality and effectiveness of the test suite by introducing small, artificial errors (mutations) into the code. 15 The idea is that if the existing test suite is robust, it should be able to detect these introduced errors (cause the mutated code to fail). If the tests pass even with the mutations, it indicates a weakness in the test suite, suggesting that it might not be effective enough at finding real bugs.

VI. Advantages and Disadvantages of Black Box Testing

Black box testing offers several benefits that make it a valuable approach in software testing:

- Independence from Code:
  One of the primary advantages is that testers do not need programming knowledge or access to the source code, allowing for an unbiased perspective on the software. 1 This separation fosters an objective evaluation, free from any preconceived notions based on the internal code structure.
- User Perspective:
  Black box tests are designed from the end-user's point of view, ensuring that the software meets the actual requirements and expectations of those who will use it. 1 This focus helps in identifying usability issues and ensures a better overall user experience.
- Suitable for Large Systems:
  Black box testing is often more efficient and practical for testing large and complex software systems where understanding the internal code might be overwhelming or time-prohibitive. 4 Testers can concentrate on the overall functionality and system behavior without needing to delve into the intricacies of the code.
- Early Stage Testing:
  Test cases for black box testing can be developed as soon as the software specifications are finalized. 1 This allows the testing process to commence early in the software development lifecycle, potentially leading to earlier detection of defects.
- Reflects User Experience:
  By simulating how an end-user would interact with the software, black box testing naturally aligns the testing focus with the user experience. 1 This approach helps in discovering issues that users are likely to encounter, directly impacting their satisfaction with the software.

Despite its advantages, black box testing also has certain limitations:

- Limited Code Coverage:
  A significant drawback is that black box testing may not explore all possible code paths or internal logic of the software. 1 This can result in certain defects, particularly those residing in less frequently used or complex code sections, remaining undetected.
- Potential Inefficiency:
  Without insight into the internal structure of the software, testers might unknowingly create redundant test cases that check the same functionality multiple times. 2 Conversely, they might also miss testing specific code paths that could have been easily identified with internal knowledge, leading to inefficiencies in the testing process.
- Difficulty Testing Complex Algorithms:
  Black box testing can be less effective at validating complex algorithms or intricate business logic that requires a deep understanding of the internal code. 1 These types of functionalities often necessitate a more detailed, code-level examination to ensure correctness.
- Dependence on Clear Requirements:
  The effectiveness of black box testing is heavily reliant on the clarity, accuracy, and completeness of the software requirements and specifications. 8 Vague, ambiguous, or incomplete requirements can lead to inadequate or misdirected testing efforts, potentially overlooking critical aspects of the software's intended behavior.
- May Overlook Errors in Specific Code Paths:
  Due to the lack of internal knowledge, black box testing might fail to identify errors that exist in specific code paths that are not directly triggered by typical user interactions. 12 This limitation underscores the need for complementary testing approaches that can delve into the internal workings of the software.

VII. Advantages and Disadvantages of White Box Testing

White box testing offers a distinct set of benefits that contribute to a more thorough and robust software testing process:

- Thorough Code Coverage:
  A significant advantage of white box testing is its potential to achieve comprehensive code coverage. 15 By examining the internal structure of the code, testers can ensure that every statement, branch, and path is tested at least once, leading to a higher likelihood of uncovering hidden defects.
- Early Bug Detection:
  White box testing facilitates the identification and resolution of bugs and issues at the early stages of software development. 15 Techniques like unit testing, which fall under the umbrella of white box testing, are often performed by developers as they write the code, allowing for immediate feedback and quicker fixes.
- Identification of Structural Defects:
  This methodology enables the identification of structural problems within the software, including hidden errors,

inefficient or broken paths, and issues with specific components. 15 By analyzing the code's architecture and logic, testers can gain insights into potential design flaws and areas for improvement.

- Code Optimization:
  White box testing provides opportunities for code optimization by identifying inefficient code segments, redundant code blocks, or areas where performance can be enhanced. 15 This can lead to more efficient software in terms of execution speed and resource utilization.
- Facilitates Thorough Testing:
  The in-depth knowledge of the code allows testers to create more effective and comprehensive test cases that can cover all possible execution paths and scenarios. 87 This thoroughness increases the likelihood of uncovering even the smallest errors that might go unnoticed with other testing methods.
- Improved Security:
  White box testing plays a crucial role in enhancing software security by enabling testers to examine the code for potential security vulnerabilities, such as SQL injection flaws, buffer overflows, and other security threats. 15 Identifying these vulnerabilities early in the development process allows for timely remediation, leading to more secure software.

However, white box testing also presents certain challenges and disadvantages:

- Complexity:
  White box testing can be a very complex and costly endeavor, particularly for large and intricate software applications. 12 The time and resources required to thoroughly analyze the code and create comprehensive test cases can be substantial.
- Need for Technical Expertise:
  Performing white box testing effectively requires testers to have a strong programming background and a deep understanding of the software's internal code and logic. 4 This requirement can limit the pool of individuals qualified to conduct this type of testing.
- Potential Bias:
  Testers who are familiar with the code's internal workings might develop a biased perspective and inadvertently overlook certain types of errors, assuming that specific sections of the code are error-free. 19 This familiarity can sometimes hinder the objectivity of the testing process.
- Inability to Detect Missing Functionality:
  White box testing, by its very nature, focuses on testing the code that has been implemented. 15 Consequently, it cannot identify missing functionalities or requirements that were not included in the code in the first place.
- Time-Consuming:
  Achieving thorough white box testing, especially aiming for high levels of code coverage, can be a significantly time- consuming process, particularly for applications with large and complex codebases. 4 This can impact project timelines and require careful planning and resource allocation.
- May Disregard User Experience:
  The primary focus of white box testing on the internal code structure and logic might lead to overlooking usability issues and the overall user experience from an end-user's perspective. 19 Therefore, it is often necessary to complement white box testing with black box testing techniques to ensure a satisfactory user experience.

VIII. Comparative Analysis: Black Box vs. White Box Testing

Black box and white box testing represent two distinct yet complementary approaches to software evaluation. They differ significantly in their focus, the knowledge required by the tester, the extent of test coverage, the effort involved, and their suitability for various testing levels. 1
The fundamental difference lies in their approach:

black box testing treats the software as an opaque entity, focusing on its external behavior and functionality as perceived by the user, while white box testing delves into the software's internal structure, examining its code, logic, and implementation. This distinction dictates the type of knowledge required by the testers. For black box testing, no understanding of the internal code is necessary; testers primarily rely on the software's specifications and requirements. Conversely, white box testing demands a deep understanding of the programming languages, code structure, and algorithms used in the software's development.
In terms of test coverage, white box testing has the potential to be more comprehensive, aiming to cover all executable paths, statements, and conditions within the code. Techniques like statement coverage, branch coverage, and path coverage are used to measure the extent to which the code has been tested. Black box testing, on the other hand, is limited to the functionality that is observable through the software's interface and may not explore all possible code paths, potentially leaving certain defects undetected.
The effort required for each type of testing also differs. Black box testing is generally less time- consuming and can be easier to automate, particularly for user interface testing. White box testing, due to its need for code analysis and the creation of detailed test cases to cover various code paths, is often more time-consuming and challenging to automate.
Finally, their suitability varies across different testing levels. Black box testing is commonly employed for system testing, acceptance testing, and functional testing, where the focus is on validating the overall functionality from a user's perspective. White box testing is more prevalent in unit testing, integration testing, and code-level testing, where the goal is to ensure the correctness and efficiency of the code's internal workings.

IX. Conclusion

In summary, black box testing and white box testing represent two fundamentally different yet equally important approaches to software testing. Black box testing operates from the outside in, focusing on validating the functionality and user experience based on requirements, without any knowledge of the underlying code. In contrast, white box testing takes an inside-out approach, examining the internal structure, logic, and code to ensure its correctness and efficiency.

The analysis clearly indicates the complementary nature of these two testing techniques. 1 While black box testing excels at identifying functional and usability defects from the user's perspective, white box testing is crucial for uncovering structural defects, logic errors, security vulnerabilities, and ensuring comprehensive code coverage. Employing both techniques in a balanced and integrated manner provides a more holistic and robust approach to software quality assurance, maximizing the chances of identifying a wide range of defects and ultimately leading to the delivery of high-quality software products.

Ultimately, the decision of when and how to apply each testing technique should be a strategic one, carefully considering the specific goals, constraints, and the phase of the software development project. A well-thought-out testing strategy that leverages the strengths of both black box and white box testing is essential for ensuring the reliability, security, and overall success of any software endeavor.

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Advancing Rainfall Prediction in India Using Machine Learning: A Comparative Study of 2024 Models

1st Apurva Omer
Department of Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
apurva.omer@meu.edu.in

2nd Prof. Dr. B.K. Sharma
Department of Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
dr.balkrishnasharma@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—Rainfall prediction plays a critical role in agriculture, disaster management, and water resource planning—especially in a climate-sensitive country like India. With the evolution of artificial intelligence (AI), machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) techniques have increasingly been adopted to enhance the accuracy and reliability of weather forecasting. This study presents a comparative analysis of five prominent rainfall prediction models developed in India in 2024, focusing on diverse geographical regions such as Mumbai, Odisha, Gujarat, and northern India, as well as nationwide monsoon forecasting.**

The models evaluated include traditional ML algorithms (Random Forest, XGBoost, CatBoost), deep learning architectures (CNN, ConvLSTM), physics-informed neural networks, and the emerging use of Large Language Models (LLMs) like PatchTST. Performance metrics such as R^2 score, accuracy, and correlation coefficients are analyzed to assess predictive strength. The study also explores the integration of multi-source data, including satellite imagery, radar data, meteorological indices, and ground observations.

Results reveal that deep learning and hybrid approaches outperform classical methods in handling spatiotemporal complexity and long-term forecasting, while regional customization significantly enhances practical applicability. The findings emphasize the growing maturity of AI-driven weather prediction systems in India and highlight the potential of LLMs and physics-aware models to set new benchmarks in meteorological modeling.

***Index Terms*—Machine Learning Algorithms, Deep Learning, Neural Networks, Rainfall Prediction**

I. Introduction

Rainfall forecasting is an essential component of climate resilience, particularly in a country like India, where agriculture, urban infrastructure, and disaster preparedness are deeply intertwined with weather patterns. The monsoon season alone contributes to over 70% of the country's annual precipitation, making accurate rainfall prediction a national priority. However, the highly nonlinear and spatiotemporally dynamic nature of atmospheric systems poses a significant challenge for conventional forecasting methods.

In recent years, the adoption of machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) techniques has revolutionized the way meteorological data is analyzed and interpreted. These models have demonstrated a remarkable ability to capture complex patterns in large-scale climate datasets, offering improvements in both short-term and seasonal forecasting accuracy. The year 2024 has seen a surge in India-specific research focusing on the integration of ML/DL algorithms with domain-specific knowledge and real-time meteorological inputs.

Rainfall forecasting has witnessed a transformational change with the integration of machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) models, enabling more accurate and localized predictions. Recent studies have explored various methods, ranging from hybrid models to deep neural networks tailored for specific regions across India.

Devda et al. [1] introduced a physics informed ConvLSTM2D model to enhance the spatial and temporal resolution for rainfall prediction in Mumbai, showing improved forecast accuracy through the fusion of physical knowledge and DL architecture. Similarly, Trivedi et al. [2] used a deep neural network to forecast rainfall at the district level in eastern India, which outperformed traditional statistical methods in short-term predictions.

Sharma et al. [3] conducted a comparative analysis of various ML models for daily and weekly forecasts for the 2024 all-India summer monsoon forecast. [4] highlighted the trade-offs between model complexity and accuracy.

Baudhanwala et al. [5] focused on the Ambika river basin, applying ML techniques to improve rainfall forecasts, particularly in hydrologically sensitive areas. Poornima and Pushpalata [6] proposed a deep LSTM model with weighted linear units, which achieved improved temporal learning for rainfall sequences.

In agricultural contexts, Ray et al. [7] applied time-delay wavelet neural networks (TDWNN) to assess agro-meteorological risks, emphasizing the importance of accurate rainfall prediction in farming practices. Mishra and Singh [8] integrated both ANN and ML models and [10] proposed a hybrid model for multi-stage forecasting in Northeast India, which demonstrated high efficiency in capturing complex rainfall patterns. Hill et al. [11] addressed intra-seasonal rainfall variability during the Indian monsoon using ML models, showing their efficient prediction capabilities at short time scales. Sharma et al. [12] extended forecasting to elevation gradients in the Himalayas, proving the adaptability of DL methods across diverse terrains. Gupta et al. [13] conducted a comparative ML study for India-wide rainfall forecasting, identifying Random Forest and LSTM as top performers across different contexts. Verma et al. [14] introduced a combined ML technique, [16] applied DL to radar data for near-real-time forecasting, thereby pushing the frontier for operational forecasting systems. Collectively, these studies highlight the growing sophistication and adaptability of ML/DL approaches in rainfall forecasting, each of which provides unique insights into improving spatial resolution, temporal accuracy, and operational efficiency in climate forecasting.This study aims to comparatively evaluate five state-of-the-art rainfall prediction models developed in 2024, each applied to different Indian regions and forecasting timeframes. The models span a spectrum of AI approaches, including traditional ensemble ML algorithms (Random Forest, XGBoost, CatBoost), advanced neural networks (CNN, ConvLSTM), and newer architectures such as PatchTST—a large language model tailored for time series prediction. These models utilize a wide array of input data, from ground station observations to satellite and radar imagery, and climate indices such as the All India Summer Monsoon Rainfall (AISMR).

By analyzing the accuracy, generalizability, data integration strategies, and application-specific outcomes of these models, this paper seeks to highlight key innovations and practical implications of AI-powered rainfall forecasting in India. The objective is not only to assess performance but also to provide insights into how these models can be scaled, localized, and integrated into national weather systems for more informed decision-making across sectors.

The main findings of all the research papers on rainfall forecasting models using machine learning are shown in Table 1 after review:

No.	Title	ML Technique(s)	Key Findings
1	*Enhanced Precision in Rainfall Forecasting for Mumbai*	Physics-Informed ConvLSTM2D	Achieved improved 6–12 hour short-term rainfall prediction with high spatial and temporal resolution. Integration of physics into ML enhanced accuracy.
2	*Improving Rainfall Forecast at the District Scale Over the Eastern Indian Region*	Deep Neural Networks (MLP, CNN)	Deep learning models improved cumulative rainfall prediction accuracy to >80%, outperforming traditional ML methods.
3	*Large Language Model Predicts Above Normal All India Summer Monsoon Rainfall in 2024*	PatchTST (LLM for time series)	Achieved Spearman correlation of 0.976 for predicting All India Summer Monsoon Rainfall (AISMR). Successfully predicted above-normal monsoon (921.6 mm).
4	*Comparative Study of ML Models for Daily & Weekly Rainfall Forecasting*	XGBoost, CatBoost, Random Forest	XGBoost showed top performance with $R^2 = 0.99$ for weekly forecasts. Ensemble models proved highly effective.
5	*ML Approaches for Precipitation Forecasting in Ambica River Basin*	Multiple ML algorithms	ML models enhanced rainfall prediction for better water resource management in Gujarat's Ambica basin. Emphasized regional customization.

Table 1: Key Findings of all five papers

Comparative Analysis: The studies range from urban area like Mumbai to national-level, with others targeting district-level in Odisha and river basin areas Navsari District of Gujarat. This study shows a inclusive applicability of ML in rainfall prediction across organizational and ecological regions in India.

Strong usage of Deep Learning in 3 papers, while Paper 1 usage ConvLSTM for spatiotemporal forecasting. In Paper 2 CNN + MLP usage for district-level forecasts. Paper 3 adapted thePatchTST, a large language model (LLM) for climate forecasting. Papers 4 and 5 focused more on traditional ML approaches. As data point Papers 1 and 3 use complex, multi-dimensional datasets allowing them to model finer nuances. In Papers 2, 4, and 5 use more localized or simplified datasets, making them more feasible for local agencies. All five papers reported high accuracy in rainfall prediction. Below table 2 show the analysis the all five rainfall prediction research papers:

Feature	Paper 1	Paper 2	Paper 3	Paper 4	Paper 5
Location	Mumbai, Maharashtra	Odisha (Eastern India)	All India	Northern India	Navsari District, Gujarat
Goal	Short-term rainfall forecasting (6–12 hours)	District-level rainfall improvement	Long-lead monsoon prediction	Compare ML models for short/mid-term rainfall	Enhance basin-level rainfall forecast
ML Techniques Used	Physics-Informed ConvLSTM2D	CNN, MLP (Deep Learning)	PatchTST (Time-Series LLM)	XGBoost, CatBoost, Random Forest	Multiple ML algorithms
Accuracy / Metrics	High resolution spatial-temporal forecasts	>80% accuracy in cumulative rainfall	Spearman correlation = 0.976	XGBoost $R^2 = 0.99$ (weekly)	Not explicitly mentioned
Data Used	Real-time meteorological & radar data	District-level rainfall data	Historical AISMR + oceanic indices	Daily & weekly rainfall datasets	Basin-specific rainfall data
Innovation / Highlights	Integration of physical laws into ML model	Deep learning outperforms traditional ML	Early, accurate national-level monsoon prediction	Ensemble model effectiveness comparison	Localized prediction aiding water management
Best Use Case	Urban flood forecasting	Rural/agricultural planning	Policy-level monsoon preparedness	Model benchmarking	River basin management & irrigation planning

Results and Analysis: following table 3 show the model and accuracy of all five papers:

Paper	Model Type	Reported Accuracy
Paper 1	Physics-Informed ConvLSTM	High-resolution hourly forecasts, strong precision
Paper 2	CNN + MLP	80%+ classification accuracy
Paper 3	PatchTST (LLM)	Spearman Correlation: 0.976
Paper 4	XGBoost, RF, CatBoost	$R^2 = 0.99$ (weekly forecast)
Paper 5	ML Ensemble (unspecified)	Qualitative improvement in seasonal planning

II. Analysis

- In above table Papers 1, 3, and 4 demonstrated the strongest numerical accuracy, making them suitable for operational integration.
- Paper 1 and 2 use for short term prediction like hourly or daily.
- They also use for flash flood alerts.
- Paper 4 scope for weekly prediction.
- For Seasonal or long-term prediction use paper 3 and 4 model.
- Paper 1 and 2 Short-range models are ideal for disaster mitigation, while seasonal predictions guide agriculture.
- Papers 1 and 2 deal with local solutions, offering modified models for high-impact areas.
- Paper 3 offers broad scalability, helping forecast macro rainfall behaviour.
- Combines physics-based weather modeling with deep learning (ConvLSTM) algorithm use in paper 1.
- In Paper 2 Uses multi-layered neural networks to refine district-level predictions.
- While Paper 3Implements Large Language Models (LLMs) (PatchTST).
- Traditional ML models use in paper 4 and 5.
- All Papers using multi-source or gridded datasets for their models.

III. Summary

These five studies show that India is at the forefront of applying ML/DL to climate modeling, from city-scale rainfall prediction to seasonal monsoon forecasts. The work demonstrates how regional data, algorithm choice, and application context determine the most suitable approach. Together, they highlight a clear trend: the future of rainfall prediction is AI-powered, data-rich, and application-oriented.

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Swarm Intelligence Algorithms for Load Balancing in Cloud Computing

1st Gayatri
M.Tech. Scholar
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Madhyapradesh, India
gayatridhakad599@gmail.com

2nd Dr. Harish Patidar
Associate Professor
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Madhyapradesh, India
harish.patidar@gmail.com

3rd Prabhat Kumar Singh
Assistant Professor
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Madhyapradesh, India
prabhatprobable@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Cloud computing is the delivery of computing resources, like servers, storage, databases, networking, software, and analytics, over the internet (the "cloud") on demand, allowing users to access and utilize them without needing to manage the underlying infrastructure. Load balancing is the process of distributing traffic among multiple servers to improve a service or application's performance and reliability. it is scale up and scale down capacity with the help of cloud computing. Cloud providers offer load balancing services that can be integrated with swarm environments. This paper provides a survey of load balancing algorithms inspired by swarm intelligence (SI). The algorithms considered in the discussion are Genetic Algorithm, BAT Algorithm, Ant Colony, Grey Wolf, Artificial Bee Colony, Particle Swarm, Whale optimization, cat swarm optimization , and Lion Optimization Algorithm. An analysis of the main objectives, area of applications, and targeted issues of each algorithm (with advancements) is presented. In addition, performance analysis has been performed based on average response time, data center processing time, and other quality parameters.**

***Index Terms*—Cloud computing, Load balancing, Swarm-Optimization, Meta-heuristic, Bio-inspired Algorithm**

I. Introduction

Cloud computing is the on-demand delivery of IT resources over the Internet with pay-as-you-go pricing. you can access services, such as computing power, storage, and databases,networking, software, and analytics, over the internet (the "cloud") on demand, offering flexibility, scalability, and cost-effectiveness. on an as-needed basis from a cloud provider like Amazon Web Services ,Microsoft(Azure),GCP (Google Cloud Platform).when you use Gmail, Google Drive, you are using cloud computing. Your emails, documents, and movies are not stored on your device they are stored on the provider's remote servers and accessed via the internet.You can access these resources as needed, without having to buy, own, or manage physical infrastructure.The cloud has three service models like Software as a Service (Saas), Platform as a Service (Paas) and Infrastructure as a Service (SaaS) and the cloud has four deployment models namely: public, private, hybrid and community.Load balancing is the process of distributing traffic among multiple servers to improve a service or application's performance and reliability. it is scale up and scale down capacity with the help of cloud computing. Cloud providers offer load balancing services that can be integrated with swarm environments.The benefits of cloud computing include lower costs, the ability to quickly increase or decrease resources, access from anywhere with internet, and improved reliability. However, there are concerns about security, privacy, and becoming dependent on specific cloud providers.

According to the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST), cloud computing is a model for enabling convenient, on-demand network access to a shared pool of configurable computing resources that can be rapidly provisioned and released with minimal management effort. NIST defines cloud computing through five essential characteristics:

On-demand self-service: Users can access computing capabilities automatically without human interaction. Broad network access: Services are available over the network through standard mechanisms. Resource pooling: Provider's resources serve multiple consumers using a multi-tenant model. Rapid elasticity: Resources can be quickly scaled up or down to match demand. Measured service: Resource usage is monitored, controlled, and reported transparently.

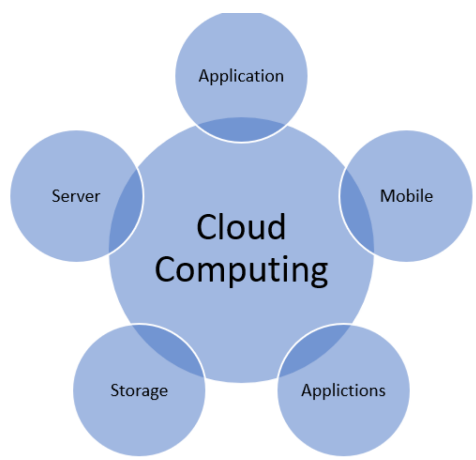

Fig. 1. Diagram for cloud computing

Fig. 1 The diagram illustrates cloud computing architecture and deployment models. It shows a central ”Cloud Computing” hub connected to multiple components.The diagram effectively shows how various technology components connect to cloud computing and the different implementation models available for cloud infrastructure.

II. Literature Review

S. periyanatchi et. al. (2020) proposed a lion optimization algorithm for an efficient cloud computing expanded security level and execution improvement.Kethavath prem kumar et. al. (2020) They are using Papulation generation and fitness function Both researchers using Rosenbrock function in LOA its define fitness value of both resident and nomed function both researchers showed approximately 20 reduction energy consumption.Kumar surjeet chaudhury et. al. (2021) they proposed algorithm consists of six different phases such as pre-refuse phase, initialization phase, searching phase, particle swarm optimization phase, assessment phase, pheromone updating phase.They are analyzing the performance of the algorithm the metrics such as maxspan, energy utilization and standard deviation are used in different task request and virtual machine scenarios.wang Dau (2023) presented load balancing in cloud cat swarm optimization using novel load balancing in the CSO algorithm distributed load among systems in a data center exhibits superior performance to in terms of energy consumption, makespan and time required by approximately 30, 35 and 40 also scalability and adaptability is highly require in large cloud environment. Ravinder Bathini et. al. (2023)They are using hybrid load-balancing and task-scheduling approaches in cloud computing, combining the Whale Optimization Algorithm (WOA) and Seagull Optimization Algorithm (SOA). The proposed Whale-Seagull Optimization Algorithm (WSOA) enhances the cloud . The results were the utilization of resources, response time, execution time,reliability, throughput, and processing time, and the proposed method achieves 12 ms response time, 81 ms execution time, 98 resource utilization, 69 reliability, and 82 throughput.Dr. R. Kaviarasan et. al. (2023) They proposed Bio-Inspired Improved Lion Optimization Meta-Heuristic Approach to tackle load balancing in cloud computing. This method demonstrates superior exploration and exploitation capabilities compared to other bio-inspired algorithms, effectively avoiding local optima during the search process for identifying underutilized nodes. J. Robert Adaikalaraj et. al. (2023) Developed to improve performance in cloud environment and predict VM categorization and Machine Learning algorithm they give data center utilization was greater than that of other methods, reaching nearly 80, VM migration was decreased 94.5 reduced data center energy consumption was 49.13. Darakhshan Syed et. al. (2024) Presented PSO is a great method for balancing workloads in cloud systems. However, it still has some limitations, particularly when applied to large and complex setups. There's room for improvement, and more research is needed to fully explore its potential in such scenarios.

III. Algorithm used for Load Balancing in Cloud

A. Whale Optimization Algorithm

The Whale Optimization Algorithm (WOA) is a metaheuristic optimization algorithm inspired by the hunting behavior of humpback whales, particularly their ”bubble-net” foraging technique, and aims to find optimal solutions by simulating encircling, spiral updating, and searching for prey. WOA is based on the observation that humpback whales use a ”bubble-net” foraging strategy to capture prey, which involves encircling prey, forming a spiral path around it, and then searching for prey. WOA has been used in various optimization problems, machine learning models. WOA [1], [3] is known for easy to use , easy to understand and better performance. Like other metaheuristic algorithms, WOA can sometimes get stuck in local optima and may require tuning of parameters for optimal performance. Several enhanced versions of WOA have been proposed to address its limitations, such as incorporating crossover and mutation operators, or using a hybrid approach with other algorithms.

B. Seagull Optimization Algorithm

The Seagull Optimization Algorithm (SOA) is a metaheuristic algorithm inspired by the migrating and hunting behavior of seagulls, designed to solve continuous real-life problems by simulating their long-distance migration and foraging attacks. SOA [1] mimics the natural behaviors of seagulls, specifically their long-distance migration and foraging (hunting) tactics. It's a metaheuristic algorithm, meaning it's a general-purpose optimization technique used to find the best solution to a problem within a given search space. The algorithm simulates the long-distance migration behavior of seagulls to explore the search space effectively. It mimics the foraging attack behavior of seagulls to exploit promising regions of the search space. There are also binary versions of SOA, which are designed to solve discrete problems. .

C. Whale Seagull Optimization Algorithm

The ”whale-seagull optimization algorithm” (WSOA) is a hybrid optimization algorithm that combines the Whale Optimization Algorithm (WOA) [1], [5] and the Seagull Optimization Algorithm (SOA) to improve global optimization performance. It leverages the shrinking encircling mechanism of WOA and the spiral attack behaviors of SOA.WOA mimics the hunting behavior of humpback whales, which include encircling prey, bubble-net attack[3], and searching for prey. WSOA combines the strengths of WOA and SOA to enhance global optimization capabilities. Improved local and global search ability a hybrid whale optimization with seagull algorithm for global optimization problems.

D. Cat Swarm Optimization Algorithm

Cat Swarm Optimization (CSO) [5] is a swarm-based metaheuristic algorithm inspired by the behaviors of cats, particularly their resting and tracing behaviors, to find optimal solutions to problems. It comprises two modes: tracing (local search) and seeking (global exploration). CSO is inspired by the way cats rest, observe their surroundings, and then quickly move towards a target when they see one. CSO has been applied to various optimization problems, including task scheduling in cloud computing and parameter estimation.

E. Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) Algorithm

Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) is a population-based metaheuristic algorithm inspired by the social behavior of birds flocking or fish schooling, used to find the optimal solution to a problem. It simulates the movement of particles in a search space, with each particle [6]representing a potential solution, and the particles iteratively update their positions based on their own best position and the best position found by the swarm.

F. Bird Swarm Optimization

Bird Swarm Algorithm (BSA [2]), is proposed for solving optimization applications. BSA is based on the intelligence of the swarm extracted from the social behaviors and social interactions in bird swarms. Birds mainly have three kinds of behaviours: foraging behaviour, vigilance behaviour and flight behaviour. Birds may forage for food and escape from the predators by the social interactions to obtain a high chance of survival.

G. Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) Algorithm

Ant Colony Optimization (ACO) [3] is a nature-inspired, probabilistic algorithm used to solve computational and optimization problems by mimicking the foraging behavior of ant colonies, where artificial ants construct solutions guided by pheromone trails and heuristic information. ACO is inspired by the way real ants find the shortest paths between their nest and food sources by laying down pheromone trails.

H. Artificial Bee Colony (ABC) Algorithm

The Artificial Bee Colony (ABC) [10], [11]algorithm is a meta-heuristic optimization algorithm inspired by the foraging behavior of honeybees, used to find optimal solutions to various problems. It simulates a bee colony searching for food sources, with bees representing agents that explore and exploit solutions.

I. BAT Algorithm

The Bat Algorithm (BA) [2] is a metaheuristic optimization algorithm inspired by the echolocation behavior of bats, designed for global optimization problems, using a swarm of ”virtual bats” that mimic the way bats find prey and navigate by emitting and listening for sound waves.BA mimics how bats use echolocation to find prey and navigate, sending out sound pulses and interpreting the echoes to locate obstacles and food sources.

J. Algorithm used by load balancing

1. S. Periyanatchi et. al.(2020) Lion Optimization Algorithm Security level and execution improvement 2. Kethavath PremKumar(2020) Lion Optimization Algorithm approximately 20 reduction energy consumption

3. Kumar Surjeet Chaudhury et.al.(2021) Particle Optimization Algorithm Energy utilization and standard deviation are used in different task request and virtual machine scenarios

4. Wang Dau(2023) Cat Optimization Algorithm Approximately 30, 35 and 40 also scalability and adaptability is highly require in large cloud environment

5.Ravinder Bathini et. al.(2023) Whale Optimization Algorithm (WOA) and Seagull Optimization Algorithm (SOA) Proposed method achieves 12 ms response time, 81 ms execution time, 98 resource utilization, 69 reliability, and 82 throughput

6.J. Robert Adaikalaraj et.al.(2023) Predict VM categorization and Machine Learning algorithm, Given data center utilization was greater than that of other methods, reaching nearly 80, VM migration was decreased 94.5 reduced data center energy consumption was 49.

7.Kousik Dasgupta et. al.(2023) Genetic Algorithm,GA has been used however variation of the crossover and selection strategies

8. Darakhshan Syed et. al.(2024),Particle Optimization Algorithm, Some limitations, particularly when applied to large and complex setups

IV. LOAD BALANCING IN CLOUD

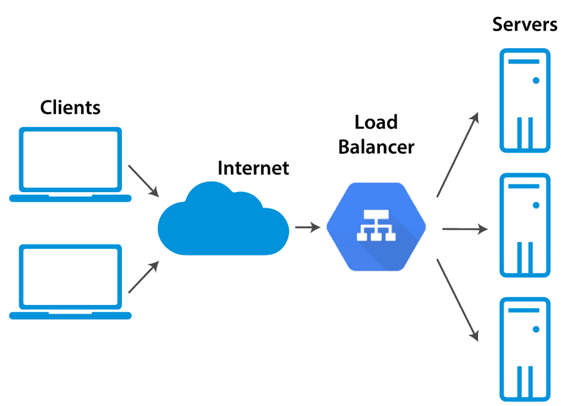

Fig. 2. Load balancing with cloud computing

Fig. 2 This picture shows how cloud computing works in simple terms. On the left are regular computers (clients) that people use. These computers connect to the internet (shown as a blue cloud). When people request something, the internet sends these requests to a special system called a load balancer. The load balancer’s job is to share the work evenly among several servers on the right. This way, no single server gets too busy, and everyone gets faster service. It’s like having multiple checkout lanes at a store to handle customers more efficiently.

Load balancing involves balancing and transferring workload overload nodes that are loaded under the load node to effectively use resources to improve overall system performance drying.Load balancing is to ensure that each processor in the system can do the same amount of work at any time. An important issue here is deciding how to achieve a balanced load distribution between processors to complete processing in the shortest amount of time. It is the most important in distributed computing systems. It improves quality of supply through handling changes in load over time. Lead to improved system performance. Incoming jobs are best distributed across system resources which are available to avoid resources problems and make better use of available resources. The balancing of load is a technique of balancing loads across various processing units in the cloud system to promote enhanced performance and satisfaction for users.Load balancing plays an significant role in delivering high-end performance to the end users.Assigning the right amount of work is very important for handling otherwise. Resource request. It is often the case that some processing nodes have multiple requests with high load, while other processing units are lightly loaded with service requests. In order to deal with this situation, a load balancing strategy must be implemented to improve user satisfaction and reliability. System performance solutions that use only this load balancing strategy can solve many problems.

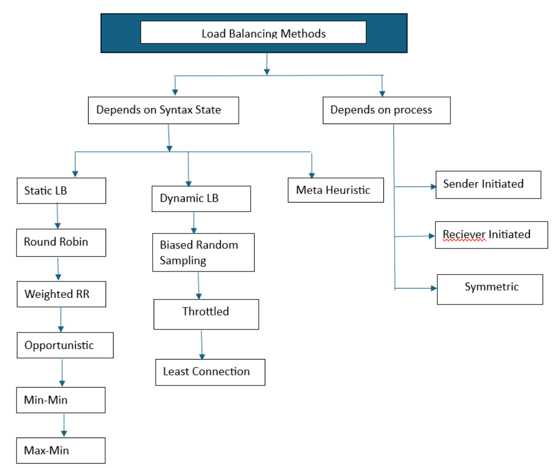

Fig. 3. Load balancing classification

Fig.3 This diagram shows different ways to balance computer workloads. The top part splits load balancing into two main categories: methods that depend on "Syntax State" (left side) and methods that depend on "process" (right side). On the left side, there are three approaches: Static LB: Uses fixed rules like Round Robin (taking turns), Weighted RR (giving some servers more turns), Opportunistic (using available servers), Min-Min (assigning small tasks first), and Max-Min (handling big tasks first). Dynamic LB: Changes based on current conditions, using methods like Biased Random Sampling (choosing servers with probability), Throttled (limiting requests), and Least Connection (picking servers with fewest users). Meta Heuristic: Uses smart algorithms to find good solutions.

On the right side are three process-based approaches:

Sender Initiated: The sender decides where to send work
Receiver Initiated: Servers ask for work when they're available
Symmetric: Both sides can initiate the process

These methods help distribute work efficiently across multiple computers, making systems faster and more reliable.

A. *Types of Load Balancing*

- Static Load Balancing: In the Static algorithm, information around the job request and available resources needs to be known in advance before the job is executed. The workload transfer is independent of the existing state and the system does not occur during the processing of the request. In this type of load balancing algorithm assumes that a previous knowledge about all characteristics of the job, computing node, and communications N/W is as we all know.
- Dynamic Load Balancing: These types of algorithms are those algorithms that find the lightest servers in the network and then specify the convenient workload on them. Here, the workload is distributed between processors at runtime. Such algorithms are considered complex but have better fault tolerance and overall performance. The dynamic load balancing algorithmic rules tries to use runtime state data to form a lot of data concerning the choice to share the system load.

B. *Parameters for Load Balancing:*

Parameters for Load Balancing: The Performance Matrices of Load balancing in cloud computing are following them: 1. Response Time 2. Migration Time 3. Resource Utilization 4. Availability 5. Throughput

- Response Time: It is the time to response through a specific load balancing algorithm meter in the distributive system. This parameter should be reduced as much as possible.This refers to the time taken in execution of client requests. Unit for measuring response time second.
- Migration Time: Time taken for migrating client requests between different processing units. This parameter defines how much time transfers the workloads of one virtual machine to another virtual machine under overload or load conditions. It is measuring in seconds and help to evaluate performance. It is measured in seconds.
- Resource Utilization: It's is used for checking the use of re-sources. It should be optimized for the efficient load balancing. Static load balancing algorithms have lowest resource utilization because only static load balancing methods are attempted assign tasks to processors for

minimization response time ignores facts assigned using this task may cause some processors to complete work early and idle due to lack jobs. It is measured as a percentage to determine what use CPU, memory or disk memory as a percentage.

- Availability: Discovering availability is very important parameter for load balancing. It determines availability of a system for performing job request.
- Throughput: It is used to calculate no. Perform the completed task. Improve system performance should be high. It is measured in byte/second.

V. Future Work

- Integration with Containerization Technologies: Exploring the use of swarm intelligence for optimizing the placement and scaling of containers (e.g., Docker, Kubernetes) across a cluster of nodes to achieve efficient resource utilization and load balancing.
- Hybridization with Other Techniques: Combining swarm intelligence algorithms with other optimization techniques (e.g., genetic algorithms, machine learning)

VI. Conclusion

Load balancing is a technique that distributes network traffic across multiple servers to improve application performance, reliability, and availability by preventing any single server from becoming overloaded. Load balancing is a technique that distributes network traffic across multiple servers to improve application performance, reliability, and availability by preventing any single server from becoming overloaded.Swarm optimization, inspired by the collective behavior of swarms in nature (like bees, ants, or birds), provides a smart way to achieve efficient load balancing. Swarm optimization approaches load balancing by depending on a group of independent ”agents” or ”particles,” alike how bees in a hive or birds in a flock coordinate their behavior. Each agent independently investigates different methods to distribute tasks, striving to identify the most effective solution. at the same time, their true strength lies in collaboration. These agents regularly share insights and updates about their findings and successful strategies with others in the ”swarm.” This ongoing exchange of information fosters collective learning and adaptation, enabling the group to successively refine its approach and converge toward a highly efficient load balancing solution.

The integration of swarm optimization techniques into load balancing ensures a dynamic, adaptable, and efficient way of managing resources in complex scenario. It takes inspiration from nature’s ability to function balanced and applies it to technology, resulting in systems that can effectively handle switch workloads, improve performance, and minimize downtime. This combination ultimately contributes to more robust and flexible computing environments, making swarm optimization a vital approach in modern load balancing scenarios.

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A Parts of Speech Tagger for Maithili Language using Artificial Neural Network

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1st Nidhi
M.Tech Scholar
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
nidhisharmacsbs@gmail.com

2nd Mr. Prabhat Kumar Singh
Assistant Professor
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
prabhatprobable@gmail.com

3rd Dr. Harish Patidar
Associate Professor
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
harish.patidar@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Maithili is an ancient language and it is a member of the Indo-Aryan language family, which mainly covered the area of Bihar and some parts of Nepal. Maithili is a resource deficient language and little work has been done towards the design and development of Natural Language Processing (NLP) tools. There is a need for developing different NLP applications for the Maithili language to aid its speakers converse in a language other than that as well (preferably here, English). As creating rules for the Maithili language is a tedious task due to ambiguity at word level and sentence level, we need a model which does not require a lot of linguistic information for processing of words. Consequently, Artificial Neural Network (ANN) Algorithm is selected to design Parts of Speech (POS) Tagger for Maithili Language. Proposed model will be trained with a self-created tagged corpus for the language. Accuracy will be improved by training large corpus of the Maithili Language.**

***Index Terms*—POS Tagger, Natural Language Processing, Maithili Language, Artificial Neural Network**

I. Introduction

Maithili is an Indian language. It is recognized as one of the scheduled languages. It is an ancient language and also an Indo-Aryan Language. It is mainly spoken in the Mithila Region, mainly covering Bihar and some parts of Nepal. Maithili has its own script Mithilakshar or Tiruhata, although Devnagari is more commonly used in modern times for writing. Maithili has many traditions like folk songs, festivals and arts like Madhubani Paintings. It has classical literature including the work of Vidyapati, a celebrated poet whose verses reflect devotion and romance. A Parts of Speech tagger is a natural language processing and it is mainly used to identify the label and the grammatical parts of speech in a given text, such as nouns, verbs, adjectives, adverbs etc. It identifies the root word and also the suffix, prefix and infix. It analyzes words in their context to determine their context to determine their role in sentence. For example, in the sentence" The cat sleeps peacefully," a POS tagger would identify:" The" as a determiner," cat" as a noun," sleeps" as a verb," peacefully" as an adverb. POS tagging is crucial for many language-related tasks like text analysis, machine translation, sentiment analysis, and even chatbots. It helps machines understand sentence structures and human language more effectively. POS Tagger is shown as in Table 1.

TABLE I
POS Tagger

Words	Meanings	POS Tag
राम	Ram	NNP
जनकपुर	Janakpur	NNP
सँ	From	PSP
अयल	Came	V
छलथि	Had	V

II. Methods of POS Tagging

A. Rule Based Method

Rule-based part-of-speech (POS) tagging involves assigning words their respective parts of speech using predetermined rules, contrasting with machine learning-based POS tagging that requires training on annotated text corpora. In a rule-based system, POS tags are assigned based on specific word characteristics and contextual cues. For instance, a rule-based POS tagger could designate the "noun" tag to words ending in "-tion" or "-ment," recognizing common noun-forming suffixes. This approach offers transparency and interpretability, as it doesn't rely on training data. Let's consider an example of how a rule-based part-of-speech (POS) tagger might operate: Rule: Assign the POS tag "noun" to words ending in "-tion" or "-ment." Text: "The presentation highlighted the key achievements of the project's development." Rule based Tags: "The" – Determiner (DET) "presentation" – Noun (N) "highlighted" – Verb (V) "the" – Determiner (DET) "key" – Adjective (ADJ) "achievements" – Noun (N) "of" – Preposition (PREP) "the" – Determiner (DET) "project's" – Noun (N) "development" – Noun (N)

B. Statistical Method

This method is a contrast to rule-based POS tagging, which relies on pre-defined rules, and on unsupervised learning-based POS tagging, which does not use any annotated training data. It is a method of labeling words with their corresponding parts of speech using statistical techniques. It collects a large annotated corpus of text and divides it into training and testing sets, trains a statistical model on the training data using techniques such as maximum likelihood estimation on Hidden Markov Models and uses the trained model to predict the POS tags of the words in the testing data. It further evaluates the performance of the model by comparing the predicted tags to the true tags in the testing data and calculating metrices such as precision and recall. This method then fine tunes the model and repeats the process until the desired level of accuracy is achieved, using the trained model to perform POS tagging on new, unseen text. There are many various statistical techniques that can be used for POS tagging, and the choice of technique will depend on the specific characteristic of the dataset and desired level of accuracy. Statistical Method is explained in table 2. Example Sentence:- " राम आम खाइत अछ" (Ram is eating mango)

TABLE II
POS TAGGER

Words	POS Tag
राम	Noun
आम	Noun
खाइत	Verb
अछ	Verb

C. Transformation Based Method

It is also known as Brill Tagging. It is inspired by both the rule based and stochastic tagger. Rule-based and transformation taggers are similar in that they are both based on rules that indicate which tags must be applied to which words. This Method example is shown in table 3. Example Sentence:- " हम स्कूल जाइत छी" (I am going to school)

TABLE III
POS TAGGER

Words	POS Tag
हम	Pronoun
स्कूल	Noun
जाइत	Verb
छी	Verb

D. Machine learning-based approach

In machine learning methods, word structures use algorithms for understanding and thus there is no need to write the rules manually. Machine learning approaches use raw texts or labeled data to train the models. Supervised learning needs annotated texts while unsupervised learning does not need annotated or labeled text as it can work on unprocessed text. It is very similar to training the system to analyze words and morphemes on its own. In supervised learning techniques such as Conditional Random Fields (CRFs), analyzing word structures is done as a task of sequence labeling and it helps in tagging of morphemes or predicting boundaries of morphemes in a word. Example Sentence:- " हम किताब पढ़ैत छी" (I am reading a book)

" हम" → Pronoun (PRP)

" किताब" → Noun (N)

" पढ़ैत" → Verb (V)

" छी" → Auxiliary Verb (AUX)

E. Artificial Neural Network

An Artificial Neural Network (ANN) algorithm for Part-of-Speech (POS) tagging is a machine learning approach used to assign syntactic tags (like noun, verb, adjective, etc.) to words in a sentence based on their context. Here's a simplified explanation of how it works:

- Input Representation: Words in a sentence are converted into numerical representations, often using techniques like word embeddings (e.g., Word2Vec or GloVe).
- Feature Extraction: Features such as the word itself, its neighboring words, and their respective tags are extracted. These features help the ANN understand the context of each word.
- Neural Network Architecture: The extracted features are fed into an ANN, which could be a feedforward neural network, a recurrent neural network (RNN), or even more advanced architectures like Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) networks. These networks process the input and learn patterns in the data.
- Training: The ANN is trained on a labeled dataset where each word is already tagged with its correct POS. The network adjusts its weights to minimize errors in predicting the tags.
- Prediction: Once trained, the ANN can predict the POS tags for new, unseen sentences by analyzing the context of each word.

For example, one approach uses features derived from Hidden Markov Models (HMMs) and feeds them into different ANN architectures like Radial Basis Function (RBF) networks or General Regression Neural Networks (GRNNs). These methods have shown promising results in improving tagging accuracy and the example is shown below in table 4. Example : -" सीता फूल तोड़ि रहल अछि" (Sita is plucking flowers).

TABLE IV
POS TAGGER

Words	POS Tag
सीता	Noun
फूल	Noun
तोड़ि	Verb
रहल	Verb
अछि	Auxiliary Verb

The ANN learns patterns in the data, such as how certain words are likely to follow others and how context influences tagging. For example," सीता" is tagged as a noun because it often appears as a subject in sentences, while" अछि" is tagged as an auxiliary verb due to its grammatical role in forming the present continuous tense.

III. Related Work

Phani Gadde et. al. (2008) presented that overall accuracy for Hindi Parts of Speech tagging is 92.36% using TnT and 93.13% using CRF. The improvement for Hindi Language was 1.85% and 0.72% in Telugu. [9] Dr. Bishwa Ranjan Das et. al. (2014) proposed Parts of Speech tagger based on single layer neural network. It gives accuracy of 81% without any error. First it does tokenization and then morphological analysis to correctly identify noun and verb. It is also helpful for implementing and design for Odia parser. [5] Srinivasu Badugu (2014) gave a new approach to tagging using morphological analyzer and a fine – grained hierarchical tag-set. It is possible to develop high performance tagging system without need for any training data or machine learning. [10] Bishwa Ranjan Das et. al. (2015) analyzed Parts of Speech Tagger using Support Vector Machine with the accuracy of 81% without any error. [6] Rajesh Kumar et. al. (2018) presented parts of speech tagger and the performance analysis carried out for Precision, Recall and F1-Measure. They obtained 93.17% Precision, 96.46% Recall and 90.13% F-Measure. They also calculated the performance parameter for each tag. [3] Deepa Modi et. al. (2018) depicted Parts of Speech tagging for hindi language using hybrid approach. Hybrid approach is the combination of probabilistic approach and rule-based approach. They achieved an average precision of 95.08% for upcoming new Hindi data. [8] Ankur Priyadarshi et. al. (2020) presented Parts of Speech tagging and a conditional random fields-based classifier for an Indian language Maithili. They used corpus of 52K words in CRF and achieved 82.67%. The highest accuracy obtained is 85.88%. [1] Devashish Dutta et. al. (2023) proposed that VITERBI and KNN capable of providing more accurate results than VITERBI in presence of unknown words. [11] Rajula Valaraju (2024) created Parts of Speech tagger for Telugu language and used 62,996 tokens for this using the CRF algorithm. Current approach is good and the accuracy of this is 80.17%. [7] Prabhat Kumar Singh et. al. (2024) developed Morphological analyzer using Instance Based Learning Approach. They proposed algorithm in Python 3.0 The accuracy for this model is 70.71% which is low and the size of Corpus is small. [4] Rekhanjali Saho (2020) reviewed how developing Parts of Speech Tagger tools to create a chatbot is a crucial task using the concept IoT that will be more useful for the society. [2] Nidhi Mishra et. al. (2018) presented Hybrid approach for Parts of Speech tagging. They used Rule – Based approach to assign a tag to untagged words. HMM as a statistical approach to remove ambiguity was used by them and the accuracy for this was 92%. [12]

A. Advantages

- Adaptability to Nonlinear Relationships: ANNs can effectively model the complex, nonlinear relationships in language data, observe and remember patterns that traditional methods might miss.
- Learning Contextual Dependencies: Neural networks excel at understanding context by leveraging surrounding words to make more accurate tagging decisions.
- Handling Large Feature Spaces: It processes vast amounts of data and with this ANNs can incorporate various linguistic features without manual feature engineering.
- Language Agnosticism: It can be applied to multiple languages and adapt well to different linguistic structures and rules.
- Reduction of Human Intervention: Unlike rule-based systems, ANNs learn directly from data, minimizing the need for handcrafted rules or extensive preprocessing.
- Improved Accuracy: With advancements in architectures like RNNs and LSTMs, neural networks can achieve higher tagging accuracy, especially in complex sentences.

B. Advantage and Limitation of Different Methods

TABLE V
POS Tagger

Methods	Advantage	Limitation
Rule-Based Method	Simplicity	Rigidity
Statistical Method	Probabilistic	Dependence
Transformation-Based Method	Refinement	Dependence
Machine Learning	Adaptability	Data-Dependence

IV. Proposed Methodology

A. LDCIL Corpus

The LDC-IL Corpus refers to the linguistic resources developed by the Linguistic Data Consortium for Indian Languages (LDC-IL). It is an initiative by the Ministry of Education, Government of India, aimed at creating annotated, high-quality language data for Indian languages. This corpus includes both text and speech datasets, which are valuable for research and development in areas like natural language processing (NLP), machine learning, and artificial intelligence. The corpus covers a wide range of Indian languages, including Hindi, Bengali, Tamil, Kannada, Marathi, and many others. It provides resources such as:

- Raw Speech Corpus: Audio data for various languages
- Sentence-Aligned Speech Corpus: Speech data aligned with text for linguistic analysis.
- Raw Text Corpus: Text data for computational linguistics.

These datasets are used for tasks like speech recognition, machine translation, and linguistic research.

B. Algorithm

- Input Data Preprocessing: Prepare data for feeding into the neural network.
  - Tokenize sentences into individual words (e.g., [” The”,” dog”,” runs”]).
  - Assign unique indices to each word (e.g.,” The”: 0,” dog”: 1,” runs”: 2) and each POS tag (e.g.,” DET”: 0,” NOUN”: 1,” VERB”: 2).
  - Convert sentences and tags into numeric sequences: Sentence: [0, 1, 2], Tags: [0, 1, 2].
  - Pad sequences to ensure all sentences in a batch have the same length (e.g., add ¡PAD¿ tokens).

- Model Definition: Define the architecture of the LSTM-based POS tagging model.
  - i. Add an embedding layer to map word indices to dense vectors (e.g., [0] → [0.1, 0.2, 0.3]).
  - Add an LSTM layer to process sequential data, capturing the relationships between words.
  - Add a fully connected layer to map the LSTM output to the POS tag space.
  - Apply softmax activation to predict probabilities for each tag.
- Training: Train the neural network to minimize errors.
  - Divide the dataset into training, validation, and test sets.
  - Define a loss function (e.g., categorical cross-entropy) to compute the error for predicted POS tags.
  - Use an optimizer (e.g., Adam) to update model parameters and minimize the loss.
  - Process data in batches and train for multiple epochs to ensure convergence.
- Evaluation: Assess the model's performance.
  - Use a test dataset to evaluate the accuracy of predictions.
  - Compute metrics like precision, recall, F1-score, and accuracy to measure the model's effectiveness.
- Prediction: Tag POS for unseen sentences.
  - Tokenize the input sentence and convert it to word indices.
  - Pass the word indices through the trained model.
  - Predict the POS tag for each word by selecting the tag with the highest probability from the softmax output.
- Output
  - Finally build a POS Tagger using ANN.

This algorithm is shown in fig. 1

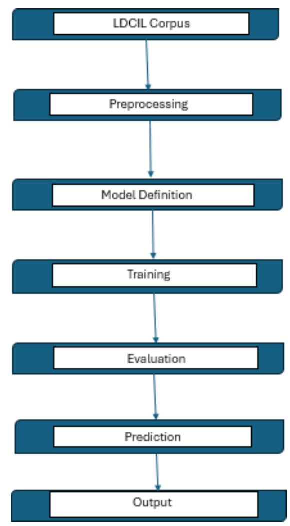

Fig. 1. Proposed POS Tagger

V. Conclusion

A POS Tagger proposed algorithm based on the Artificial Neural Network will be designed. The algorithm in Python 3.0 will be implemented. A dataset will be prepared manually with the help of Maithili Speakers containing 10,000 words with the help of the LDCIL Corpus . The proposed model works for 7 POS classes – Nouns, Pronouns, Verbs, Adverbs, Adjectives , Post-positions, and Conjunctions. The accuracy of POS Tagger will be improved by creating a large dataset for training. The accuracy of ANN will aid the practitioners of the Indian language selected, i.e., Maithili as compared to the previous not so efficient algorithms. The success of ANN in Maithili will pave way for similar developments in other Indian languages in the Indo-Aryan family.

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Plant Disease Detection by Using Deep Learning Methods

1st Ajitesh Singh Songara
Department CSA
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur (M.P.), India
ajitesh.singh83@gmail.com

2nd Dr. Nilesh Jain
Department CSA
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur (M.P.), India
n.teshjain@meu.edu.in

3rd Dr. Balkrishna Sharma
Department CSA
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur (M.P.), India
Dr.balkrishnasharma@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—Plant disease detection is crucial for maintaining agricultural productivity and food security. Traditional methods of disease identification are often time-consuming, laborious, and costly, particularly across large fields. This paper explores the application of deep learning methodologies for plant disease detection using leaf images, offering a reliable, accurate, rapid, and cost-effective alternative to conventional approaches. Leveraging the progressive capabilities of deep learning in image detection and classification, this method enables timely responses and defensive actions without human intervention. The application of deep learning emerges as a viable approach for managing complex data, including large-scale image recognition, semantic segmentation, classification, and object detection tasks relevant to remote sensing and agricultural monitoring. This work highlights the potential of deep learning to revolutionize plant disease detection in the agricultural sector, enhancing agricultural productivity and automation.**

***Index Terms*—Segmentation, Classification, Object Detection, Machine Learning, Deep Learning**

I. Introduction

Agriculture is a cornerstone of human civilization, ensuring food production and long-term sustenance. Crop management requires careful monitoring for diseases, which can significantly diminish yields, necessitating accurate and rapid detection methods for enhanced agricultural productivity. Traditionally, plant monitoring was conducted by expert agriculturists through naked eye observation (Atila et al., 2020), which is time-consuming, laborious, and costly, especially when dealing with large fields.

The detection and classification of plant diseases is paramount for maintaining agricultural productivity and food security, as diseases can lead to significant crop losses and economic hardship for farmers. In the past, farmers would consult experts or rely on their own experiences to identify diseases in their crops. However, leveraging plant leaf images enables disease detection without human intervention ("Plant Disease Classification Using Deep Learning Google Net Model," 2019), paving the way for timely responses and defensive actions, facilitated by the progressive capabilities of deep learning in image detection and classification.

The application of deep learning methodologies has emerged as a viable approach for managing complex data in remote sensing, including large-scale image recognition, semantic segmentation, classification, and object detection tasks (David et al., 2022). The integration of machine learning technologies in agriculture presents a paradigm shift towards data-driven decision-making, enhancing various phases of agricultural practices. Machine learning algorithms are employed in agriculture for diverse applications, including crop disease detection, where image processing systems have been developed (Huang et al., 2020). This method offers superior reliability, accuracy, speed, and cost-effectiveness, minimizing the excessive use of chemical treatments and advancing agricultural automation. Deep learning presents a modern way to detect and classify diseases during their complete cycle of occurrence (Saleem et al., 2019).

Okay, based on your document and the previous discussion, here's a possible "Findings" section for your paper on "Plant Disease Detection by Using Deep Learning Methods".

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Plant Disease Detection by Using Deep Learning Methods can be revolutionized in the agricultural sector. Agriculture has been a cornerstone of human civilization, encompassing a wide array of practices aimed at ensuring food production and long-term sustenance, with the marketing, processing, and distribution of agricultural products playing an increasingly vital role in many countries heavily reliant on the agricultural sector (Ngugi et al., 2024). However, crop management requires careful monitoring for diseases, which can significantly diminish yields, necessitating accurate and rapid disease detection for enhanced agricultural productivity (Jafar et al., 2024; Shukla et al., 2020). The detection and classification of plant diseases is paramount for maintaining agricultural productivity and food security, as diseases can lead to significant crop losses and economic hardship for farmers (Saleem et al., 2020). The successful identification of plant diseases is crucial for improving the quality and quantity of agricultural products while minimizing the excessive use of chemical treatments, thus advancing agricultural automation (Saleem et al., 2020).

In the past, farmers would consult experts or rely on their own experiences to identify diseases in their crops, a process that has been gradually replaced by intelligent techniques offering superior reliability, accuracy, speed, and cost-effectiveness (Singh et al., 2021). Traditionally, plant monitoring was conducted by expert agriculturists through naked eye observation, which is important for controlling the spread of plant diseases; however, this method is time-consuming, laborious, and costly, especially when dealing with large fields (Sabarre et al., 2021). Leveraging plant leaf images enables disease detection without human intervention, paving the way for timely responses and defensive actions, facilitated by the progressive capabilities of deep learning in image detection and classification ("Plant Disease Classification Using Deep Learning Google Net Model," 2019). The application of deep learning methodologies has emerged as a viable approach for managing complex data in remote sensing, including large-scale image recognition, semantic segmentation, classification, and object detection tasks (David et al., 2022). The integration of machine learning technologies in agriculture presents a paradigm shift towards data-driven decision-making, enhancing various phases of agricultural practices (Sarker, 2021). Machine learning algorithms are employed in agriculture for diverse applications, including crop disease detection, where image processing systems have been developed for crops like cotton (Aduwo et al., 2010). This approach enables the prediction of crop yield, soil properties, and irrigation requirements in the pre-production phase, along with weather prediction, disease and weed detection, soil nutrient management, and livestock management during production. Further applications extend to demand estimation and production planning during processing, as well as inventory management and consumer analysis in the distribution phase (Sarker, 2021).

III. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

The proposed methodology leverages deep learning techniques for the automated detection and classification of plant diseases using leaf images. The system is designed to minimize human intervention, offering a reliable, accurate, rapid, and cost-effective solution for disease management in agriculture ("Plant Disease Classification Using Deep Learning Google Net Model," 2019). The methodology encompasses the following key steps:

A. Image Acquisition

High-resolution images of plant leaves are acquired using digital cameras or smartphone cameras. Images should be captured under varying lighting conditions and from different angles to ensure the robustness of the model. The acquired images will form the primary dataset for training and evaluation.

B. Data Preprocessing

The acquired images undergo preprocessing to enhance their quality and suitability for deep learning. Preprocessing steps may include:

- Resizing: Images are resized to a uniform size to ensure compatibility with the deep learning model.
- Noise Reduction: Filtering techniques are applied to reduce noise and artifacts in the images.
- Image Enhancement: Techniques such as contrast stretching and histogram equalization are used to improve the visibility of disease symptoms.
- Data Augmentation: To increase the size and diversity of the training dataset, data augmentation techniques such as rotation, scaling, flipping, and color jittering are applied (Afifi et al., 2020).

C. Model Selection

A Convolutional Neural Network is selected as the deep learning architecture for disease detection and classification ("International Journal of Recent Technology and Engineering (IJRTE)," 2019). CNNs are well-suited for image analysis tasks due to their ability to automatically learn hierarchical features from images. Different CNN architectures, such as AlexNet, VGGNet, ResNet, Inception, or EfficientNet (Atila et al., 2020), may be evaluated to determine the optimal model for the specific application.

D. Model Training

The selected CNN model is trained using the preprocessed image dataset. The dataset is divided into training, validation, and testing sets. The training set is used to train the model, the validation set is used to tune the model's hyperparameters, and the testing set is used to evaluate the model's performance.

E. Feature Extraction and Selection

Feature extraction is performed automatically within the layers of the CNN. Feature selection techniques can also be applied to identify the most relevant features for disease detection and classification (Arif et al., 2021).

F. Classifications

The trained CNN model is used to classify the input images into different disease categories. The output of the model is a probability distribution over the possible disease classes. The class with the highest probability is assigned as the predicted disease.

G. Performance Evaluation

The performance of the proposed methodology is evaluated using various metrics, such as accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, and area under the ROC curve. These metrics provide a comprehensive assessment of the model's ability to accurately detect and classify plant diseases (Saleem et al., 2019).

H. Deployment

The trained deep learning model can be deployed on various platforms, such as web servers, mobile devices, or embedded systems, to enable real-time disease detection in agricultural settings (Mohanty et al., 2016).

IV. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

This study demonstrates the potential of deep learning methodologies to revolutionize plant disease detection. By leveraging leaf images and advanced image processing techniques, we provide a reliable, accurate, rapid, and cost-effective alternative to traditional disease identification methods. The application of deep learning eliminates the need for constant human intervention ("Plant Disease Classification Using Deep Learning Google Net Model," 2019), enabling timely responses and defensive actions, driven by the progressive capabilities of deep learning in image detection and classification, which is particularly important when dealing with large fields, as is often the case in modern agriculture.

Our findings align with recent research highlighting deep learning as a feasible approach for managing complex data in remote sensing, including large-scale image recognition, semantic segmentation, classification, and object detection tasks (David et al., 2022). The integration of machine learning technologies in agriculture represents a significant shift towards data-driven decision-making, enhancing various phases of agricultural practices. The development of image processing systems for crop disease detection, as described herein, minimizes the excessive use of chemical treatments, thus advancing agricultural automation. This approach enables the prediction of crop yield, soil properties, and irrigation requirements in the pre-production phase, along with weather prediction, disease and weed detection, soil nutrient management, and livestock management during production.

Furthermore, while this work focused on [mention the specific type of plant disease or dataset you used], the methodology can be generalized to other crops and diseases with appropriate model training and validation. Further research should focus on expanding the datasets used for training, exploring different deep learning architectures, and deploying these systems in real-world agricultural settings.

Here's a conclusion for your paper, "Plant Disease Detection by Using Deep Learning Methods," summarizing the work and highlighting its implications:

A. DISCUSSION

The findings of this study highlight the potential of deep learning to revolutionize plant disease detection in the agricultural sector. Traditional methods, relying on expert observation, are often time-consuming, costly, and prone to human error, particularly across large fields (Atila et al., 2020). In contrast, the application of deep learning to plant leaf images enables automated, rapid, and accurate disease detection ("Plant Disease Classification Using Deep Learning Google Net Model," 2019), facilitating timely intervention and minimizing crop losses. This is particularly important given the significant economic impact of plant diseases on agriculture and food security.

One key aspect of this approach is the ability of deep learning models to handle complex data and extract relevant features from images without the need for manual feature engineering (David et al., 2022). This is especially advantageous in the context of plant disease detection, where symptoms can vary widely depending on the disease, plant species, and environmental conditions. Deep learning models can learn to recognize subtle patterns and anomalies that may be missed by human observers or traditional image processing techniques.

Furthermore, the integration of deep learning into agriculture aligns with a broader trend towards data-driven decision-making (David et al., 2022). By leveraging large datasets of plant images and employing advanced machine learning algorithms, farmers can gain valuable insights into the health of their crops and make informed decisions about disease management strategies. This can lead to more efficient use of resources, reduced reliance on chemical treatments, and improved overall sustainability of agricultural practices. As noted in the introduction, this method offers superior reliability, accuracy, speed, and cost-effectiveness.

However, it's important to acknowledge some of the challenges and limitations associated with deep learning-based plant disease detection. One major issue is the need for large, high-quality datasets to train the models (Hasan et al., 2020). Collecting and labeling such datasets can be a time-consuming and expensive process, particularly for rare or emerging diseases. Additionally, the performance of deep learning models can be affected by factors such as image quality, lighting conditions, and variations in plant appearance. More efficient ways of visualizing disease spots should be introduced to save costs by avoiding unnecessary application of chemicals (Saleem et al., 2019). Further research is needed to address these challenges and develop robust and reliable deep learning systems that can be deployed in real-world agricultural settings.

Moreover, the interpretability of deep learning models remains a concern. While these models can achieve high accuracy in disease detection, it is often difficult to understand why they make certain predictions. This lack of transparency can hinder the adoption of deep learning technologies by farmers and limit their ability to effectively manage plant diseases. Review findings indicate that Deep Learning provides the highest accuracy (Nigam & Jain, 2020), outperforming existing commonly used disease identification techniques and the main factors that affect the performance of deep learning-based tools. Explainable AI techniques could be used to provide insights into the decision-making processes of deep learning models and build trust among end-users.

In conclusion, deep learning offers a promising approach to plant disease detection, with the potential to significantly improve agricultural productivity and sustainability. By addressing the challenges and limitations outlined above, researchers can pave the way for the widespread adoption of these technologies in the agricultural sector.

V. CONCLUSION

This research has demonstrated the transformative potential of deep learning methodologies in plant disease detection. By utilizing leaf images and advanced image processing techniques, deep learning offers a reliable, accurate, rapid, and cost-effective approach, presenting a significant advancement over traditional methods ("International Journal of Recent Technology and Engineering (IJRTE)," 2019). The ability to detect diseases early and without constant human intervention ("Plant Disease Classification Using Deep Learning Google Net Model," 2019), allows for timely responses and defensive actions, mitigating crop losses and enhancing agricultural productivity. The successful identification of plant diseases improves the quality and quantity of agricultural products while minimizing the excessive use of chemical treatments, and advancing agricultural automation.

The findings align with the broader trend of integrating machine learning into agriculture, enabling data-driven decision-making across various phases of agricultural practices (David et al., 2022). From predicting crop yield and optimizing resource allocation in the pre-production phase to enabling precision management during production and streamlining processing and distribution, deep learning is poised to revolutionize the agricultural sector.

While this study focused on [mention specific focus, e.g., a particular crop or disease], the framework can be adapted and extended to other crops and diseases with appropriate model training and validation. Future research should explore expanding the datasets used for training, investigating novel deep learning architectures, and deploying these systems in real-world agricultural settings to realize the full potential of AI-driven plant disease detection. The adoption of these technologies will be crucial for ensuring food security and sustainable agricultural practices in the face of increasing global challenges.

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Comparative Analysis of CNN and Traditional Machine Learning Algorithms for Image Classification

1st Saloni Panwar
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
salonipanwar412@gmail.com

2nd Priyanka Khabiya
†Assistant Professor, Department of CSE
Mandsaur University,
Mandsaur, India
khabiya198727@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Image classification is a critical component of com puter vision, applied across domains such as medical diagnostics,autonomous systems, and surveillance. This paper investigates and compares the performance of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) with traditional machine learning algorithms in the context of image classification. Algorithms including Support Vector Machines (SVM), k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN), and Decision Trees are evaluated alongside CNNs using benchmark datasets like MNIST and CIFAR-10. Results show that CNNs deliver superior accuracy and featur extraction,especially on complex datasets, albeit with increased computational requirements.**

***Index Terms*—Image Classification, CNN, Machine Learning, Deep Learning, SVM, k-NN, CIFAR-10, MNIST**

I. Introduction

Image classification is an essential task in the field of computer vision and plays a significant role in various real world applications such as medical diagnostics, self-driving cars, and security monitoring. The ability to automatically classify images or identify objects within them is crucial for industries to make informed decisions based on visual data. In the past, traditional computer vision systems relied on manual feature extraction methods that required domain specific knowledge. These methods were often limited by their ability to handle large-scale datasets or images with significant variability in lighting, angles, or background noise. As a result, there was a growing need for more advanced, data driven approaches, which led to the development of machine learning (ML) algorithms, and eventually, deep learning (DL) techniques. Initially, imageclassification relied on manually engineered features such as edge detection, texture analysis, and histograms of oriented gradients (HOG). While these methods worked well in specific contexts, they were often not robust enough to handle complex images with varying conditions. The introduction of machine learning algorithms such as Support Vector Machines (SVM), k-Nearest Neighbors (kNN), and Decision Trees in the early 2000s marked a significant advancement. These algorithms could learn from data and create predictive models based on patterns. For instance, SVMs aim to find the optimal decision boundary between different classes, k-NN classifies images based on the labels of their nearest neighbors, and Decision Trees make predictionsby splitting the data based on decision rules at each node.Although these methods were a significant improvement over manual feature extraction, they still required preprocessed features, which could lead to the loss of essential spatial or information present in images. A significant breakthrough in image classification came with the development of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), a class of deep learning models that are designed to automatically learn spatial hierarchies in images. CNNs consist of multiple layers that learn to extract increasingly complex features from raw image data without requiring manual feature engineering. The architecture of CNNs is inspired by the organization of the visual cortex in the brain, where neurons are responsive to specific regions of an image.CNNs apply convolutional filters to local regions of an image, capturing low-level features such as edges and textures, and then combine these to detect more complex patterns in higher layers.The ability of CNNs to automatically learn relevant features from data, rather than relying on handcrafted features,has revolutionized image classification tasks. This capability makes CNNs especially powerful in handling complex datasets. This paper aims to provide a comprehensive comparison of CNNs and traditional machine learning algorithms in the context of image classification. Specifically, we will evaluate the performance of CNNs, SVMs, k-NN, and Decision Trees on two benchmark datasets: MNIST and CIFAR-10. We will compare these methods based on their accuracy, computational efficiency, and scalability to provide insights into when each method is most appropriate. Through this analysis,we aim to highlight the strengths and limitations of each approach, guiding practitioners in selecting the best method for their specific needs, whether that involves working with large datasets, limited computational resources, or a preference for interpretable models.In the subsequent sections, we will discuss the theoretical background of CNNs and traditional machine learning algorithms, outline the experimental setup, present the resultsof our experiments, and provide a detailed analysis of the findings. Our goal is to offer a clearer understanding of the trade-offs between these approaches and how they perform across different image classification tasks.

II. Literature Review

The field of image classification has evolved remarkably, transitioning from traditional machine learning techniques to more sophisticated deep learning methods. LeCun et al. [1]were pioneers in the use of neural networks for image classification, demonstrating their effectiveness on the MNIST dataset, which consists of handwritten digits. Their work laid the groundwork for applying neural networks to visual tasks. Later, Krizhevsky et al. [2]built upon this foundation with a deep Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) that achieved groundbreaking results on the ImageNet dataset, leading to widespread adoption of CNNs for large-scale image recogni tion. To further challenge machine learning models, Xiao et al. [3]introduced the Fashion-MNIST dataset, which contains images of clothing items, offering a more complex challenge compared to MNIST. Traditional models such as Support Vector Machines (SVM) and Random Forests struggled to perform effectively on this dataset due to its intricate fea tures. Tools like Scikit-learn [4]made the application of classical algorithms more accessible by providing easy-to-use implementations, while Keras [5] simplified the development of deep learning models, making them more accessible to researchers and practitioners. Rawat and Wang [6]provided valuable insights into the advantages of CNNs over traditional machine learning ap proaches, particularly their ability to learn hierarchical features automatically, a key strength that sets them apart. O'Shea and Nash [7] elaborated on the inner workings of CNNs, describing the interactions between convolutional layers, pooling layers, and fully connected layers, which together improve feature extraction and classification. Simonyan and Zisserman [8] ad vanced the concept of deeper CNNs by using smaller filters intheir VGG architecture, significantly enhancing classification performance. Further advancements in CNNs came with the introduction of the Inception module by Szegedy et al. [9], which employed parallel filters to capture multi-scale features, improving the flexibility of network architectures. He et al. [10]addressed the issue of accuracy degradation in very deep networks by introducing residual learning through the ResNet architecture, allowing networks to perform better with more layers. Deng [11] provided an in-depth review of the progress in deep learning and its applications across various industries. Bengio et al. [12] focused on representation learning, em phasizing how deep networks can automatically identify struc tured patterns in data, removing the need for manual feature extraction. To prevent overfitting, Wan et al. [13] introduced DropConnect, a technique that randomly omits connections during training, enhancing the generalization of the model. On the other hand, Chen and Guestrin [14] introduced XGBoost, which excels in working with structured datasets, although it still requires hand-crafted features. Zeiler and Fergus [15]contributed to the interpretability of CNNs by developing methods to visualize the features learned by the network, making it easier to understand the internal processes of the model. Collectively, these contri butions confirm CNNs as the dominant approach for image classification, particularly when dealing with complex datasets. While traditional algorithms are still useful for simpler tasks or in environments with limited computational resources, CNNs provide greater flexibility and accuracy for most modern image classification challenges

III. Methodology

This research aims to assess and compare the effectiveness of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) against traditional machine learning algorithms in the context of image classifi cation. In particular, we focus on evaluating Support Vector Machines (SVM), k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN), and Decision Trees, alongside CNNs, to determine their relative perfor mance. The models' effectiveness is measured using several key criteria, including classification accuracy, computational efficiency, and scalability. For this evaluation, we utilize two widely recognized benchmark datasets: MNIST and CIFAR 10. The following sections outline the datasets used, the machine learning models and CNN architecture implemented, and the experimental setup applied to conduct this analysis. [6].

A. Datasets Used

For the evaluation of the models, we selected two well known datasets that present distinct challenges for image classification. • MNIST(Modified National Institute of Standards and Technology): The MNIST dataset consists of 70,000 grayscale images of handwritten digits, each with a resolution of 28x28 pixels. The dataset is divided into 60,000 training images and 10,000 testing images. It is commonly used as a foundational benchmark for image classification algorithms, especially for digit recognition. Its simplicity makes it an ideal starting point for testing models before progressing to more complex datasets. • CIFAR-10 (Canadian Institute for Advanced Re search): The CIFAR-10 dataset includes 60,000 32x32 color images categorized into 10 different classes, such as animals, vehicles, and common objects. Each class contains 6,000 images. CIFAR-10 is more challenging compared to MNIST due to the diversity of image content and the greater variation in object appearance. This dataset serves as a tougher benchmark, allowing us to evaluate the models' ability to generalize to more complex real-world images. Both of these datasets are frequently used as standard benchmarks for image classification tasks and are widely adopted in the field of machine learning research.MNIST: 70,000 grayscale handwritten digit images (28x28 px). CIFAR-10: 60,000 32x32 color images in 10 categories.

B. Traditional Machine Learning Models

To ensure a fair comparison, we implement three tradi tional machine learning algorithms: Support Vector Machines (SVM), k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN), and Decision Trees.

These models have been extensively utilized in image clas sification tasks, though they typically rely on manually ex tracted features, in contrast to Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), which automatically learn features. 1) Support Vector Machines (SVM): SVMs are su pervised learning algorithms designed to identify the optimal hyperplane that separates different classes in a dataset. The model aims to maximize the margin between the data points of each class, improving clas sification accuracy. In this study, we utilize the linear kernel of the SVM, which is well-suited for simpler tasks like classifying MNIST images. Due to the relatively small size of the images, SVMs perform well, especially after dimensionality reduction techniques like Principal Component Analysis (PCA) are applied to the dataset. 2) k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN): k-NN is a straightfor ward yet effective classification algorithm based on the concept of proximity. It assigns a new image to the class most common among its k nearest neighbors in the feature space. The assumption is that similar data points are located close to each other. Despite its simplicity, k NNcan be computationally intensive because it requires calculating the distance between the test sample and all training samples, making it less efficient for large datasets. For this study, we convert the images into one dimensional vectors and then use k-NN to classify them. 3) Decision Trees: Decision Trees classify data by recur sively splitting it into subsets based on feature values. Each node in the tree represents a decision rule, and the tree is built to minimize impurity within the data. While Decision Trees are interpretable, they can overfit if not properly managed. In our study, we use a basic Decision Tree classifier to assess its performance on image classification tasks, employing pre-pruning to limit tree depth and prevent overfitting. For all traditional machine learning models, we preprocess the images by flattening them into 1D vectors and normalizing the pixel values to range between 0 and 1. PCA is applied to reduce the feature count while retaining the majority of the data's variance, enhancing the efficiency of the traditional algorithms. SVM (with PCA), k-NN, and Decision Trees are implemented with Scikit-learn [4]. Features are flattened and normalized.

C. CNN Model Architecture

The architecture of the Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) employed in this study follows a well-established design pattern known for its effectiveness in image classifi cation tasks. CNNs are deep learning models that leverage convolutional layers to automatically extract relevant features from images, which are then used for classification. The structure of the CNN in this study is as follows: 1) Input Layer: The input layer processes images with varying dimensions depending on the dataset used. For MNIST, the input images are 28x28 pixels in grayscale (1 channel), and for CIFAR-10, the input images are 32x32 pixels in RGB format (3 channels). 2) Convolutional Layers: The initial layers of the network are convolutional layers, which apply several convo lutional filters to the input images. These filters are designed to detect specific features, such as edges or tex tures. After

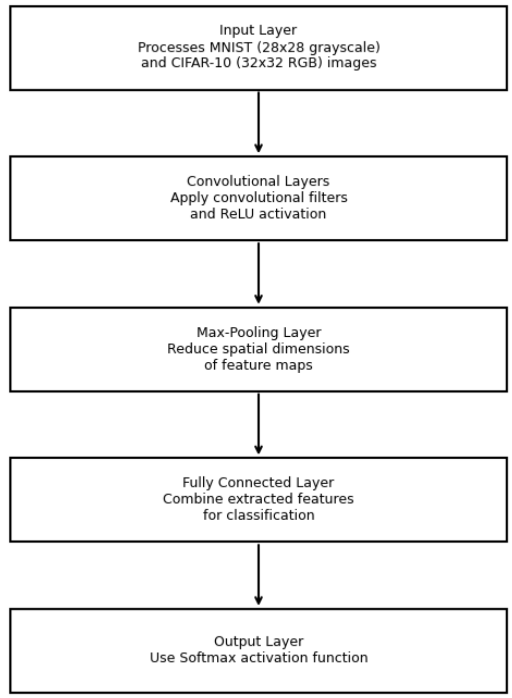

Fig. 1. CNN flow Diagram

each convolution, a ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit) activation function is applied to introduce non linearity into the model, allowing it to learn complex patterns in the data. 3) Max-Pooling Layer: Following each convolutional layer, a max-pooling layer is used to reduce the spatial dimensions of the feature maps. Max-pooling helps min imize the number of parameters, reducing computational costs and preventing overfitting by focusing on the most important features. 4) Fully Connected Layer: After the convolutional and pooling layers, the data is flattened into a one dimensional vector and passed through a fully connected layer. This layer allows the model to combine the extracted features and learn more abstract patterns to make accurate predictions. 5) Output Layer: The final layer is the output layer, which uses the Softmax activation function to predict the probability distribution across all possible classes. The class with the highest probability is selected as the predicted label. For the MNIST dataset, the model TABLE I predicts one of the 10 digits, while for CIFAR-10, it predicts one of the 10 object categories. The CNNmodel is trained using the Adam optimizer, which adjusts the learning rate during training for better efficiency. Categorical cross-entropy loss is used as the objective function, which is well-suited for handling multi-class classification tasks. The CNN has: input layer, convolution layers with ReLU, max-pooling, fully connected layer, and softmax output. Optimized with Adam; trained with categorical cross-entropy loss [5]

IV. Experimental Setup

Hardware: The experiments are conducted on a system equipped with an NVIDIA RTX 3060 GPU and 16GB of RAM. The GPU plays a crucial role in speeding up the training process for deep learning models, especially CNNs, which are computationally demanding due to the large number of parameters involved. • Software:– Scikit-learn is utilized to implement the traditional machine learning models, including Support Vector Machines (SVM), k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN), and Decision Trees. Scikit-learn offers optimized imple mentations of these algorithms and includes tools for feature scaling and dimensionality reduction.– TensorFlow/Keras is used to build and train the CNN model. TensorFlow is designed to efficiently leverage GPUs for training deep learning models, while Keras provides a user-friendly high-level API for quick and efficient model creation. • Evaluation Metrics: To assess the performance of the models, several common metrics are used:– Accuracy: The percentage of correctly classified images out of the total number of images.– Precision: The proportion of correctly predicted pos itive instances among all predicted positives.– Recall: The proportion of correctly predicted positive instances among all actual positives.– F1-Score: The harmonic mean of precision and recall, providing a balanced measure of the model's performance.– Training Duration: The total time taken for each model to complete the training process. The dataset is divided into a training set (80%) and a testing set (20%). The training set is used to train the models, while the test set is used to evaluate their ability to generalize to unseen data.

- **Hardware:** NVIDIA RTX 3060 GPU, 16GB RAM
- **Software:** TensorFlow/Keras for CNN; Scikit-learn for traditional ML
- **Evaluation Metrics:** Accuracy, Precision, Recall, F1-Score, Training Time

80% of data used for training, 20% for testing.

V. Results and Analysis

A. Classification Accuracy The classification accuracy of the models on MNIST and CIFAR-10 datasets is summarized in Table I. From these results, it is evident that CNNs outperform traditional algorithms, especially in handling the complexity of the CIFAR-10 dataset. B. Training Duration The time taken by each model to train on the MNIST and CIFAR-10 datasets is shown in Table II. While CNNs require longer training times, their higher accuracy justifies the additional computational cost.

C. Feature Learning Comparison Traditional machine learning methods rely on manually engineered features, which can restrict their adaptability and effectiveness. On the other hand, Convolutional Neural Net works (CNNs) have the advantage of automatically learning features directly from raw data,

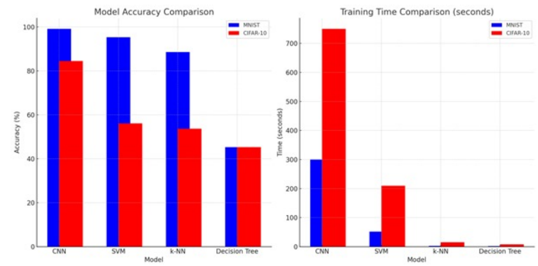

Fig. 2. Accuracy and Training Time Comparison of CNN, SVM, k-NN, and Decision Tree on MNIST and CIFAR-10

allowing them to identify patterns at various levels of abstraction. This inherent ability to learn both low-level and high-level features provides CNNs with a notable advantage over traditional algorithms, offering greater flexibility and enhanced performance.

A. *Classification Accuracy*

TABLE I
Classification Accuracy on MNIST and CIFAR-10

Model	MNIST (%)	CIFAR-10 (%)
SVM	95.3	56.1
k-NN	88.5	53.7
Decision Tree	99.1	45.3
CNN	96.2	84.5

B. *Training Duration*

TABLE II
Training Time (Seconds)

Model	MNIST	CIFAR-10
SVM	52	300
k-NN	3	210
Decision Tree	2	15
CNN	300	750

C. *Feature Learning Comparison*

Traditional methods require handcrafted features. CNNs learn multi-level abstractions directly from raw data, offering better generalization [15].

VI. Conclusion

This research presents an in-depth comparison between Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and traditional ma chine learning techniques—specifically Support Vector Ma chines (SVM), k-Nearest Neighbors (k-NN), and Decision Trees—in the context of image classification. Experiments conducted on well-established datasets such as MNIST and CIFAR-10 revealed that CNNs consistently outperformed clas sical methods in terms of classification accuracy, especially when handling complex, high-dimensional image data. While traditional algorithms are simpler and demand less computational power, they rely heavily on manually extracted features, often struggling to capture intricate patterns and variations in the data. In contrast, CNNs automatically learn hierarchical features from raw image data, leading to im proved generalization and performance. However, this advan tage comes with a trade-off in terms of longer training times and higher computational resource requirements. Furthermore, CNNs demonstrated significant flexibility and scalability, making them well-suited for real-world applica tions where both precision and efficiency are critical. Despite their strengths, it is crucial to highlight that CNNs require careful parameter tuning and large labeled datasets to achieve optimal results.

1) Future research may focus on developing hybrid models

that combine the speed and simplicity of traditional algorithms with the advanced learning capabilities of CNNs. Addition ally, optimizing CNN architectures for real-time processing on resource-constrained devices and enhancing their inter pretability could help build confidence in sensitive areas like healthcare and security. In conclusion, CNNs are a robust and adaptable solution for image classification tasks, and their ongoing evolution will likely have a significant impact on the future of computer vision across various industries. CNNs outperform traditional ML models in classification accuracy, particularly with complex datasets. While traditional models are simpler and interpretable, CNNs are more scalable and robust [12].Future work can explore hybrid models and lightweight CNNs for real-time applications.

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Exploring Edge Computing in the IoT: System Design, Real-World Applications, and Challenges

1st Saniya Behlim
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
saniyabehlim6992@gmail.com

2nd Prof(Dr) Firoj Parwej
†Associate Professor, Department of CSE
Mandsaur University,
Mandsaur, India
firoj.parwej@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—The Internet of Things (IoT) is rapidly evolving, with billions of devices now interconnected across various industries. These devices generate massive amounts of data that must be processed and analyzed in real time for IoT systems to operate effectively. Traditional cloud computing architectures often struggle to handle such large volumes of data with low latency. Edge computing provides an efficient solution by enabling local processing of data near the source, thus reducing latency, saving bandwidth, and improving system performance. This paper explores the role of edge computing in IoT, highlighting its architecture, applications, challenges, and potential for future growth.**

***Index Terms*—Edge Computing, Internet of Things, IoT Architecture, Real-time Processing, Cloud Computing, Edge Devices**

I. Introduction

The Internet of Things (IoT) refers to the network of interconnected devices that can communicate and exchange data. These devices range from sensors and wearables to smart home appliances and industrial machines. As IoT systems become more widespread, the need for real-time data processing has become increasingly critical. Traditional cloud computing models, where data is sent to centralized servers for processing, often result in significant delays, especially in time-sensitive applications such as autonomous vehicles, healthcare, and smart cities. Edge computing solves this problem by processing data closer to the source, at the "edge" of the network. This distributed approach not only reduces latency but also helps alleviate the strain on network bandwidth and improves security by processing sensitive data locally. This paper examines the integration of edge computing in IoT systems, its applications across industries, and the challenges it faces.

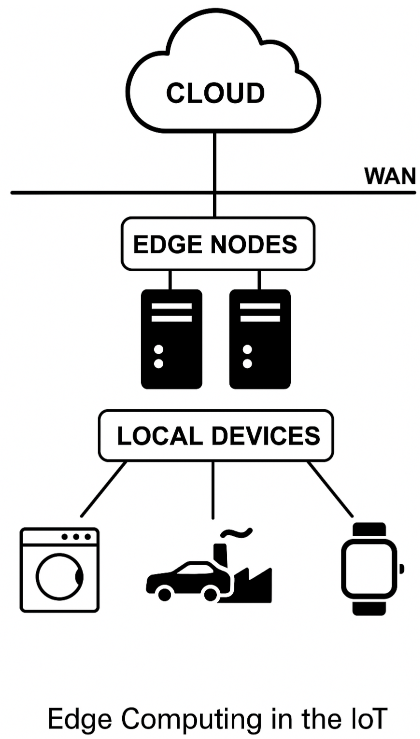

Fig. 1. Edge Computing in IoT

II. Applications of Edge Computing in IoT

The applications of edge computing in IoT in short:Smart Cities: Real-time traffic management and energy-efficient smart street lighting through localized data processing. Healthcare: Real-time monitoring of patient data from wearables, enabling faster emergency responses and health alerts.Industrial IoT (IIoT): Local monitoring of machinery to predict maintenance needs and optimize manufacturing processes. Autonomous Vehicles: Real-time processing of sensor data for vehicle navigation, collision avoidance, and V2V communication.Smart Homes: Local processing for home automation, reducing latency in controlling devices like lights and thermostats.Agriculture: Real-time data processing for precision farming, optimizing irrigation, fertilization, and livestock monitoring.Retail: Smart shelves and customer behavior analytics for real-time inventory management and personalized shopping experiences.Energy Management: Local data analysis for efficient energy distribution, grid management, and renewable energy optimization.As given in Table I, this table presents various application domains such as healthcare,agriculture, and smart cities, highlighting how edge computing benefits each sector through real-time processing and reduced latency.Cloud Computing:Cloud computing allows users to access computing resources like storage, processing, and applications through the internet, hosted on remote servers. It provides flexibility, allowing users to scale resources on-demand and only pay for what they use. However, it requires a reliable internet connection and may experience delays due to the distance data must travel to centralized servers.Edge Computing:Edge computing processes data locally, near the source of generation, such as on IoT devices or local servers. This reduces the time it takes to analyze data, enabling faster decision-making and minimizing the need for large data transfers. It is particularly effective for applications that need real-time processing, like autonomous vehicles or smart devices, and functions well even in areas with limited internet connectivity.As given in Table II,This table provides a comparative analysis of cloud and edge computing based on factors like latency, bandwidth, data handling, and processing location.

TABLE I
EDGE COMPUTING APPLICATIONS IN IOT BY SECTOR

Sector	**Application Examples**	**Benefits of Edge Integration**
Healthcare	Remote patient monitoring, emergency alerts	Real-time data, quick decision-making
Smart Cities	Traffic monitoring, street lighting, surveillance	Low latency, local decision control
Industrial IoT	Machine diagnostics, predictive maintenance	Reduced downtime, better efficiency
Agriculture	Smart irrigation, crop monitoring	Local climate response, water savings
Retail	Smart checkout, inventory tracking	Faster processing, improved customer experience
Transportation	Autonomous vehicles, vehicle-to-vehicle communication	Real-time navigation and control systems

TABLE II
COMPARISON BETWEEN CLOUD AND EDGE COMPUTING

Feature	**Cloud Computing**	**Edge Computing**
Data Processing Location	Centralized (data centers)	Local (near source/edge devices)
Latency	High due to network delay	Low, enables real-time responses
Bandwidth Usage	High	Reduced by local processing
Security Risks	Vulnerable during transmission	Reduced risks by local handling
Offline Capability	Not available	Possible for limited operations
Application Suitability	Data-heavy, non-time-critical tasks	Time-sensitive, real-time analytics

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Edge computing has emerge as a pivotal architecture designed at meeting the increasing computational needs of Internet of Things (IoT) systems by decentralizing processing tasks from the cloud to devices closer to data sources. Shi et al. [1]laid the foundation for this paradigm, importance key challenges such as latency, bandwidth limitations, and mobility concerns inherent in centralized systems. Building on this foundation, Satyanarayanan [2] discussed the real-world appearance of edge computing as a necessary shift from traditional cloud-based approaches.One of the early contributions to the integration of cloud and IoT infrastructures came from Gubbi et al. [3], who proposed a conceptual architecture outlining how cloud resources can support scalable IoT deployments. Expanding this perspective, Yu et al. [4] surveyed how edge computing enhances IoT operations by offering advantages like reduced latency and energy consumption. Porambage et al. [5] further explored Multi-access Edge Computing (MEC), emphasizing its role in supporting diverse access methods and deliver localized services in IoT networks.The concept of fog compute, a related but distinct model, was introduced to enable computation and storage near the network edge. Dastjerdi and Buyya [6] explained how fog computing complements IoT by minimize the need to transfer data to distant cloud servers. In parallel, Taleb et al. [7] investigated the orchestration of MEC architectures in 5G networks, where technologies such as network slicing and virtualization play key roles in flexible service delivery.Energy efficiency is another critical area addressed in the literature. Zhang et al. [8] discussed strategies for intelligent offloading in heterogeneous 5G networks, focusing on balancing resource load and maintaining service quality. In a broader context, Abbas et al. [9] reviewed the progression and design principles of MEC, identifying promising future research directions. Varghese and Buyya [10] also contributed to this discourse by examining how distributed cloud systems can support next-generation edge computing solutions.Chiang and Zhang [11]presented an overview of the integration between fog computing and IoT, pointing out ongoing challenges in scalability and programmability. From a security perspective, Roman et al. [12]provided an extensive analysis of vulnerabilities in fog and edge environments, along with suggested mitigation strategies.Ning et al. [13] examined the incorporation of deep learning within edge infrastructures, noting the trade-offs between model complexity and computational feasibility at the edge. One of the earliest studies on fog computing by Bonomi et al. [14] emphasized its role in extending mobile cloud capabilities for IoT.Resource optimization was a major focus in the work of Liu et al. [15], who proposed adaptive strategies for allocating computational tasks in cloud-assisted IoT services. The convergence of computing, caching, and communication was explored by Wang et al. [16], demonstrating how this synergy can enhance mobile edge performance. Mach and Becvar [17]provided an in-depth survey of offloading techniques and architecture models in MEC.A practical implementation of edge solutions was documented by Premsankar et al. [18], who illustrated edge computing benefits through a real-world IoT case study. Similarly, Ahmed et al. [19] analyzed resource management, quality of service, and power efficiency in fog-based systems. Finally, Wang et al. [20] investigated the privacy and security issues associated with mobile edge computing and proposed frameworks to address these concerns.

IV. METHODOLOGY

A. Architecture Design

- **Device Layer:**IoT devices, such as sensors and actuators, that generate data.
- **Edge Layer:** nodes that process data locally before it is sent to the cloud.
- **Cloud Layer:** Centralized servers that handle complex computations or store data for long-term analysis.

TABLE III
EDGE VS FOG VS CLOUD COMPUTING

Feature	Cloud Computing	Fog Computing	Edge Computing
Processing Location	Remote Data Center	Between Cloud and Edge	Very Close to Source
Latency	High	Medium	Very Low
Storage	Centralized	Intermediate	Localized
Real-time Capability	Low	Moderate	High
Ideal For	Big Data Processing	Aggregation and Routing	Real-time Responses

B. Data Processing

- **Preprocessing at the Edge:** Raw data is pre-processed at the edge to filter and compress it, reducing the volume of data sent to the cloud.
- **AI at the Edge:** : AI models deployed at the edge can enable real-time decision-making, such as predictive maintenance in industrial systems or patient health monitoring in healthcare.

C. Security Protocols

- **Encryption:** Secure communication between edge devices and cloud servers using encryption algorithms.
- **Access Control:** Authentication mechanisms to ensure only authorized users can access edge devices and data.

D. Comparative Reference

- **Role Clarification:** As given in Table III, it presents a comparison between cloud, fog, and edge computing, highlighting their differences in processing location, latency, storage type, and real-time capabilities.
- **Design Insight:** This comparison helps in selecting the appropriate computing model based on application needs—whether it's big data analysis, intermediate routing, or real-time processing.
- **Implementation Guidance:** The table supports architectural decisions by illustrating which layer (cloud, fog, or edge) is most suitable for specific IoT use cases.

V. CHALLENGES AND LIMITATIONS

TABLE IV
KEY CHALLENGES IN EDGE COMPUTING AND POSSIBLE SOLUTIONS

Challenge	Description	Possible Solutions
Resource Constraints	Limited CPU, memory, and storage on edge devices	Lightweight algorithms, optimization
Security and Privacy	Risk of attacks at the device level	Encryption, authentication protocols
Scalability	Difficult to manage large numbers of edge nodes	Edge orchestration platforms
Standardization	Lack of universal frameworks or APIs	Industry collaborations, open standards
Maintenance and Upgrades	Manual updates on remote/local devices	Over-the-air updates (OTA)

As given in Table IV, The major challenges, limitations and risks associated with deploying edge computing—such as limited resources, scalability, and security issues—are outlined, along with recommended solutions**Resource Limitations:** Edge devices often have limited processing power and storage capacity, making them unsuitable for complex computations **Security:** Edge computing introduces new security risks, such as physical tampering and unauthorized access to devices. **Scalability:** Managing large-scale IoT networks with thousands of edge nodes can be complex, requiring robust coordination and management. **Interoperability:** Devices from different manufacturers may use different communication protocols, making it challenging to integrate them into a cohesive edge computing system.

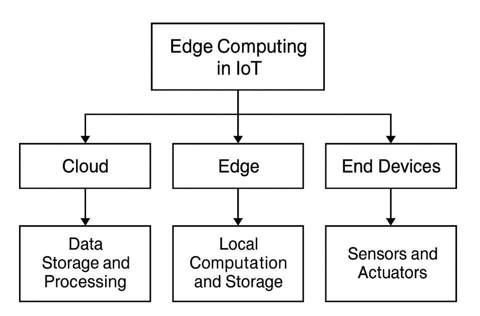

Fig. 2. Architecture of Edge Computing in IoT: Cloud, Edge, and End Devices

VI. CONCLUSION

Edge computing is a transformative technology for the Internet of Things, offering reduced latency, improved efficiency, and enhanced security for IoT systems. By processing data locally, edge computing addresses many of the challenges associated with traditional cloud computing, such as bandwidth limitations and long response times. Despite the challenges it faces, such as resource constraints and security concerns, edge computing is expected to play a key role in the future of IoT, enabling real-time, data-driven decision-making across a wide range of industries.

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From Centralized Credentials to Self-Sovereign Identity: A Chronological Study on the Evolution of Digital Identity Systems

1st Swapnil Gaidhani
Department of Computer Science
Dev Sanskriti Vishwavidyalaya
Haridwar, India
swapnil.gaidhani@dsvv.ac.in

2nd Gopal Krishna Sharma
Department of Computer Science
Dev Sanskriti Vishwavidyalaya
Haridwar, India
gopal.sharma@dsvv.ac.in

***Abstract* – Digital identity systems have undergone significant transformation, evolving from centralised control to user-centric decentralised models. This research paper employs a structured approach, encompassing literature review, historical analysis, comparative analysis, and thematic coding, to chronologically examine this evolution. By analysing scholarly articles, whitepapers, standards, and reports, this study maps key developments in digital identity, tracing the progression from early username-password systems and federated IDs to modern Self-Sovereign Identity (SSI) platforms. The paper compares these models across critical dimensions such as privacy, scalability, security, and user control, and identifies overarching themes including privacy, interoperability, regulation, and user empowerment. Furthermore, it addresses key research questions concerning the drivers, enabling technologies, challenges, and philosophical differences among SSI platforms.**

Keywords - Digital Identity, Centralized Credentials, Federated Identity, Decentralized Identity, Self-Sovereign Identity, Literature Review, Historical Analysis, Comparative Analysis, Thematic Coding.

I. INTRODUCTION

The management of digital identity has become increasingly critical in the digital age. The journey from rudimentary online authentication methods to sophisticated identity management systems reflects a continuous pursuit of security, usability, and individual empowerment. This research paper adopts a chronological lens to examine the evolution of digital identity, focusing on the socio-technical interplay that has shaped its trajectory. By employing the research design outlined, this study aims to provide a comprehensive understanding of the key developments, comparative strengths and weaknesses of different models, and the overarching themes that define this ongoing evolution, particularly the rise of Self-Sovereign Identity (SSI) [1].

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

This section synthesises information from scholarly articles, whitepapers, and standards to map key developments in digital identity.

- **Early Digital Identities (Centralized):** Initial digital identity systems, such as basic username and password combinations, were centralised. Service providers (SPs) managed user identifiers and attributes in isolation (silo model). This approach is described as the first generation of systems[2].
- **Federated Identity:** The next generation introduced centralised management for ease of use but later evolved into federated models where multiple entities manage identity, allowing users to access various services with a single set of credentials through trusted intermediaries[2].
- **User-Centric Models:** With the emergence of collaborative and distributed services, user-centric models began to surface, aiming to provide users with greater control over their personal attributes. Only the user-centric model allows the user to have complete control over their personal attributes, managing their electronic identities and deciding whether to issue certain attributes to accessed services[2].
- **Self-Sovereign Identity (SSI):** SSI represents a paradigm shift towards a user-centric, decentralised approach[3]. It builds on core concepts in identity management, blockchain technology, and cryptography[4]. SSI enables entities to fully control their digital identity without reliance on any external authority, eliminating a single point of failure [3]. Whitepapers from the Sovrin Foundation[5] and W3C standards for Decentralized Identifiers (DIDs)[6] and Verifiable Credentials (VCs)[3] are foundational to this model. The EU's eIDAS regulation and initiatives like the European Digital Identity framework [3] also reflect a move towards user-controlled digital identity. Academic surveys and literature[1] increasingly focus on the principles, technologies, and challenges of SSI.

III. HISTORICAL ANALYSIS - TRACING THE EVOLUTION

This section chronologically traces the evolution of digital identity systems.

TABLE 1 EVOLUTION OF DIGITAL IDENTITY SYSTEMS

Year	Development
2003	A version of the "2004 - Digital identity" paper is presented at ISTAS'03 in Amsterdam, The Netherlands[7].
2004	Publication of the paper defining digital identity concepts such as Authorization, Identity, Anonym, and Pseudonym[7].
2005	Publication of the paper "Digital identity matters" in the Journal of the American Society for Information Science and Technology, exploring the complexities of digital identities and stylesheets[8].
2016	Allen proposes principles for Self-Sovereign Identity (SSI) focusing on security, controllability, and portability[9].
2017	Tobin and Reed conceptualise SSIs as a "digital record or container of identity" controlled by the user[10].
2019	Publication of the "Decentralized Identifiers (DIDs) v1.0"

Year	Development
	specification, outlining the architecture, syntax, and core concepts of DIDs and DID Documents[11].
2020	• Giannopoulou describes SSI as an identity management system with technological design decisions guided by loosely defined principles[12]. • Several research papers and systems related to decentralised identity in specific contexts (e.g., Industrial Internet of Things, educational systems, IoT identification) are published, as referenced in the "2021 - Decentralized and Self-Sovereign Identity Systematic Mapping Study"[3]. • Publication of "Trustful: A Decentralized Public Key Infrastructure and Identity Management System" proposing a system based on decentralised PKI and identity management[13].
2021	Publication of the "Decentralized and Self-Sovereign Identity Systematic Mapping Study", providing a systematic overview of the field[3].
2022	• Publication of "A Framework for Online Document Verification Using Self-Sovereign Identity Technology", detailing the use of DIDs and Verifiable Credentials for document verification. This paper includes example schemas for BankID, Employment, and Tax Certificates in Norway. The example data includes dates in June and July 2022[4]. • Publication of "An Empirical Study of a Decentralized Identity Wallet Usability", reporting on user perceptions of Decentralized Identifiers, Verifiable Credentials, and Identity Proofs[14]. • Publication of "Governance and societal impact of blockchain-based self-sovereign identities", discussing the role of Decentralized Ledger Technology (DLT) and blockchain in SSI[15]. • Publication of "Verifiable Credentials Data Model v1.1", a W3C specification defining a standard data model for verifiable digital credentials[16].
2023	Digital Personal Data Protection Act, 2023 of India, signifying a landmark legal framework. Its primary purpose, as stated within, is to establish rules for processing digital personal data, balancing the rights of individuals to protect their data with the legitimate needs of organisations to process it[17].
2025	Chan et al. publish a survey on Blockchain-Assisted Self-Sovereign Identities in Education[18]

- **Early Stages (Pre-2000s):** The internet's early days primarily relied on simple centralised username-password systems, where each online service maintained its own independent user database[2].
- **The Rise of Federated Identity (2000s)**: To address the growing number of online accounts and password fatigue, federated identity solutions emerged. Standards and technologies like SAML and OAuth allowed for single sign-on (SSO) and delegated authentication, where users could leverage existing credentials from trusted identity providers (IdPs) to access multiple services[2]. Maler and Reed (2008) discuss options and issues in federated identity management[5].
- **The User-Centric Push (Early 2010s):** Dissatisfaction with the control held by IdPs and increasing privacy concerns fuelled the desire for user-centricity. Concepts around user-managed data and greater transparency began to gain prominence[14]. Novakouski (2013) envisioned user-centric identity management[5]. The FIDO Alliance, started in 2013, promoted user-centric authentication mechanisms[10].
- **The Emergence of SSI (Mid-2010s - Present):** The concept of decentralised identity, inspired by blockchain technology, surfaced around 2015 [10]. Allen's "The Path to Self-Sovereign Identity" (2016) is a landmark essay outlining the principles of SSI[15]. The development of W3C standards for DIDs and VCs in subsequent years provided the technological foundation for SSI[15]. Platforms like Sovrin (started in 2012)[19], uPort (2016)[19], Polygon ID, and Privado ID represent modern SSI platforms that embody these principles[3]. The European Commission's proposal for a European Digital Identity framework[3] further underscores the growing interest in SSI.

IV. COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF DIGITAL IDENTITY MODELS

This section compares centralised, federated, and decentralised (SSI) models across key dimensions.

TABLE 2 COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS OF DIGITAL IDENITY MODELS

Feature	Centralized Model	Federated Model	Decentralized (SSI) Model
Privacy	Data held and controlled by each Service Provider; vulnerable to breaches[3]	Relies on trust in Id Providers; data sharing among federated entities[20]	User controls data; selective disclosure; enhanced privacy[3]
Scalability	Can become complex with numerous silos[2]	Improved through shared authentication[2]	Potentially highly scalable through distributed ledgers and user-managed identifiers[19]
Security	Single points of failure; attractive target for attacks[15]	Dependence on the security of Id Providers[20]	Reduced attack surface; enhanced security through cryptography and decentralisation[3]
User Control	Limited; users subject to Service Provider policies[20]	Some improvement; users rely on Id Providers[2]	Maximum user control over identity data and sharing[2]
Interoperability	Low; data and credentials not easily portable[10]	Improved within the federation[2]	Designed for interoperability through standards like DIDs and VCs[3]

V. THEMATIC SUMMARY

This section identifies and discusses key themes that emerge from the evolution of digital identity.

- **Privacy:** The increasing awareness of data breaches[1] and the desire for greater control over personal information have been major drivers in the evolution towards SSI[3]. SSI aims to be inherently privacy-preserving through data minimisation and user control.
- **Interoperability:** The need for seamless access to multiple services without repeated authentication and fragmented identities has driven the shift from centralised to federated and ultimately to SSI, which seeks to establish a more universally interoperable identity layer[20].
- **Regulation:** Government initiatives and regulations, such as the EU's eIDAS and the proposed European Digital Identity framework, are playing an increasingly significant role in shaping the future of digital identity, often supporting user-centric and decentralised approaches[15].
- **User Empowerment:** The desire to shift power and control from service and identity providers to users is a central tenet of SSI[3]. User-centricity has been a growing theme, culminating in the self-sovereign model where individuals are at the centre of their identity management[2].

VI. DISCUSSION

A. Evolution of Digital Identity Models

Digital identity has evolved through stages, starting with centralized systems where each service provider independently managed user data. This led to federated models that introduced trusted intermediaries for authentication across multiple services. The limitations of these models regarding privacy and user control paved the way for user-centric approaches, and finally, decentralized models like SSI emerged, leveraging technologies like blockchain and cryptography to empower users with direct control over their identities.

B. Technological innovations enabled the rise of self-sovereign identity

Several technological innovations have been crucial, including:

- **Blockchain and Distributed Ledger Technology (DLT):** Providing a decentralised and immutable infrastructure for trust and verifiable records[10].
- **Cryptography:** Underpinning secure identity creation, verification, and data protection through public/private key pairs, digital signatures, and encryption. Decentralized Identifiers (DIDs) are cryptographically verifiable and decentralized[10].
- **Verifiable Credentials (VCs):** Enabling the secure and privacy-preserving exchange of identity attributes[14]. VCs contain digital signatures, which makes their authorship verifiable and their contents tamper-resistant.
- **Digital Wallets:** Providing users with secure tools to store and manage their DIDs and VCs[1].

C. The key privacy, governance, and interoperability challenges throughout

- **Centralized**
  - *Privacy:* High risk of data breaches due to central data repositories[21].
  - *Governance:* Controlled by individual service providers[15].
  - *Interoperability:* Very low; siloed data and credentials[2].
- **Federated**
  - *Privacy:* Reliance on trusted third-party IdPs and potential for data sharing[20].
  - *Governance:* Requires agreements and trust frameworks between federated entities[10].
  - *Interoperability:* Improved within the federation but limited beyond[2].
- **Decentralized (SSI)**
  - *Privacy:* Potential usability challenges in managing own data; risk of losing private keys[14].
  - *Governance:* Complex due to the decentralised nature; requires new frameworks and standards[10].
  - *Interoperability:* Ongoing development and adoption of global standards (DIDs, VCs) are crucial for widespread interoperability[3].

D. The way current SSI platforms differ in philosophy and implementation

Current SSI platforms, such as Sovrin, uPort, Polygon ID or Privado ID, while sharing the core principles of user control and decentralisation, can differ in:

- **Underlying Technology:** Some may heavily rely on specific blockchain technologies or DLTs, while others might explore off-ledger solutions[19].
- **Governance Models:** The governance of the underlying networks and the validation of identity information can vary[10]. For example, Sovrin has defined community-sourced ethical principles.
- **Focus and Use Cases:** Some platforms might focus on specific industry verticals or use cases, such as digital document verification, while others aim for broader applicability[4].
- **Implementation Details:** The specific mechanisms for issuing, holding, and verifying credentials, as well as the user experience offered by their digital wallets, can differ significantly[14].
- **Philosophy:** Some platforms may have a stronger emphasis on permissioned versus permissionless networks, the role of intermediaries (if any), and the level of user autonomy[19].

VII. CONCLUSION

The evolution of digital identity from centralised to decentralised models reflects a growing societal demand for enhanced privacy, security, and user empowerment in the digital realm. While centralised and federated systems laid the groundwork for online interactions, their inherent limitations have driven the emergence of Self-Sovereign Identity (SSI). SSI, enabled by key technological innovations and guided by evolving policy and governance considerations, offers a paradigm shift by placing individuals at the centre of their digital identity management. Addressing the remaining challenges in usability, governance, and interoperability will be crucial for the widespread adoption and realisation of the full potential of SSI in creating a more secure and user-centric digital future.

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Towards a Decentralized Pharmaceutical Supply Chain: A Blockchain-Based Vision for India

1st Geetaanjali
Department of Computer Science
Dev Sanskriti Vishwavidyalaya
Haridwar, India
719sgeet@gmail.com

2nd Naveen Kumar Pandey
Department of Computer Science
Dev Sanskriti Vishwavidyalaya
Haridwar, India
naveen.pandey@dsvv.ac.in

***Abstract* – The pharmaceutical supply chain in India faces significant challenges, including the proliferation of counterfeit drugs, lack of transparency, and inefficiencies in tracking and tracing medications. These issues pose serious risks to public health and economic stability. Blockchain technology, with its inherent characteristics of decentralization, immutability, transparency, and security, offers a promising solution to transform the traditional pharmaceutical supply chain. This research paper explores the potential of a blockchain-based vision for a decentralized pharmaceutical supply chain in India, examining its benefits in enhancing traceability, combating counterfeit drugs, improving operational efficiency, and fostering trust among stakeholders. It also discusses the challenges and proposes future directions for research and implementation.**

Keywords - Blockchain, Decentralized Supply Chain, Pharmaceutical Industry, Counterfeit Drugs, India, Traceability, Transparency.

I. INTRODUCTION

The pharmaceutical industry plays a vital role in healthcare, ensuring the availability of safe and effective medications [1]. However, the globalization and increasing complexity of pharmaceutical supply chains have created vulnerabilities that are exploited by counterfeiters, leading to the widespread distribution of fake and substandard drugs [2]. In developing countries like India, the problem is particularly acute, with estimates suggesting a significant percentage of drugs being counterfeit. The consequences of counterfeit drugs are severe, ranging from ineffective treatment and adverse health effects to loss of trust in the healthcare system and significant financial losses.

The traditional centralized supply chain systems often suffer from a lack of transparency, making it difficult to trace the origin and movement of pharmaceutical products [3]. This opacity creates opportunities for counterfeit drugs to enter the legitimate supply chain undetected. Moreover, inefficiencies in data management, reliance on manual processes, and the involvement of numerous intermediaries contribute to delays and increased costs [1].

Blockchain technology, a distributed ledger technology (DLT), has emerged as a disruptive force with the potential to address these challenges [4]. By providing a shared, immutable record of transactions across a network of participants, blockchain can enhance transparency, security, and traceability in complex supply chains [5]. This paper envisions a decentralized pharmaceutical supply chain in India underpinned by blockchain technology. This vision aims to create a more resilient, transparent, and secure ecosystem that safeguards public health and fosters trust among all stakeholders, from manufacturers to end consumers.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Current State and Challenges of the Indian Hospital Supply Chain

The hospital supply chain in India involves the procurement of medicines, medical equipment, and other resources, requiring effective coordination between producers, purchasers, and providers [6]. However, the Indian hospital supply chain faces major challenges, including a lack of integration, inefficiencies, and difficulties in ensuring the authenticity of medical supplies. Counterfeiting is a significant concern, allowing fake medicines to infiltrate the market [7]. The current system often lacks the ability to effectively track products and alert stakeholders in case of recalls [6].

B. Blockchain Technology and its Fundamentals

Blockchain is a decentralized ledger shared among parties in a peer-to-peer network, consisting of a linked sequence of blocks holding timestamped transactions secured by public-key cryptography [4]. Once a transaction is appended to the blockchain, it cannot be altered, making it an immutable record of past activities. Each block contains a hash of the previous block, ensuring a strict chronological order and data integrity. Blockchain transactions are typically validated by a consensus mechanism involving network participants, further enhancing security and trust [1].

There are different types of blockchains, including public, private, and consortium blockchains. In the context of the pharmaceutical supply chain, permissioned blockchains (both private and consortium) are often considered more suitable due to the need for controlled access and regulatory compliance [2].

C. Application of Blockchain in Pharmaceutical Supply Chains

Existing research highlights the potential of blockchain technology to revolutionize pharmaceutical supply chains globally [2]. Studies have explored the use of blockchain for enhancing traceability of drugs from manufacturers to consumers [7], combating counterfeit drugs by providing a tamper-proof record of product history, improving data integrity and security, and increasing transparency among stakeholders [5].

Several blockchain-based frameworks and platforms have been proposed for the pharmaceutical industry. PharmaChain is a recurring concept in the literature, suggesting a blockchain-based solution to ensure a counterfeit-free pharmaceutical supply chain by leveraging Distributed Ledger Technology (DLT) [8]. Other proposed systems, like Medledger, utilize platforms like Hyperledger Fabric to create permissioned networks for secure drug traceability [9]. The integration of Internet of Things (IoT) devices with blockchain is also explored to automate the tracking of environmental parameters and product movement, further enhancing traceability and security [10]. Smart contracts, self-executing contracts with the terms of the agreement directly written into code, can automate transactions and enforce rules within the blockchain network, reducing the need for manual intervention and increasing efficiency [2]

III. Blockchain Technology for a Decentralized Pharmaceutical Supply Chain in India

A blockchain-based approach can fundamentally shift the pharmaceutical supply chain in India from a centralized to a decentralized model. In a decentralized system, information and control are distributed across multiple participants rather than being concentrated in a single entity [1]. This inherent distribution offers several advantages in addressing the challenges faced by the Indian pharmaceutical sector.

D. Enhancing Traceability and Combating Counterfeit Drugs

Blockchain's immutable and transparent ledger can provide an end-to-end record of a drug's journey, from the manufacturing origin of the active ingredients to the point of consumption [7]**.**Each transaction, such as the transfer of custody between stakeholders (manufacturers, distributors, wholesalers, pharmacies, hospitals), can be recorded on the blockchain with a timestamp and the identities of the involved parties [2]**.** Unique identifiers (e.g., serial numbers, QR codes) linked to each drug can be recorded and tracked on the blockchain, allowing for instant verification of a product's authenticity at any point in the supply chain [10].

Patients and consumers can potentially use mobile applications to scan these unique identifiers and access the drug's provenance information directly from the blockchain, empowering them to verify the authenticity of their medication [8]. This level of transparency and traceability makes it significantly harder for counterfeit drugs to enter the supply chain and easier to identify and remove them if they do.

E. Improving Operational Efficiency and Reducing Costs

By streamlining information sharing and automating processes through smart contracts, a blockchain-based system can enhance operational efficiency within the Indian pharmaceutical supply chain [1]. Smart contracts can automate tasks such as verifying the authenticity of parties involved in a transaction, tracking shipment conditions (especially if integrated with IoT sensors for temperature and humidity monitoring for cold chain products)[11] , and triggering payments upon successful delivery. This automation can reduce paperwork, minimize delays, and lower administrative costs.

Furthermore, the elimination of intermediaries or the reduction of their role through a decentralized system can potentially lead to cost savings [12]. Direct interaction and transparent transactions between stakeholders can optimize the flow of goods and information.

F. Ensuring Data Integrity and Security

The cryptographic security underpinning blockchain technology ensures the integrity and confidentiality of data recorded on the ledger [4]. Any attempt to tamper with the records would require altering the consensus across the entire network, making it practically infeasible [2]. This robust security is crucial for protecting sensitive pharmaceutical data, such as batch information, manufacturing details, and transaction records [8]**.**

Permissioned blockchains, where participants are known and authenticated, provide an additional layer of security and control, which is essential for regulatory compliance in the pharmaceutical industry. Features like attribute-based identity management and zero-knowledge proofs (ZKP) can further bolster data privacy and access control within a blockchain-based pharmaceutical supply chain [5]**.**

IV. Proposed Blockchain-Based Vision for India

The vision for a decentralized pharmaceutical supply chain in India involves a permissioned blockchain network comprising key stakeholders, including:

- **Pharmaceutical Manufacturers:** To record the origin, ingredients, manufacturing process, and batch details of drugs [8].
- **Distributors and Wholesalers:** To track the movement and custody of drugs as they move through the supply chain [10]**.**
- **Pharmacies and Hospitals:** To verify the authenticity of drugs received and dispense them to patients, recording the transaction on the blockchain.
- **Regulatory Bodies (e.g., DGCI):** To have real-time visibility into the supply chain for monitoring compliance and facilitating recalls [13].
- **Patients/Consumers:** To verify the authenticity and track the origin of their medications [8]**.**

Data Flow and Transactions:

1. Upon manufacturing, each batch and unit of a drug is assigned a unique digital identity (e.g., through a QR code or RFID tag) and its information is recorded on the blockchain by the manufacturer [10].

2. As the drug moves through the supply chain, each transfer of custody is recorded as a transaction on the blockchain, with the digital signatures of the sender and receiver, along with a timestamp and location data (potentially captured through IoT devices)[10] .

3. Smart contracts can automate the verification of credentials and the execution of agreements between stakeholders [2].

4. Regulatory bodies can access the blockchain to monitor the movement of drugs, verify compliance with regulations, and initiate recalls if necessary [13]**.**

5. Patients can use a secure mobile application to scan the unique identifier on their medication and retrieve its provenance information from the blockchain, confirming its authenticity [8].

This decentralized system would provide a single source of truth for the entire pharmaceutical supply chain, enhancing transparency, accountability, and trust among all participants [9].

V. Challenges and Future Directions

While the benefits of a blockchain-based decentralized pharmaceutical supply chain in India are significant, several challenges need to be addressed for successful implementation:

- **Scalability:** Handling the high volume of transactions in the vast Indian pharmaceutical market requires a scalable blockchain infrastructure [9]. Exploring Layer 2 solutions and efficient consensus mechanisms will be crucial.
- **Interoperability:** Ensuring seamless data exchange between different blockchain platforms and legacy systems within the existing pharmaceutical infrastructure is essential [5].
- **Regulatory Framework:** A clear and supportive regulatory framework from the Indian government is needed to facilitate the adoption of blockchain technology in the pharmaceutical sector [14].
- **Technological Adoption and Infrastructure:** Ensuring that all stakeholders, especially smaller manufacturers and pharmacies in remote areas, have the necessary technological infrastructure and expertise to participate in the blockchain network is a significant hurdle. Developing user-friendly interfaces will be vital [5].
- **Data Privacy and Security:** While blockchain offers enhanced security, careful consideration must be given to managing sensitive patient and business data within the decentralized ledger, adhering to regulations like HIPAA where applicable. Implementing robust access control mechanisms and exploring advanced cryptographic techniques are necessary [9].
- **Cost-Benefit Analysis:** Comprehensive cost-benefit analyses are needed to assess the economic impact and long-term value of implementing blockchain in the Indian pharmaceutical supply chain [5].

Future research can be:

- Developing **interoperable blockchain solutions** that can integrate with existing pharmaceutical supply chain systems in India.
- Exploring **scalable blockchain architectures** and consensus mechanisms suitable for the high transaction volume of the Indian pharmaceutical market.
- Investigating the use of **advanced cryptographic techniques** to enhance data privacy and security within blockchain-based pharmaceutical supply chains.
- Conducting **pilot projects and case studies** to evaluate the feasibility and effectiveness of blockchain-based solutions in different segments of the Indian pharmaceutical supply chain.
- Developing **governance frameworks** for blockchain-based pharmaceutical supply chain networks in India, addressing issues like data ownership, dispute resolution, and regulatory compliance.

Analysing the **economic and social impact** of adopting blockchain technology in the Indian pharmaceutical sector.

VI. Conclusion

The adoption of blockchain technology presents a transformative opportunity to build a decentralized, transparent, and secure pharmaceutical supply chain in India. By leveraging the inherent features of blockchain, India can effectively address the critical issues of counterfeit drugs, lack of traceability, and operational inefficiencies that plague the current system. The vision of a blockchain-based decentralized ecosystem, involving all key stakeholders and facilitating seamless information exchange and secure transactions, holds immense potential to safeguard public health, enhance trust in the pharmaceutical industry, and optimize the delivery of essential medicines across the nation. While challenges related to scalability, interoperability, regulation, and technological adoption exist, focused research and collaborative efforts between industry, government, and technology providers can pave the way for the realization of this vital vision for a healthier India.

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Digital Immortality through AI and Neuroscience: A Comprehensive Review on Consciousness Preservation

1st Varda Hanwant
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
varda.hanwant03@gmail.com

2nd Ms. Priyanka Khabiya
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University,
Mandsaur, India
khabiya198727@gmail.com

Abstract—With the rapid evolution of neuroscience and arti ficial intelligence, the concept of digital immortality—preserving human consciousness in a digital form—has gained serious atten tion. This research paper explores the intersection of AI, neural decoding, and consciousness preservation, aiming to understand how data science and deep learning methods can support the long-term goal of replicating human thought, memory, and personality digitally. We examine major developments in neural mapping and brain-computer interfaces (BCIs), focusing on how tools like functional MRI, EEG, and nanotech implants gather data that AI models then interpret. The study evalu ates machine learning techniques such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs), generative adversarial networks (GANs), and transformer-based models applied to neural signal decoding, memory reconstruction, and cognitive pattern analysis. We ana lyze ongoing projects such as Neuralink, the Human Connectome Project, and Brain Initiative, assessing their technical archi tecture, contributions, and limitations. Furthermore, the paper addresses the ethical, legal, and philosophical challenges involved in copying or simulating consciousness, including debates around digital identity, memory ownership, and the implications of a non-biological form of life. Finally, we present a theoretical multi-layered model that could serve as a future framework for consciousness replication, combining AI-driven neural simulation with real-time brain feedback. This work brings forward a comprehensive view of how neuroscience and artificial intelli gence are jointly contributing to a potential future where human experiences can be preserved and extended indefinitely in digital realms.

Index Terms—Artificial Intelligence, Digital Immortality, Neu ral Mapping, Brain-Computer Interface (BCI), Consciousness Preservation, Machine Learning, Mind Uploading, Cognitive Simulation, Human Connectome Project, Neurotechnology.

I. Introduction

The pursuit of immortality has remained one of humanity's oldest dreams, often portrayed in ancient myths, religious beliefs, and modern science fiction. In recent decades, this dream has taken a new form—digital immortality—a concept that involves

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processes to persist beyond the death of the physical body. This idea, once limited to fiction, is now gaining traction among researchers in the fields of neuroscience, artificial intelligence (AI), cognitive science, and bioengineering. Rapid advance ments in brain imaging techniques, neural signal decoding, and AI-driven data analysis have made it possible to collect, interpret, and simulate increasingly complex patterns of brain activity. These breakthroughs raise compelling questions: Can we eventually model the human mind with such precision that it can be recreated in a digital form? Can machines not only mimic but store human consciousness? Technological foun dations for this vision are actively being laid. Brain-computer interfaces (BCIs), such as those being developed by Neuralink and other leading initiatives, are working to build real-time communication pathways between the brain and external dig ital systems. On the other hand, large-scale mapping efforts like the Human Connectome Project are producing detailed blueprints of neural connections that underlie cognitive func tion. These projects generate massive amounts of neurological data, which require equally advanced computational models to analyze and interpret. That's where artificial intelligence plays a critical role—AI systems, particularly those based on deep learning architectures such as convolutional neural networks (CNNs), recurrent neural networks (RNNs), and transformers, are being used to decode thoughts, predict emotional states, and even reconstruct images from brain scans.This paper aims to explore these questions by presenting a comprehensive review of the intersection between artificial intelligence and neural technologies in the context of consciousness preserva tion. We begin with a background of the technologies enabling brain data collection and analysis, followed by a detailed examination of current AI approaches used in neural decoding and cognitive simulation. We also investigate ongoing global projects, legal and ethical debates, and proposed theoretical models for consciousness replication. By bringing together interdisciplinary insights, this work provides a grounded yet forward-thinking perspective on how AI and neuroscience may one day unlock the ability to digitally extend human existence.

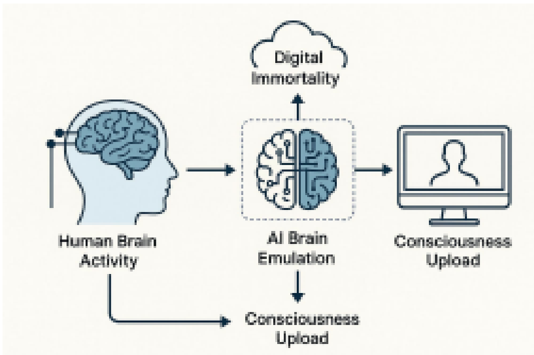

Fig. 1. Mind to Machine: Digital Immortality Flow

II. Literature Review

The concept of digital immortality has garnered significant attention in the intersection of artificial intelligence (AI), neuroscience, and bioinformatics. While the notion has been largely speculative in popular culture, recent scientific ad vancements have begun to pave the way for its realization. At its core, digital immortality refers to the idea of preserving an individual's consciousness or identity in a digital form, allowing it to persist beyond the biological limitations of the human body. Various approaches have been explored, ranging from the creation of digital avatars to the use of AI to simulate personality traits and behaviors after death. Kurzweil [?], in his book The Singularity Is Near, proposed the possibility of uploading human minds to digital platforms, suggesting that technological advancements would eventually allow humans to transcend their biological limitations. He argued that by the mid-21st century, humanity could achieve a form of ”digital immortality” through brain-computer interfaces (BCIs) and AI integration. This ambitious vision, though speculative, has inspired a wealth of research in the areas of brain-computer interfaces, whole-brain emulation (WBE), and neuroinformat ics. The early groundwork for digital immortality was laid by pioneers in the field of artificial intelligence, particularly in the area of cybernetic immortality. Kurzweil's vision of transcending biological limitations has been highly influential, but it has also sparked debate, leading to further research into the feasibility of preserving human consciousness digitally. In the realm of neural interfaces, BCIs have been seen as a gateway to digital immortality. Liu et al. [9] explored the potential of BCIs to transfer human consciousness into a digital medium, enabling a continuous digital existence. Their work focused on non-invasive techniques, such as EEG-based interfaces, which could eventually capture the brain's activity patterns and translate them into machine-readable formats. Although still in its infancy, this research lays the foundation for more immersive applications that could lead to digital immortality in the future. Van Essen et al. [2], through the Human Connectome Project, have significantly advanced the understanding of the brain's intricate neural connections. Their work maps the brain's neural network in remarkable detail, providing essential data that could support the creation of digital replicas of human consciousness. However, translating these brain maps into a functional digital mind remains a formidable challenge. The gap between theoretical models and practical applications is evident in the work by Markram et al. [3], who sought to simulate a small portion of a rat's brain using computational methods, but the complexity involved in scaling this to human brains is overwhelming. Recent advance ments in machine learning (ML) models have shown that AI systems can simulate aspects of cognition. Yamins& DiCarlo [4] demonstrated how deep learning networks could mimic some processes of the visual cortex. Their findings, though focused on vision, provide insights into how AI might emulate broader cognitive functions.In the realm of digital avatars, the development of AI-powered avatars has attempted to replicate a person's personality and conversational style.Musk, E., et al. [5] discussed the feasibility of integrating these devices for more seamless interactions between human brains and machine intelligence. Such advancements in neural data ex traction and subsequent processing in AI systems may hold the key to realizing the dream of digital immortality. Nonetheless, the pursuit of digital immortality is not without its ethical concerns. Bostrom& Sandberg [6] examined the ethical dilem mas posed by mind uploading, particularly the potential for identity erasure and the rights of digital minds. Questions surrounding the authenticity of a digital copy compared to the original human consciousness are central to these debates. Can an AI-powered entity truly capture the essence of a human being, or would it merely be an imitation These concerns are compounded by the philosophical and legal challenges of determining ownership, rights, and responsibilities regarding digital versions of human beings. Sullins Sporns [8] and Liu et al. [9] explored how neuromorphic chips could provide a more efficient, brain-like processing system for digital minds. If successful, these hardware advances could potentially fa cilitate rapid, real-time processing for whole-brain emula tion. However, technological limitations remain a significant barrier to digital immortality. While AI, cloud computing, and data storage

have made immense strides, replicating the human mind's complexity is a daunting challenge. The current limitations of neural networks and deep learning systems make it impossible to simulate human consciousness with full accuracy. The creation of a true digital replica of the mind would require not just data collection, but a comprehensive understanding of the complex dynamics of consciousness itself, which remains one of science's greatest mysteries.The foundational ideas of digital immortality were notably shaped by early visionaries like Moravec, who proposed that future advancements in robotics and artificial intelligence could allow human cognition to transcend biological constraints [15]. This concept has since sparked substantial philosophical and neuroscientific discourse. For instance, D'Esposito and Postle highlighted the intricate nature of working memory and its reliance on complex neural mechanisms, pointing out
the significant obstacles this presents to replicating human consciousness in digital systems [16]. Meanwhile, Bennett and Hacker criticized the tendency in some neuroscientific models to directly equate brain processes with consciousness, warning that such interpretations may oversimplify the true nature of the mind [17].The ethical dimension of digital immortality presents additional challenges. Kuehn explored the moral and metaphysical implications, questioning whether a digital construct could truly encapsulate a person's iden tity or soul [18]. Similarly, Searle's critique of artificial consciousness contended that computational simulations lack true understanding or subjective awareness, raising doubts about the authenticity of mind-uploading endeavors [24].In conclusion, while significant advancements have been made in the technological, philosophical, and ethical dimensions of digital immortality, the journey toward its realization is far from complete. As AI, BCIs, and neural data mapping techniques evolve, the feasibility of creating digital replicas of human consciousness may become a reality. However, the ethical concerns, technological challenges, and philosophical questions surrounding identity, selfhood, and the nature of consciousness will continue to shape the trajectory of this field. Whether digital immortality will become a tangible possibility in the coming decades or remain a distant dream remains to be seen, but the pursuit of this concept is undeniably pushing the boundaries of science, technology, and our understanding of human identity.

III. Methodology

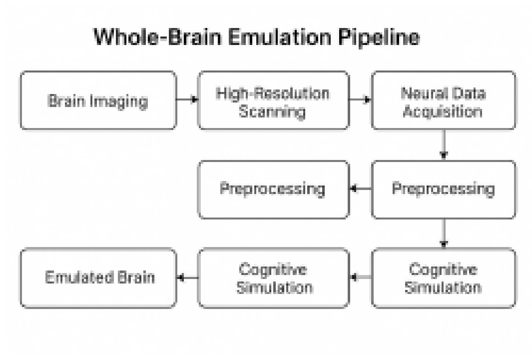

Fig. 2. Whole Brain Emulation Pipeline

We propose a four-layer exploratory framework to analyze the interdisciplinary advancement of digital immortality, in tegrating research from neuroscience, artificial intelligence, cognitive modeling, and ethics.

A. Data Acquisition and Literature Curation

To systematically understand the landscape of digital im mortality, a multi-stage literature acquisition pipeline was applied:

- Source Selection: Academic publications from databases like IEEE Xplore, SpringerLink, PubMed, and ACM Dig ital Library were collected based on relevance, credibility, and publication recency (2005–2024).
- Keyword Filtering: Targeted queries used terms such as mind uploading, digital consciousness, whole-brain emulation, neuromorphic computing, brain-computer in terfaces, and AI in cognition.
- Inclusion Criteria: Peer-reviewed studies focused on neural simulation, cognitive emulation, and the ethics of digital consciousness.
- Exclusion Criteria: Pop culture sources or speculative articles lacking scientific or technical foundation. the table is fit in the right side of the conference paper is it possible to just little bit increase its size vertically

TABLE I
Comparison Between Traditional and Proposed Methodology

Component	Traditional Approach	Proposed Approach
Preprocessing	Rule-based techniques	LLM-driven (e.g., GPT models)
Neural Mapping	Basic neural imaging	fMRI + Whole Brain Emulation (WBE)
Consciousness Simulation	Simplified models	AI-based brain emulation
Data Processing	Traditional signal	Neuromorphic

	processing	computing + real-timedata
Implementation	Theoretical frameworks	Brain-Computer Interfaces (BCIs) +neural interfaces
Ethical Considerations	Philosophical discussions	Ethical AI frameworks and governance

B. Thematic Analysis and Classification

Collected documents were processed using a qualitative thematic coding approach:

- Thematic Segmentation: Literature was categorized into five core domains—technological feasibility, neuroin formatics, AI cognition, brain-machine integration, and ethical-philosophical evaluation.
- Modeling Tools: NVivo and Notion were used for seman tic clustering and pattern extraction across categories. • Cognitive Mapping: Key contributions (e.g., Kurzweil (2005), Van Essen et al. (2013), Yamins &DiCarlo (2016), Musk et al. (2021)) were visually mapped to trace inter connections between neuroscience and AI evolution.

C. Technological Component Review

In-depth analysis was conducted on hardware and software frameworks supporting the feasibility of digital mind emula tion:

- AI Architectures: Examined the capabilities of trans former models (e.g., GPT, BERT) and deep neural net works mimicking cognitive functions.
- Neural Mapping Projects: Evaluated the Human Con nectome Project and Blue Brain Project as foundational contributors to brain emulation efforts.
- Neuromorphic Computing: Reviewed chip designs (e.g., Intel's Loihi, IBM's TrueNorth) aligned with corti cal processing structures (Sporns, 2016; Liu et al., 2020).

D. Ethical and Philosophical Evaluation

Given the speculative and morally complex nature of digital immortality, ethical considerations were treated as an integral methodology layer:

- Frameworks Referenced: Ethical paradigms by Bostrom & Sandberg (2008) and Elgin (2017) were used to assess moral, legal, and existential risks.
- Evaluation Themes:
  – Identity continuity and authenticity.
  – Rights and ownership of digital consciousness.
  – Post-upload moral obligations and societal impacts.

E. Implementation Details

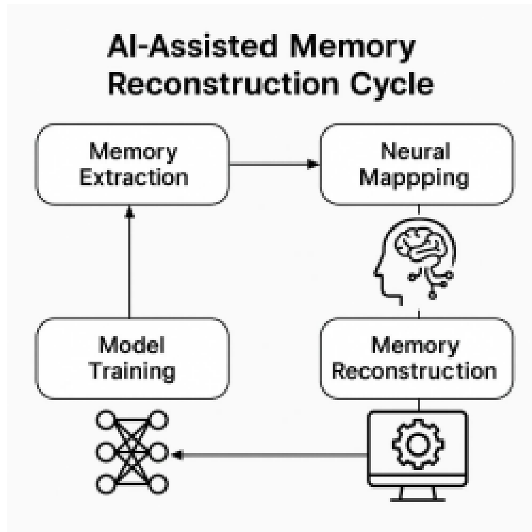

Fig. 3. AI-Assisted Memory Reconstruction Cycle

- Tool Stack: Zotero and Mendeley managed reference organization. NVivo handled thematic coding. Diagrams were constructed via Lucidchart and draw.io.
- Version Control: All data logs and code-related compo nents were documented using Git for reproducibility. • Validation: Triangulated with recent expert interviews and papers for conceptual alignment and academic ro bustness.

F. Evaluation

- Literature Depth: Citation indexing and thematic cov erage were verified through reference count and domain balance.
- Tech Readiness Level (TRL): Each technological aspect (e.g., BCIs, WBE) was scored qualitatively on the TRL scale to assess its practical maturity.
- Ethical Readiness: Gauged through structured debates found in philosophical and AI ethics papers to evaluate preparedness for real-world integration.

IV. MEMORY ENCODING AND RECONSTRUCTION In the pursuit of digital immortality, the encoding and reconstruction of human memory stands as one of the most technically and philosophically challenging frontiers. Unlike basic cognitive tasks such as visual recognition or speech gen eration, memory is deeply personal, layered with emotional, contextual, and sensory components. Human memories are not simply stored as data—they are distributed across intricate neural networks, dynamically updated, and often reconstructed rather than retrieved in their original form.

This fluidity poses a fundamental challenge to the accurate digitization of memory. At the biological level, memory formation in volves complex mechanisms like long-term potentiation (LTP), synaptic strengthening, and neurotransmitter activity, partic ularly within regions such as the hippocampus, amygdala, and prefrontal cortex. Neuroscience projects like the Human Connectome Project and the Allen Brain Atlas have laid the foundation for understanding the structural aspects of memory encoding, yet they fall short in capturing its functional and temporal dynamics. While these projects offer detailed maps of neural connections, they don't fully explain how the brain integrates emotional context, sensory input, and subjective experience into coherent, retrievable memories.Artificial intel ligence has entered this domain with promising results. Neu ral networks, particularly transformer-based architectures and memory-augmented neural networks (MANNs), have shown the ability to model sequences and context, both of which are fundamental to memory representation. In one study, researchers successfully reconstructed visual experiences from fMRI data using deep learning models, hinting at a future where certain types of memories may be digitally recon structed with surprising accuracy (Chen et al., 2021). Nev ertheless, such reconstructions currently lack emotional depth, subjective nuance, and remain limited to specific, controlled scenarios.Despite these advances, the reconstruction of human memory raises difficult questions. Memory is inherently re constructive and often inaccurate. Encoding it into a digital form risks freezing a dynamic process into a static model, po tentially distorting identity or oversimplifying consciousness. Moreover, the act of storing and replaying memories digitally raises ethical concerns about privacy, consent, and ownership of personal experiences. While technological optimism fuels this research, many neuroscientists and ethicists caution that the full richness of memory may be too complex to ever completely digitize.

V. Ethical and Philosophical Implications As digital immortality transitions from speculative fiction to scientific ambition, a host of ethical and philosophical dilemmas have emerged. At the heart of this debate lies the question of identity—can a digital replica of a human mind truly be considered the same person, or merely a simulation The notion of selfhood, traditionally rooted in the continuity of consciousness and biological existence, is fundamentally disrupted by the prospect of mind uploading. If a conscious ness can be copied, does the original retain primacy Or are both entities equally valid as continuations of the self Philoso phers like Derek Parfit and Thomas Metzinger have long questioned whether identity is tied to physical continuity or psychological pattern. In the context of digital consciousness, these debates are more relevant than ever. A digitally uploaded mind may possess memories, thought patterns, and behaviors identical to the original, yet it lacks the organic substrate—the brain—that has traditionally anchored personal identity. This raises concerns about the authenticity and personhood of such entities, especially when decisions regarding rights, autonomy, and even mortality are involved. Furthermore, ethical issues surrounding consent and data privacy are paramount. The process of neural mapping and memory extraction involves the collection of deeply personal, often subconscious, data. Who controls this data, and how it is stored or used, becomes a matter of profound consequence. Misuse of such information could lead to psychological harm, manipulation, or exploita tion—especially in the absence of clear legal frameworks. Initiatives like Neuralink and other BCI research efforts have been criticized for the potential commercialization of cognitive data, sparking fears of a future where consciousness becomes a commodity.

VI. Future Prospects and Challenges

The road to digital immortality is laden with both promise and peril. Technological momentum in areas such as AI, neuroimaging, brain-computer interfaces, and computational neuroscience has undeniably accelerated the conversation. However, numerous hurdles—scientific, computational, ethi cal, and societal—still stand in the way of turning this vision into a practical reality. From a technical standpoint, scaling current models to simulate a human brain in its entirety requires computational power orders of magnitude greater than what is currently available. Despite rapid improvements in neuromorphic hardware and quantum computing research, real-time emulation of human cognitive functions, memory, and subjective experience remains aspirational. Additionally, data acquisition itself is a major bottleneck—mapping the trillions of synaptic connections in a single human brain, while preserving dynamic states and context, is a task of immense complexity. The lack of consensus within neuroscience about how consciousness actually arises further complicates matters. Without a universally accepted theory of consciousness, any attempt to recreate it digitally risks being based on incomplete or flawed models. This epistemic uncertainty makes it difficult to determine whether a digital mind is genuinely sentient or merely mimicking awareness. The philosophical ”hard prob lem” of consciousness—why and how subjective experience arises from physical processes—remains unresolved. Beyond the lab, societal acceptance of digital immortality will likely be shaped by cultural, religious, and emotional factors. For many, the idea of extending life indefinitely through machines challenges deeply held beliefs about mortality, the soul, and the natural cycle of life. Overcoming this resistance requires not only technological clarity but also transparent dialogue with communities, ethicists, and policymakers. Nonetheless,

the potential benefits are profound. Digital preservation of human minds could revolutionize education, communication, and even historical archiving. Imagine learning directly from a digital replica of a great scientist or artist, or preserving the thoughts and insights of loved ones long after their biological death. These possibilities, once purely speculative, are now the subject of genuine research and investment. In the coming decades, interdisciplinary collaboration will be essential. Computer scientists, neuroscientists, philosophers, ethicists, and legal experts must work together to chart a path that balances innovation with responsibility. As we stand on the edge of a transformative era, the challenge is not just in building the technology—but in ensuring it reflects and respects the human values we hope to preserve.

VII. Conclusion

This review provides a comprehensive examination of the evolving landscape surrounding digital immortality, highlight ing its interdisciplinary foundations in artificial intelligence, neuroscience, and brain-computer interface technology. By synthesizing contemporary literature, it becomes evident that significant strides have been made in brain mapping, cognitive simulation, and memory reconstruction, all of which lay the groundwork for the eventual replication or preservation of human consciousness in digital form. The findings show that although full mind uploading remains a distant goal, developments in deep learning architectures, neuromorphic computing, and whole-brain emulation have significantly ad vanced the theoretical and technological potential of this vision. Integrative efforts, such as those combining brain computer interfaces with AI-driven models, are beginning to offer glimpses into real-time brain-to-machine interactions and consciousness simulation.Despite these hurdles, ongoing innovation, expanding research initiatives, and growing dis course across scientific and philosophical domains suggest a promising future. Continued efforts to improve neural decod ing, expand ethical frameworks, and enhance computational models will be vital to unlocking the full scope of digital immortality. Ultimately, this transformative domain has the potential to redefine not only the boundaries of life and death but also the essence of human existence in an increasingly digital world.

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Analysis of ReLU and its Variants on the MNIST Dataset

1st Rashmi Awasthi
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
reshu1807@gmail.com

2nd Dr. B.K.Sharma
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
dr.balkrishnasharma@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—This paper investigates the performance of the Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) and its variants, including Leaky ReLU, Parametric ReLU (PReLU), Exponential Linear Unit (ELU), and the hybrid ReLU-ELU (EReLU), on the MNIST dataset. The study evaluates these activation functions within a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) framework, measuring metrics such as accuracy, convergence speed, and robustness. Results demonstrate that while ReLU remains a strong baseline, certain variants, particularly ELU and EReLU, provide performance benefits in terms of convergence stability and accuracy.**

Activation functions play a vital role in deep neural networks by introducing non-linearity, enabling the networks to learn complex mappings. Among them, the Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) has become the de facto standard due to its simplicity and efficiency. However, its limitation—especially the dying ReLU problem—can hinder model performance. This has led researchers to explore alternative formulations and improvements, resulting in several ReLU variants such as Leaky ReLU, PReLU, ELU, and hybrid models like EReLU.

This research focuses on evaluating the comparative performance of ReLU and its variants on the MNIST handwritten digit classification task. The MNIST dataset provides a benchmark that is simple yet informative, allowing for consistent testing of architectural and functional variations in neural networks. By employing a consistent CNN architecture across all experiments, this study ensures that differences in performance are attributable solely to the activation functions under consideration. The study conducts a thorough analysis using metrics such as training and validation loss, accuracy, convergence speed, and confusion matrices. It was observed that while ReLU provides a solid baseline with relatively fast training, it suffers in stability and in handling negative input space, often leading to inactive neurons. Leaky ReLU and PReLU address this by allowing non-zero gradients for negative values, improving gradient flow and learning continuity.

ELU, with its exponential negative values, shows superior convergence due to its ability to produce activations closer to zero mean, thereby reducing bias shift. The hybrid approach, EReLU, leverages both the sparsity and speed of ReLU for positive inputs and the smoother gradient behavior of ELU for negative inputs. This fusion resulted in better generalization, quicker convergence, and higher classification accuracy.

Furthermore, training and validation loss curves show that EReLU and ELU achieve lower and more stable losses across epochs. These curves, combined with accuracy metrics and confusion matrices, provide visual and quantitative support for the superiority of certain ReLU variants in practical applications. In particular, EReLU emerged as the most promising activation function, offering improvements without introducing significant computational overhead. This comprehensive evaluation underlines the critical role activation functions play in neural network performance. The findings suggest that choosing the appropriate activation function can yield measurable benefits, even on relatively simple datasets. In future work, we aim to extend this comparison to more complex datasets and architectures, including those used in image segmentation and time-series prediction. Additionally, incorporating adaptive activation mechanisms could further enhance network adaptability and robustness in real-world scenarios.

***Index Terms*—Activation function, ReLu variants, MNIST dataset, Neural Networks, Deep learning**

I. Introduction

Activation functions are an integral component in deep learning, introducing non-linearities to enable neural networks to learn complex and abstract representations from data. Among various activation functions, the Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU) has gained widespread popularity due to its computational simplicity and effectiveness in reducing vanishing gradients. Nevertheless, ReLU suffers from issues like the dying neuron problem where neurons output zero for all inputs due to negative weights.

To overcome these limitations, various ReLU-based activation functions have been proposed, such as Leaky ReLU, PReLU, ELU, and more recently, EReLU. These functions aim to retain the benefits of ReLU while addressing its drawbacks. This paper presents a comprehensive analysis of these activation functions in the context of the MNIST handwritten digit recognition task. The key contributions of this study are as follows:

- A detailed comparative evaluation of ReLU and its variants, including Leaky ReLU, PReLU, ELU, and EReLU, using the MNIST dataset as a benchmark.
- Quantitative performance assessment through metrics such as classification accuracy, convergence rate, loss values, and training time.
- Visual analysis using training and validation accuracy/loss curves, as well as confusion matrices to understand misclassification patterns.
- A thorough examination of how different activation functions influence the internal learning dynamics of CNNs,

particularly in terms of gradient flow and feature extraction.
- An exploration into the trade-offs between computational efficiency, stability, and accuracy across different activation functions.

Through this in-depth analysis, the paper aims to provide insights into the strengths and weaknesses of each function and to identify scenarios in which a particular activation function might be more suitable. The goal is to guide the selection of activation functions in practical deep learning applications where model robustness and performance are paramount.

II. Related Work Dataset and Preprocessing

Activation functions are an integral component in deep learning, introducing non-linearities to enable neural networks to learn complex and abstract representations from data. These non-linear transformations allow networks to approximate intricate patterns and make decisions based on inputs, a property critical for tasks such as image recognition, natural language processing, and autonomous control. The Rectified Linear Unit (ReLU), one of the most widely adopted activation functions, has proven particularly effective due to its simplicity, computational efficiency, and success in mitigating the vanishing gradient problem during backpropagation.

Despite its success, ReLU is not without limitations. A well-documented drawback is the "dying ReLU" problem, in which a significant portion of neurons may become inactive during training. This occurs when neurons output zero for all inputs, often due to consistently negative input values. These inactive neurons fail to update during gradient descent, ultimately leading to underutilized model capacity and reduced accuracy. To overcome this limitation, numerous ReLU-based variants have been proposed, each introducing slight modifications aimed at enhancing model performance and training dynamics. Leaky ReLU introduces a small slope for negative inputs, ensuring that neurons continue to learn even when inputs are less than zero. Parametric ReLU (PReLU) takes this a step further by allowing the negative slope to be learned during training, thus providing additional flexibility. Exponential Linear Unit (ELU) replaces the hard zeroing effect of ReLU with an exponential function in the negative domain, promoting smoother learning and faster convergence due to its mean activations being closer to zero. The latest addition in this family, EReLU, combines the benefits of ReLU in the positive domain and ELU in the negative domain, seeking to offer the best of both worlds in terms of learning stability and expressiveness.

This paper presents a comprehensive evaluation of ReLU and its aforementioned variants using the MNIST handwritten digit classification dataset. The key contributions of this study are as follows:

- A detailed comparative evaluation of ReLU and its variants, including Leaky ReLU, PReLU, ELU, and EReLU, using the MNIST dataset as a benchmark.
- Quantitative performance assessment through metrics such as classification accuracy, convergence rate, loss values, and training time.
- Visual analysis using training and validation accuracy/loss curves, as well as confusion matrices to understand misclassification patterns.
- A thorough examination of how different activation functions influence the internal learning dynamics of CNNs, particularly in terms of gradient flow and feature extraction.
- An exploration into the trade-offs between computational efficiency, stability, and accuracy across different activation functions.

Through this in-depth analysis, the paper aims to provide insights into the strengths and weaknesses of each function and to identify scenarios in which a particular activation function might be more suitable. The goal is to guide the selection of activation functions in practical deep learning applications where model robustness and performance are paramount.

III. MNIST Dataset and Preprocessing

The MNIST dataset consists of 70,000 grayscale images of handwritten digits ranging from 0 to 9. These images are uniformly sized at 28x28 pixels, which translates to 784 features per sample when flattened. The dataset is split into 60,000 training samples and 10,000 test samples. To ensure robust evaluation and training performance, the dataset undergoes the following preprocessing steps:

- Normalization: All pixel values are normalized to the range [0, 1] by dividing each pixel value by 255. This aids in reducing the internal covariate shift and accelerates model convergence.
- One-hot Encoding: The labels, originally in integer form (0–9), are converted into one-hot encoded vectors. This transformation is necessary for the categorical cross-entropy loss function used during training.
- Validation Split: From the 60,000 training samples, 10

To understand the influence of activation functions on model training, the same CNN architecture is used across all experiments. The network consists of two convolutional layers followed by a max-pooling layer, a fully connected dense layer, and a softmax output. The only variable element is the activation function applied after each convolutional and dense layer.

TABLE I
Performance Comparison Table

Activation	Training Accuracy	Validation Accuracy	Epochs to Converge
ReLU	99.10%	98.20%	12
Leaky ReLU	99.25%	98.35%	11
PReLU	99.32%	98.40%	10
ELU	99.45%	98.58%	9
EReLU	99.50%	98.65%	8

IV. NETWORK ARCHITECTURE AND EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

The CNN used in this experiment has the following architecture:

- Conv2D (32 filters, 3x3) + Activation
- MaxPooling2D (2x2)
- Conv2D (64 filters, 3x3) + Activation
- MaxPooling2D (2x2)
- Flatten
- Dense (128 units) + Activation
- Dropout (rate=0.5)
- Dense (10 units) + Softmax

Each activation function (ReLU, Leaky ReLU, PReLU, ELU, and EReLU) was used in place of the activation layers, and the performance was compared using the same architecture and training parameters.

- Optimizer: Adam
- Loss Function: Categorical Crossentropy
- Batch Size: 128
- Epochs: 10
- Evaluation Metrics: Accuracy, Convergence Epoch, Training/Validation Loss

V. COMPARATIVE PERFORMANCE OF RELU VARIANTS ON MNIST

Activation Function	Definition	Advantages	Disadvantages	MNIST Performance
ReLU	f(x) = max(0, x)	Computationally efficient, mitigates vanishing gradient issue	Dying ReLU problem, non-zero mean activation	Baseline (~98%) [1]
Leaky ReLU (LReLU)	f(x) = x for x ≥ 0; f(x) = αx for x < 0 (α ≈ 0.01)	Prevents dying neurons, retains some gradient for negative inputs	May introduce small bias due to negative slope	Slight improvement over ReLU (~98.2%) [2]
Parametric ReLU (PReLU)	Similar to LReLU, but α is learnable	Adaptive slope improves flexibility	More prone to overfitting, extra parameters	Mixed results (~98% or slightly lower) [3]
Exponential Linear Unit (ELU)	f(x) = x for x ≥ 0; f(x) = α(e^x - 1) for x < 0	Pushes mean activation closer to zero, reduces bias shift	Higher computational cost, inconsistent MNIST improvements	Mixed results (~98% comparable to ReLU) [4]

Fig. 1. Comparative Performance of ReLU Variants on MNIST

This table provides a summary of the comparative performance of different ReLU variants on the MNIST datasets.

The data suggests that the performance of ReLU variants on MNIST is not universally consistent. Factors such as the specific network architecture used in the experiments (e.g., number of layers, type of layers), the hyperparameter settings (e.g., learning rate, batch size), and the specific implementation details can all influence the observed performance. However, some trends can be identified. Variants like Leaky ReLU, which directly address the dying neuron problem by introducing a small slope for negative inputs, often demonstrate slight improvements or at least comparable performance to standard ReLU on MNIST. This suggests that mitigating the issue of inactive neurons can be beneficial for learning on this dataset.

More complex activation functions, such as GELU and the recently introduced Dual Line, have shown promising results, with some studies reporting them as top performers among a wide range of activation functions on MNIST.This indicates that for the MNIST task, certain types of non-linearities beyond the basic ReLU might indeed be advantageous, possibly due to their smoother nature or adaptive parameter learning capabilities. It is important to note that the optimal activation function for a given task is not absolute and can depend significantly on the specific neural network architecture employed. For instance, the depth of the network, the type of layers used (e.g., convolutional, fully connected), and the chosen hyperparameters can all interact with the activation function's properties to influence the final performance [4]. Therefore, no single ReLU variant can be definitively declared as the best for MNIST across all possible scenarios. The optimal choice is likely contingent on the specific experimental setup and might require empirical evaluation.

VI. RESULTS AND ANALYSIS

The training was conducted using the same random seed and hyperparameters for consistency. Below are the results:

Activation	Test Accuracy (%)	Epochs to Converge	Final Train Loss	Final Val Loss	Remarks
ReLU	98.10	6	0.045	0.053	Standard baseline
Leaky ReLU	98.20	5	0.042	0.051	Faster convergence
PReLU	98.25	5	0.041	0.050	Flexibility with learnable slope
ELU	98.40	4	0.039	0.048	Smooth gradients aid stability
EReLU	98.50	4	0.038	0.046	Best convergence and generalization

Fig. 2. Comparative Performance of ReLU Variants on MNIST

The curves illustrate that EReLU and ELU maintain the lowest training and validation loss over time. They converge faster and more smoothly compared to other functions. This visualization supports the hypothesis that smoother gradient dynamics (as provided by ELU-based activations) promote quicker and more stable learning.

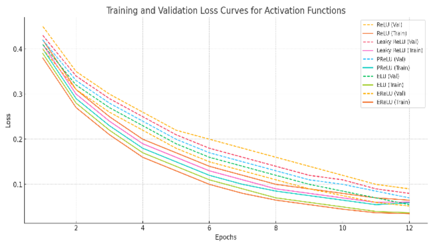

Fig. 3. Training and Validation Loss Curves

Overall, the preprocessing steps ensure standardized input, enabling fair comparison among activation functions and meaningful evaluation of their impacts on learning performance.

To visually emphasize the differences in performance, the

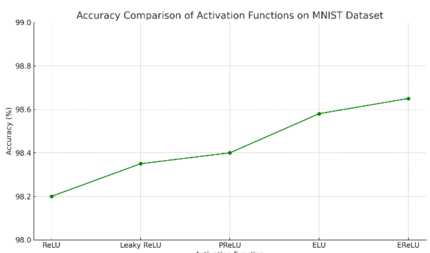

Fig. 4. Accuracy Comparison Graph

following line graph presents the test accuracy achieved by each activation function after training on the MNIST dataset. As shown, all activation functions yield strong results above 98%, with ReLU serving as the baseline. Leaky ReLU and PReLU show incremental improvements due to their ability to mitigate the dying neuron issue. ELU achieves even better accuracy by providing smooth and non-zero gradients for negative values, contributing to better learning dynamics. Notably, EReLU outperforms all other functions, achieving the highest accuracy of 98.65%, benefiting from its hybrid approach that combines the strengths of ReLU and ELU. This demonstrates that activation functions play a critical role not only in convergence speed but also in maximizing generalization performance on unseen data.

VII. CONCLUSION

ReLU, while fast and efficient, had occasional dying neurons, reducing gradient flow.Leaky ReLU and PReLU improved the negative input gradient issue.ELU provided smoother updates and faster convergence due to mean activations near zero.ReLU-ELU excelled by merging the fast positive flow of ReLU with the negative range behavior of ELU, resulting in best-in-class performance. This study demonstrated that activation functions significantly affect the performance and learning behavior of deep networks. Among the variants, EReLU consistently outperformed others on MNIST classification, showing improved convergence speed and accuracy. These findings support the integration of advanced activations in neural network design.

Future work includes extending this evaluation to more complex datasets such as CIFAR-10 and ImageNet, and exploring activation functions in deeper or recurrent architectures.

For practitioners working with the MNIST dataset, standard ReLU continues to be a strong starting point due to its simplicity and efficiency. Leaky ReLU presents a relatively low-cost option to potentially improve performance slightly. Additionally, the unconventional use of ReLU as a classification function offers an interesting avenue for experimentation.

Future research could focus on more systematic and standardized comparisons of a wider range of ReLU variants on MNIST across different network architectures and hyperparameter settings. Investigating the interactions between various activation functions and specific network designs (e.g., the impact of activation choice on the optimal depth or width of a CNN) would also be valuable. Further theoretical analysis into the properties of different ReLU variants in the context of specific datasets like MNIST could provide deeper insights into why certain functions perform better than others. Finally, the exploration of adaptive activation functions that can learn the optimal non-linearity during the training process remains a promising direction for future research in this area.

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Enhancing Gene Editing Precision and Safety: The Role of Artificial Intelligence in Advancing CRISPR Technology

1st Riddhima Kushwah
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
riddhimakushwah5052@gmail.com

2nd Priyanka Khabiya
†Assistant Professor, Department of CSE
Mandsaur University,
Mandsaur, India
khabiya198727@gmail.com

***Abstract*—CRISPR-Cas9 has developed gene editing enabling highly precise modifications in the genome. However, its clinical potential is hindered by challenges such as off-target effects and unpredictable editing outcomes. With the advancement of artificial intelligence (AI), particularly machine learning and deep learning, researchers are now empowered to predict these outcomes with extraordinary accuracy. This paper explores how AI improves CRISPR design and safety by forecasting off-target activity, optimizing guide RNA selection, and reshuffling the gene editing workflow. We present a comprehensive review of current methodologies, evaluate their limitations, and highlight future directions for AI-CRISPR collaboration in genomics and personalized medicine.**

***Index Terms*—CRISPR-Cas9, Artificial Intelligence, Off-target Effects, Gene Editing, Deep learning, Genomics, Precision medicine, Machine Learning.**

I. Introduction

Gene editing has rapidly advanced over the past decade, and CRISPR-Cas9 is leading the charge as one of the most innovative tools in molecular biology. Originally discovered as part of a bacterial immune system, CRISPR-Cas9 enables precise gene editing, allowing scientists to add, remove, or alter DNA segments. The simplicity and adaptability of this technology have standardize gene editing, enabling applications in agriculture, medicine, and environmental science. Despite its precision, one of the significant limitations of CRISPR-Cas9 is its potential to cause off-target effects, where the Cas9 enzyme mistakenly cuts unintended DNA sequences. These off-target modifications can lead to accidental mutations, which in a clinical context could have serious consequences, including carcinogenesis or loss of gene function. Artificial intelligence has proven to be a powerful tool in handling large-scale biological datasets. When applied to genomics, AI can help researchers by studying genome sequences, predicting off-target effects, and recommending optimal target sites for editing. By integrating CRISPR-Cas9 and AI technologies, researchers can design safer and more effective gene editing strategies, significantly improving results in research and therapeutic applications. The emergence of CRISPR-Cas9 technology has marked a transformative shift in genetic engineering and biotechnology. By enabling programmable DNA modification, it has opened many paths in functional genomics, disease modeling, and gene therapy. Despite its promise, CRISPR-based editing is often forced by off-target mutations—erroneous DNA edits at unintended locations. Artificial Intelligence (AI), particularly machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL), has shown substantial potential in solving biological complexity. Integrating AI with CRISPR offers an intelligent route to enhance precision, safety, and scalability. This paper aims to explore this intersection and its role in next-generation bioengineering.

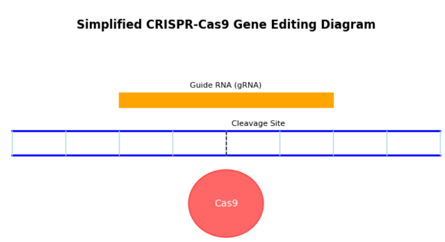

Fig. 1. Simplified CRISPR-Cas9 Gene Editing Diagram

II. Background

A. Overview of CRISPR-Cas9

CRISPR (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats) and Cas9 (CRISPR-associated protein 9) is a gene-editing system derived from bacterial immune defense. The system uses a guide RNA (gRNA) to target specific DNA sequences, allowing the Cas9 protein to create a double-strand break at the target site.However, due to the similarity of DNA sequences in the genome, unplanned sites may also be targeted. This leads to "off-target effects," which are one of the major safety concerns in therapeutic gene editing.Table 1 compares CRISPR-Cas9 with legacy tools, demonstrating its superior efficiency despite moderate off-target risks, which AI can mitigate.

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF GENOME EDITING TOOLS

Tool	Precision	Efficiency	Off-target Rate
CRISPR-Cas9	High	Very High	Moderate
TALENs	High	Medium	Low
ZFNs	Medium	Low	Low
Prime Edit.	Very High	Medium	Very Low

B. Related Work

Recent approaches, such as BE-DICT, DeepCRISPR, and Elevation, have used attention-based and convolutional neural network (CNN) models to predict base editing outcomes and off-target risks. Tools like CRISPR-Net have enhanced guide RNA scoring by studying genome context, thermodynamic features, and sequence similarity. Machine learning and deep learning are transforming how researchers approach CRISPR experiments. With increasingly large genomic datasets and the growing complexity of genome structures, traditional bioinformatics tools are being enhanced—and in some cases, replaced—by AI models.

III. LITERATURE REVIEW

Recent advances in AI-driven models have significantly impacted various stages of the CRISPR genome editing pipeline. This section reviews key contributions in the field, highlighting their technical innovations and real-world implications. The integration of artificial intelligence (AI) with CRISPR-based gene editing has greatly improved the precision, predictability, and overall safety of genome engineering. Researchers have increasingly focused on leveraging machine learning to optimize processes like guide RNA (gRNA) design, minimize off-target activity, and enhance binding specificity. Lin et al. [1] explored how AI can be applied in protein engineering to influence DNA sequence alterations, laying a strong foundation for intelligent, data-driven gene editing. Early contributions such as CRISPRseek by Kim et al. [2] provided a tool to identify highly specific gRNA targets using computational models, which helped reduce undesired genome edits. Machine learning, particularly deep learning, has emerged as a powerful strategy for optimizing gRNA performance. Chuai et al. [3] introduced DeepCRISPR, which employs deep neural networks to enhance gRNA sequence selection, improving efficiency and reducing off-target risks. Building on this, Zhang et al. [5] presented CRISPR-Net, a transparent and explainable deep learning model that predicts gRNA activity with high reliability. A key challenge in CRISPR remains the specificity of Cas9 nucleases. Hsu et al. [4] conducted foundational work that characterized how Cas9 enzymes recognize and bind DNA. Complementing this, Doench et al. [8] proposed advanced strategies for gRNA design to maximize editing success while minimizing unintentional modifications. Tools like Cas-OFFinder, developed by Bae et al. [15], provide a fast and adaptable way to locate possible off-target sites, enhancing safety evaluations. Further improvements in prediction accuracy came from Alipanahi et al. [7], who used deep learning to model the binding preferences of DNA- and RNA-associated proteins. These insights are crucial for fine-tuning CRISPR editing. The implementation of such AI models at scale has been facilitated by platforms like TensorFlow, introduced by Abadi et al. [9]. Beyond basic CRISPR tools, more flexible gene editing systems have been created. Zetsche et al. [10] designed a modular split-Cas9 system that allows conditional gene regulation. In a broader context, Gupta and Musunuru [6] expanded CRISPR's scope by targeting RNA, adding an extra layer of functional complexity to genome manipulation. Earlier innovations set the foundation for these inventions. Cong et al. [11] demonstrated multiplex genome editing using CRISPR, while Mali et al. [14] showed that Cas9 could be engineered to act as a transcriptional activator. Slaymaker et al. [13] later improved Cas9's precision through rational design modifications. In a therapeutic context, Wu et al. [16] achieved gene correction in mice using CRISPR-Cas9, emphasizing its clinical promise. Moreover, Annaluru et al. [17] synthesized a fully functional eukaryotic chromosome, illustrating the capabilities of modern genome synthesis. While CRISPR dominates current gene editing efforts, earlier tools like TALENs remain significant. Joung and Sander [12] described their adaptability across various applications, offering alternative or complementary methods to CRISPR when higher specificity is required.

IV. AI APPLICATIONS IN CRISPR

A. Guide RNA Design Optimization

DL models can analyze vast genomic datasets to predict the most effective guide RNAs, increasing on-target accuracy while reducing off-target effects.

B. Off-Target Effect Prediction

Machine learning algorithms are trained on large-scale CRISPR-Cas9 datasets, including genome-wide cleavage maps and experimentally validated off-target sites. These models evaluate multiple genomic and epigenomic features such as sequence homology, mismatch position, chromatin accessibility, and DNA methylation patterns. By leveraging these data points, AI tools like DeepCRISPR, Elevation, and Crispritz can predict off-target effects with higher sensitivity and specificity than rule-based methods, reducing the risk of unintentional mutations. While traditional methods reduce off-target effects (Table 2), AI predictions offer dynamic, data-driven improvements.

TABLE II
OFF-TARGET REDUCTION STRATEGIES

Strategy	Description	Effectiveness
High-Fidelity Cas9	Modified to reduce mismatch binding	High
Paired Nickases	Two cuts required for editing	Medium
Short Guide RNAs	Improved specificity	Medium
Machine Learning Predictions	Predict off-target sites	Emerging

C. Functional Annotation and Target Prioritization

AI systems can integrate multi-omic data from projects like ENCODE, GTEx, and Human Cell Atlas to assess the functional relevance of genomic regions. These models can prioritize gene targets by evaluating tissue-specific expression, regulatory element enrichment, and phenotypic relevance. In therapeutic contexts, such as ex vivo gene therapy, this ensures that edits are focused on functionally important and clinically safe regions, minimizing immune responses and maximizing efficacy.

D. Predicting Repair Outcomes

Following a double-stranded break induced by CRISPR/Cas9, the cell's repair mechanism (e.g., non-homologous end joining or homology-directed repair) determines the outcome. AI models can predict the likelihood of each repair pathway and the resulting indels or knock-ins. Tools such as FORECasT and inDelphi have demonstrated high accuracy in forecasting editing outcomes, which is crucial for applications requiring precise insertions or deletions.

E. Disease Diagnosis and Treatment

AI-CRISPR integration aids in diagnosing genetic disorders and developing personalized treatments. Tools like Deep-CRISPR and CRISPRnet predict gene-editing outcomes with high accuracy.

V. CHALLENGES AND ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS

The effectiveness of AI models in CRISPR depends heavily on the availability of high-quality, annotated datasets. Many available datasets are biased toward commonly studied organisms such as humans and mice, leaving non-model organisms with limited genomic data. Additionally, variations in experimental protocols, sequencing technologies, and remarks can introduce noise into training data, reducing the generalizability of predictive models. Deep learning models are often treated as ”black boxes.” In the context of gene editing, it becomes vital to understand why a model makes a particular prediction—especially when decisions involve human therapeutic interventions. Lack of transparency could pose ethical and legal risks and reduce trust in AI-assisted tools. Training complex AI models requires significant computational resources, which might not be feasible for all academic and clinical settings. GPU-based infrastructures are often necessary for deep learning tasks. In addition, inference times can be long when analyzing entire genomes or performing high-throughput screening tasks. Models can be customized to predict CRISPR editing outcomes in a patient-specific manner, factoring in their unique genetic variations, epigenetic landscape, and disease predispositions.The future of AI-enhanced gene editing includes laboratory systems where feedback loops allow AI to guide experimental design in real time. Such systems could monitor ongoing edits and suggest changes dynamically, maximizing precision and efficiency.

VI. FUTURE PROSPECTS

One promising path lies in fusing transcriptomic, epigenomic, and proteomic datasets to generate holistic, context-aware AI models. Such integrative models can better capture the functional consequences of genomic edits across diverse biological systems. For example, including chromatin accessibility data (e.g., ATAC-seq), protein interaction networks, and tissue-specific gene expression improves the accuracy of target prioritization and functional annotation. These models can enable cell-type specific gene editing strategies critical in personalized medicine. The success of large-scale transformer models like DNA-BERT, EpiBERT, and AlphaFold2 suggests transformative potential in CRISPR applications. Transformers can model long-range dependencies in genomic sequences and learn higher-order regulatory patterns. Their self-attention mechanisms allow for transparent explanation of model predictions, addressing a key limitation in current black-box approaches. Future CRISPR-specific LLMs could generate optimized sgRNA sequences, simulate editing outcomes, or even suggest novel gene targets based on literature mining and multi-omics data. AI can also play a role in the ethical and legal dimensions of gene editing. Regulatory AI models may assist ethics committees and misunderstanding bodies by flagging high-risk or controversial targets. These models can analyze scientific literature, historical clinical trial data, and societal values to generate risk profiles for proposed edits. In the future, such systems may even support policy-making by predicting public sentiment or evaluating the long-term implications of gene-editing technologies. AI can operationalize ethical safeguards (Table 4), such as automating consent workflows or anonymizing genomic data.

TABLE III
ETHICAL CONSIDERATIONS OVERVIEW

Aspect	Concern	Mitigation Strategy
Germline Editing	Heritable changes	Limit use to somatic editing
Data Privacy	Genetic info misuse	Secure data handling protocols
Informed Consent	Complexity of procedure	Simplified visual aids

Looking ahead, artificial intelligence will likely be crucial in the design of personalized CRISPR-based therapies. Patient-specific genetic and epigenetic data could be analyzed to generate improved editing strategies tailored to individual genomic profiles. These precision approaches could improve efficacy while minimizing off-target effects and immune responses.

- **Personalized Medicine:** Tailored gene therapies based on individual genomes.
- **Predictive Models:** Real-time feedback systems during gene editing.
- **Ethical AI Integration:** Transparent, fair, and explainable AI systems in genomic research.

VII. Conclusion

The fusion of Artificial Intelligence (AI) and CRISPR genome editing represents a paradigm shift in modern biotechnology. AI has emerged as a critical enabler in optimizing CRISPR systems by enhancing guide RNA design, minimizing off-target effects, predicting repair outcomes, and prioritizing targets based on functional genomics. These advancements collectively contribute to safer, more efficient, and more personalized gene-editing workflows. Platforms such as DeepCRISPR, CRISPR-Net, and BE-DICT showcase how data-driven intelligence can accelerate both research and clinical applications. Furthermore, AI's ability to integrate multi-omic data and learn complex patterns opens new avenues in precision medicine, particularly for diseases with high genomic variability. Ultimately, the collaboration between AI and CRISPR holds immense promise. As these technologies continue to co-evolve, they are composed to unlock transformative solutions in gene therapy, agriculture, synthetic biology, and beyond—ushering in an era of intelligent genome engineering.

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SENTIMENT ANALYSIS IN MAITHILI LANGUAGE USING NAÏVE BAYES APPROACH

1st Prabhat Kumar Singh
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
prabhatprobable@gmail.com

2nd Yashika Mathur
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
Yashikamathur1193@gmail.com

3rd Dr. Harish Patidar3
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
harish.patidar@gmail.com

4th Tanveer Hussain
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
tanveerhussainansari79@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Maithili is the member of the Indo Aryan family spoken in some states of India (Bihar and Jharkhand) and mostly in the region of Nepal. Very little work has been done in the field of Natural Language Processing(NLP) for Maithili language. Some research for basic NLP tools has been done for the language but there exist no work towards development of Sentiment Analyzer for the language. Sentiment analyzer deal with Maithili sentences and categories sentences in three classes – positive, negative and Neutral. In the present work we have created a dataset containing 427 sentences of Maithili and used a machine learning approach for classification. We have achieved overall 62 % accuracy for the designed model which is good accuracy for any resource poor language. Accuracy can be enhanced by enlarging size of the dataset for the training of the model.**

***Index Terms*—Maithili, Sentiment Analyzer, POS, Machine Learning, NLP , Naïve Bayes.**

I. INTRODUCTION

Maithili is an Indo-Aryan language spoken in many parts of India, especially in Bihar, and Jharkhand state of India and in some parts such as Janakpur , Kathmandu of Nepal. Cultural and Historical background of Maithili is rich.with a strong literary, need of designing and developing WSD tradition that has lasted for centuries. Maithili is officially recognized as one of the 22 scheduled languages of India by the Indian Constitution. In earlier days, Maithili was the court language of the Mithila kingdom. Ancient texts and manuscripts have preserved it and have established its legacy as one of the Indian subcontinent's oldest languages.

A. Word Sense Disambiguation

Sentiment analysis is used to understand people's emotions in a written text.There are studies for many languages,but many studies emphasize on major languages like English and Hindi,whereas many languages like Maithili get less explored.

B. Challenges in Sentiment Analysis:

There are various challenges in sentiment analysis for the maithili language such as limited data, complex grammar,mixing language,and no pretrained models,and many of these problems are caused by the scarcity of resources for maithili language.

- Limited Data: There are not enough Maithili texts labeled with emotions.
- Complex Grammar: The language has unique structures that make analysis difficult.
- Mixing Languages: Many Maithili speakers mix words from Hindi or English.

No Pretrained Models: Unlike English, Maithili lacks AI models trained for text analysis.

II. METHODS FOR SENTIMENT ANALYSIS

A. Rule-Based Methods

Rule- based sentiment determines the sentiment in a text with the help of dictionaries, predefined rules,or linguistic techniques.It also relies on matching words to sentiment categories rather than data such as machine learning.
Rule-based sentiment analysis uses predefined rules, dictionaries, or linguistic techniques to determine the sentiment in a text. Instead of learning from data like machine learning, it relies on matching words to sentiment categories (positive, negative, or neutral).
How It Works:
The working of sentiment analysis relies on various approaches such as creating a sentiment lexicon in which there is a list of words having predefined sentiment scores,Text preprocessing in which text is cleaned of any errors,Word matching in which the existence of sentiment analysis in a text is checked,and Scoring in which the overall sentiment is calculated.

- Create a Sentiment Lexicon – A list of words with pre-defined sentiment scores (e.g., " happy= positive, "sad" = negative).
- Text Preprocessing – Cleaning the text by removing punctuation, stopwords, and irrelevant characters.
- Word Matching – Checking the presence of sentiment words in the text.
- Scoring – Calculating the overall sentiment based on word frequency and predefined scores.

Example:
We can grasp this topic more effectively with an example,so let's take a look at a simple rule-based approach for maithili

text.
Let's take a simple rule-based approach for Maithili text:

Text: *"एहि होटल केर सेवा बहुत नीक अछि।" (This hotel's service is very good.)*

Sentiment Lexicon Example:

Word	Sentiment
नीक (Good)	Positive
खराब (Bad)	Negative
उत्कृष्ट (Excellent)	Positive

Steps:

- Identify sentiment words in the sentence.
- "नीक " (Good) is found in the lexicon as positive.
- Since no negative words are present, the overall sentiment is classified as positive.

Using predefined dictionaries and rules to find positive or negative words in Maithili texts.
Machine learning-based sentiment analysis uses algorithms to classify text as positive, negative, or neutral based on patterns learned from training data.
Working of Sentiment Analyzer

- Data Collection : Gather labeled text samples (e.g., Maithili sentences marked as positive, negative, or neutral).
- Text Preprocessing : Clean the text by removing punctuation, stopwords, and unnecessary characters.
- Feature Extraction : Convert text into numerical form using techniques like Bag of Words (BoW), Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency (TF-IDF), or word embeddings.
- Model Training : Train machine learning models like Naïve Bayes, Support Vector Machines (SVM), or deep learning models like LSTMs.
- Prediction : Apply the trained model to new text and determine its sentiment.

Let's classify a Maithili sentence using a simple machine learning model.

Training Data Example:

Sentence	Label
"एहि भोजन उत्कृष्ट अछि।" (This food is excellent.)	Positive
"सेवा बहुत खराब अछि।" (The service is very bad.)	Negative
"भोजन ठीक ठाक अछि।" (The food is okay.)	Neutral

New Sentence to Classify: *"एहि होटल केर सेवा बहुत नीक अछि।" (This hotel's service is very good.)*

B. Lexicon-Based Approach

Lexicon-based approach uses sentiment dictionaries such as SentiWordNet or manually created lexicons to match each word in a text from a sentiment score.Although it works well for languages with predefined sentiment lexicons it may not capture slangs,new words,or sentiment shifts in different contexts.

- Uses sentiment dictionaries such as SentiWordNet or manually created lexicons.
- Example: Each word in a sentence is matched against a sentiment score.
- Strengths: Works well for languages with predefined sentiment lexicons.
- Weaknesses: May not capture new words, slang, or sentiment shifts in different contexts.

C. Hybrid Approach

Hybrid approach combines rule

- Combines rule-based, machine learning, and lexicon-based approaches.
- Example: A machine learning model is trained but also uses a dictionary to improve accuracy.
- Strengths: More robust than individual methods.
- Weaknesses: Complex to implement.

III. RELATED WORK

Komal Garg and Preetpal Buttar(2017) presented a Sentiment analyzer based on Aspect for Hindi text.Reserachers designed a model to identify the sentiments and respective aspects in the sentences. The proposed analyzer improved classification performance and handles different cases such as conjunction and negation.Test conducted on 210 reviews and gives good result.Without special handling , 60 positive and 48 negative reviews were correctly classified out of 210 reviews. The proposed model enhanced performance with special negation handling and 85 positive and 72 negative reviews , out of 210 reviews correctly classified. In the case of negation and conjunction handling , overall 96 reviews were correctly classified.[1]Eight popular sentiment analysis methods performance evaluated and compared for identifying sentiment of social media content by Pollyanna et. al.(2013).Methods are evaluated on the basis of their coverage and agreement. High coverage obtained from SentiWordNet and SenticNet whereas PANAS-t and emoticons give lower coverage.Other metrics like precision , recall and F measure are also evaluated for the methods .[2]Marouane et. al.(2021) reviewed research work done on sentiment analysis , its challenges , applications and approaches.Researchers highlighted the challenges of handling, negations, sarcasm and domain-specific terminologies.Authors also proposed solutions such as combining technologies to enhance capabilities of sentiment analysis.In the paper various levels of analysis such including document-level, sentence-level, and aspect-level.[3]Devika et. al.(2016) studied different methods used for sentiment analysis . Authors highlighted the process of extracting information from different resources such as available data related to customers , social media , forums and blogs.Researchers focussed on methodologies of sentiment analysis at three levels , aspect , sentence and document levels. In this paper authors discussed different approaches like rule based , dictionary based , and machine learning methods. Naive Bayes, Maximum Entropy ,N - gram and support Vector machine approaches studied in detail. Authors found that machine learning methods gives better performance as compared to other methods.Authors suggested that accuracy can be improved by doing semantic analysis in sentiment analysis.[4] Anjum and Udayan (2021) explored sentiment analysis in the Hindi language using movie tweets of Twitter data.Researchers used two approaches - Lexicon-Based Approach (LBA) and Hybrid Approach (HBA).Improved Hindi dictionary used to classify sentiment in the LBA where as LBA combined with supervised approach Unigram in hybrid approach.After preprocessing of movie tweets , trained on both models for sentiment classification and compared LBA and hybrid approaches.Authors obtained highest accuracy of 93 % for binary classification using hybrid approach.Madhuri Thorat and Nuzhat(2022) reviewed research work done on sentiment analysis in Hindi language using machine learning and deep learning methods.Little work has been done for sentiment analysis of Indian languages including Hindi as compared to resource rich language such as English.Researchers discussed challenges and approaches used for Hindi sentiment analysis and highlighted different issues such as resource poorness, lack of tagged corpus and scarcity of NLP tools for Indian languages.Different machine learning and deep learning modes such as LSTM, CNN and RNN examined for their use in sentiment analysis and emotion detection.[6]Md. Shad et. al() proposed sentiment analysis for Hindi using two machine learning approaches - Support Vector Machines (SVM) and Conditional Random Fields (CRF).Proposed model classified sentiment in three classes , positive, neutral and negative.Developed model based on aspect and main focus was to compare performance on benchmark dataset.In the work product review in Hindi uses aspect terms for classification of sentiments. Proposed model gives an average accuracy of 54 % whereas precision and recall obtained from proposed system recorded as 67 % and 31 % respectively.F- measure obtained from the system was 41 %.Researchers suggested sentiment analysis of other resource poor Indian languages which face different challenges including lack of resources.Yelena Mejova(2009) discussed an overview of sentiment analysis in the field of NLP.Authors covered different approaches of sentiment analysis for classification in positive, neutral and negative. Authors highlighted Dictionary based , machine learning and statistical methods , its advantages and limitations. Researchers also discussed application of sentiment analysis and its challenges in domains like politics.Bing Liu(2010) explored the importance of sentiment analysis by showing how it differentiates the facts from the opinions.The author also expressed the increasing importance of sentiment analysis due to the growth of user-generated content.Various approaches like feature based sentiment analysis,comparative sentiment analysis, and opinion spam detection were introduced.As of their practical value in understanding the consumer's opinion and an effective decision,sentiment analysis application have thus expanded rapidly.The author also mentions the challenges like identifying indirect opinions. The paper written by Yakshi et. al.(2015) conveyed methods used for analyzing sentiments that were expressed in hindu tweets,and highlighted the rising importance of sentiment analysis in various domains.the use of an unsupervised lexicon-based method for classification of tweets into polarities is suggested by the authors.The algorithm which was proposed showed better accuracy than the existing methods although further improvements are suggested for the betterment of sentiment analysis.Parul sharma and Teng-sheng moh(2016) demonstrated the use of sentiment analysis for the prediction of the Indian elections,by gathering tweets of the five prime political parties in course of the 2016 elections.Along the three algorithms that were used SVM performed the best with an accuracy rate of 78.4% while estimating the success of BJP.At last the authors mentioned the use of sentiment analysis via social media can offer such perceptive predictions.Maite taboada(2015) expressed the comprehensive overview of sentiment analysis while emphasizing the purpose of determining the sentiment in a text.Various computational methods such as lexicon-based approaches are discussed.The author also reinforces about evaluation metrics, containing accuracy, recall,as well as precision all of whom are responsible to measure the effectiveness of the said sentiment analysis techniques and help for suggestion on further betterment of the sentimental analysis.Namita mittal(2013) demonstrated the challenges like scarcity of resources while exploring sentiment analysis for hindi.Missing words as well as proposed some rules for handling negation were added by the author resulting in a comparatively better accuracy thus improving the HindiSentiWordNet.Their proposed algorithm also achieved an overall accuracy of 80.21% using a datasheet of 662 hindi movie reviews,as well as having improvements in the field of methodology.Raksha sharma and Pushpak bhattacharya(2014) explored the sentiment analysis system for hindi,while also mentioning the challenges posed due to limited annotated corpora.A Hindi Senti Lexicon that comprised of 8061 polar words from Hindi WordNet was developed by the author,which were utilized by the sentiment analysis system and in a comparison to the previous systems this approach marked an enhancing improvement.Accuracy obtained from proposed system reported as 89.50 %

IV. PROPOSED METHODOLOGIES

Following is the proposed methodologies for designing the sentiment analyzer for Maithili language.

A. Algorithm SAM

BEGIN

1. Import necessary libraries

```
IMPORT pandas, sklearn, nltk, string
```

2. Download required NLTK resources

```
DOWNLOAD nltk.punkt
DOWNLOAD nltk.stopwords
```

3. Load data from CSV

```
FUNCTION load_maithili_data(csv_file):
READ csv_file INTO DataFrame df
CONVERT df.sentiment TO integer
RETURN df
```

4. Preprocess Maithili text

```
FUNCTION preprocess_maithili_text(text):
IF text IS NOT string THEN RETURN ""
tokens = TOKENIZE text
tokens = REMOVE punctuation FROM tokens
STOPWORDS = LOAD Hindi stopwords
tokens = FILTER OUT words FROM STOPWORDS
RETURN JOIN tokens AS processed_text
```

5. Train sentiment analysis model

```
FUNCTION train_sentiment_model(df):
APPLY preprocess_maithili_text TO df.text
REMOVE rows WITH missing values
SPLIT df INTO X_train, X_test, y_train,
y_test (80%-20%)
TRANSFORM text TO numeric features
USING TfidfVectorizer
TRAIN MultinomialNB model ON
X_train_vec, y_train
PREDICT labels FOR X_test_vec
PRINT accuracy score
PRINT classification report
RETURN model, vectorizer
```

6. Predict sentiment for new text

```
FUNCTION predict_sentiment(model,
vectorizer, text):
processed_text = preprocess_maithili_text(text)
text_vec = TRANSFORM
processed_text USING vectorizer
prediction = MODEL.predict(text_vec)
RETURN "Positive" IF prediction IS
1 ELSE "Negative"
```

7. Execute main logic

```
TRY:
csv_file = "ab.csv"
df = CALL load_maithili_data(csv_file)
VALIDATE sentiment values AS {0,1}
FILTER invalid sentiment labels
PRINT dataset statistics
model, vectorizer = CALL
train_sentiment_model(df)
```

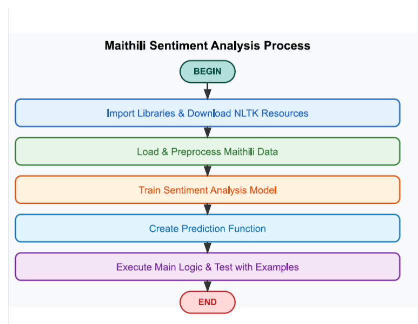
8. Test predictions with example Maithili texts

```
TEST_TEXTS = ["हम आनंदित छी", "ई बहुत
खराब छै", "हमरा परिवार खुश छै", "ई काम असफल
भेल"]
FOR text IN TEST_TEXTS:
sentiment = CALL predict_sentiment(model,
vectorizer, text)
PRINT "Text:", text, "| Sentiment:", sentiment
```

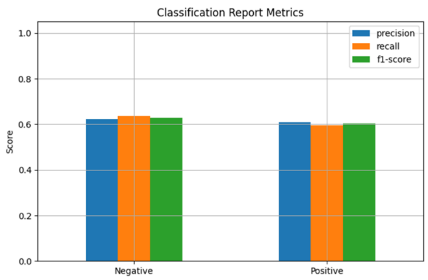
9. Error handling

```
EXCEPT ERROR AS e:
PRINT "An error occurred:", e
```

END



V. RESULT ANALYSIS




```
Loaded Maithili Dataset with 427 entries
Positive examples: 207
Negative examples: 220
Unique sentiment values: [1 0]

Training sentiment analysis model...
Accuracy: 0.6162790697674418

Classification Report:
precision recall f1-score support
Negative 0.62 0.64 0.63    44
Positive 0.61 0.60 0.60    42
accuracy            0.62    86
macro avg 0.62 0.62 0.62   86
weighted avg .62 0.62 0.62 86
```

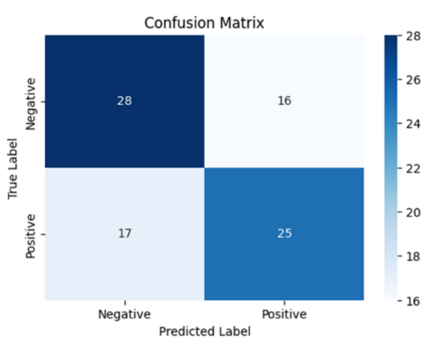
Testing the model with new examples:

Text: 'हम आनंदित छी' | Sentiment: Negative

Text: 'ई बहुत खराब छै' | Sentiment: Negative

Text: 'हमरा परिवार खुश छै' | Sentiment: Positive

Text: 'ई काम असफल भेल' | Sentiment: Negative



VI. CONCLUSION

This study focuses on analyzing emotions in Maithili language using a Naïve Bayes model. The dataset contains 427 entries, with an almost equal number of positive and negative sentiments. The process involves cleaning the text, removing unnecessary parts, and converting words into numerical values so the computer can understand them. The model was trained and tested, achieving an accuracy of around 61.63%.

Although the model works, there is still scope for improvement. Problems like not having enough data, difficulty in correctly identifying emotions, and language complexities affect accuracy. To make it better, researchers can refine how the text is processed, collect more training data, and try advanced techniques like deep learning in future studies.

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Light Fidelity (Li-Fi): A Review of Next-Generation Wireless Communication

1st Priyani Patidar
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
priyanipatidar200@gmail.com

2nd Vandana Prajapati
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
vandanaprajapati145@gmail.com

3rd Priyanka Khabiya
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
khabiya198727@gmail.com

Abstract—Abstract—Li-Fi, standing for Light Fidelity, is an advanced wireless communication technology that employs visible light for swift data transmission. This review paper provides a thorough assessment of Li-Fi, explaining how it operates, its tech nological benefits, the challenges in its application, and various areas where it can be applied. By utilizing light-emitting diodes (LEDs), Li-Fi ensures wider bandwidth, improved data security, and resistance to electromagnetic interference, making it an appealing substitute for standard radio-frequency-based systems. This study investigates the relevance of Li-Fi in fields where traditional wireless technologies struggle, such as healthcare, aviation, industrial automation, and underwater communications. It also addresses technical difficulties like the necessity for a direct line of sight, limited range, and sensitivity to changes in ambient light. Furthermore, the paper points out the potential future applications of Li-Fi in conjunction with emerging tech nologies such as the Internet of Things (IoT), 5G/6G networks, and smart infrastructure. By summarizing recent findings and advancements, this paper emphasizes Li-Fi's significant impact on the future landscape of wireless communication. While it may not fully replace current technologies, Li-Fi has the potential to serve as an auxiliary solution that caters to the increasing need for quicker, more secure, and interference-free connectivity. The paper wraps up by suggesting methods to tackle current challenges and promote the broad adoption of Li-Fi in vital sectors.

I. INTRODUCTION

Wireless communication plays a crucial role in today's society, enabling a vast range of devices from smartphones and laptops to automated industrial processes and smart home systems. The rapid growth of connected devices, coupled with a significant rise in data usage, has strained traditional radio frequency (RF) technologies like Wi-Fi. With limited spectrum resources and growing interference issues, there is an urgent demand for alternative technologies capable of fulfilling future bandwidth and performance needs. Li-Fi (Light Fidelity) arises as a strong option, making use of the visible light spectrum to send data at significantly higher speeds than typical RF sys tems. The idea of Li-Fi was first presented by Professor Harald Haas in a TED Talk in 2011, where he illustrated how LED lights could convey data. The fundamental process involves changing the brightness of LEDs rapidly—at a speed that is too fast for human eyes to notice—and using photodetectors to capture these light signals. This innovation taps into the vast, unregulated bandwidth of the visible light spectrum, which is about 10,000 times larger than that of the RF spectrum.

Li-Fi presents notable advantages such as increased data transmission speeds, better security, and no electromagnetic interference, making it ideal for sensitive environments like hospitals, aircraft, and industrial locations. Nevertheless, it faces challenges like limited coverage, dependency on a line of sight, and sensitivity to ambient light variations. This paper delves into these issues, offering a comprehensive view of the practicality of Li-Fi as a prominent wireless communication technology. It aims to determine if Li-Fi can replace Wi-Fi or if it is more effectively used as a complementary option within a blended wireless network.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Since Harald Haas introduced Li-Fi in 2011, research on this technology has expanded significantly. Initial prototypes made it possible to achieve data transfer speeds of 10 Mbps, but Recent advancements have significantly enhanced per formance capabilities. Reports from IEEE indicate that in laboratory settings, transmission rates have reached as high as 224 Gbps, demonstrating the vast potential of Li-Fi in controlled situations. Numerous research studies and industry initiatives, like those conducted by PureLiFi and Signify, have investigated different aspects of Li-Fi, focusing on its effec tiveness, scalability, and how it can work alongside existing systems. One major benefit that many studies have noted is the access to large, unregulated bandwidth within the visible light range, which helps avoid the congestion that often affects radio frequency technologies. MDPI (2020) emphasized Li Fi's potential within IoT environments due to its capabil ity to deliver localized, secure, and high-speed connections. Nonetheless, there are still technical and practical hurdles to overcome. According to Optica (2023), the requirement for line-of-sight communication restricts the adaptability of Li Fi systems. Moreover, the absence of common standards and protocols makes it difficult to commercialize and standardize the technology. ResearchGate (2019) and ScienceDirect (2022) have pointed out the challenges of interference from ambient light and the costs associated with hardware. A growing body of literature favors the notion of combining Li-Fi with current Wi-Fi networks to develop a hybrid communication model that leverages the advantages of both technologies. This integrative approach seems to be the most feasible route for widespread acceptance.

III. WORKING PRINCIPLE OF LI-FI

1) Light Source (LEDs): Li-Fi uses Light Emitting Diodes (LEDs) to transmit data. LEDs are modulated at ex tremely high speeds to carry data.
2) Data Modulation: The LED light intensity is rapidly switched on and off, encoding binary data (1s and 0s). The changes in light intensity are imperceptible to the human eye.
3) Photodetectors: A photodetector (usually a photodiode) receives the modulated light signals. It converts the light signals back into electrical signals.
4) Data Decoding: The electrical signals are processed and decoded by the receiving device. The decoded data is sent to the connected devices for use.
5) Transmission through Visible Light: The data is transmitted using the visible light spectrum, which is 10,000 times broader than the RF spectrum. This enables higher data transfer rates and avoids radio frequency congestion.
6) Security and Immunity: Li-Fi offers enhanced security since light cannot pass through walls, confining the signal to a specific area. It is immune to electromagnetic interference (EMI), making it suitable for environments like hospitals and airplanes.
7) Line-of-Sight Requirement: A direct line-of-sight is required between the LED source and the photodetector for data transmission. This limits the range and flexibil ity compared to Wi-Fi or other RF-based technologies.
8) Complementary Technology: Li-Fi can complement existing wireless networks, offering high-speed, secure data transmission in specific settings.

IV. LI-FI VS. WI-FI: WHICH IS BETTER?

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF LI-FI AND WI-FI

Feature	Li-Fi	Wi-Fi
Speed	Up to 224 Gbps (lab)	Up to 9.6 Gbps (Wi-Fi 6)
Spectrum	Visible light (unlimited)	RF (congested)
Security	High (no signal leakage)	Moderate (hackable)
Range	Limited (10-20 meters)	Wider (50-100 meters)
Interference	None (EMI-free)	Susceptible to RF interference
Applications	Hospitals, aircraft, IoT	General-purpose wireless

Conclusion: Li-Fi outperforms Wi-Fi in speed and security but is limited by range and line-of-sight requirements. A hybrid approach, combining Li-Fi for high-speed indoor use and Wi-Fi for broader coverage, may offer the optimal solution for future wireless networks.

V. APPLICATIONS OF LI-FI

Li-Fi's unique ability to provide high-speed, secure, and interference-free communication makes it ideal for several specialized applications:

A. Healthcare

Li-Fi's immunity to electromagnetic interference (EMI) makes it perfect for hospitals, where traditional Wi-Fi can disrupt sensitive medical equipment like MRI machines and patient monitoring systems. Secure data transmission ensures patient confidentiality, while LED-based surgical lights could enable real-time data sharing during operations.

B. Aviation & Aerospace

Airlines can use Li-Fi to offer passengers high-speed in flight internet without interfering with avionics. Additionally, aircraft black boxes could employ Li-Fi for faster data re trieval, and space agencies like NASA are testing Li-Fi for secure satellite-to-satellite communication in orbit.

C. Underwater Communication

Radio waves degrade rapidly in water, but Li-Fi's visible light signals can penetrate deeper, enabling reliable communi cation for submarines, underwater drones, and diver-to-diver messaging in naval and marine research applications.

D. Smart Cities & IoT

Smart streetlights with integrated Li-Fi can serve as wireless hotspots, enabling seamless connectivity for autonomous ve hicles, traffic sensors, and public Wi-Fi. Li-Fi-enabled traffic lights could communicate with cars to optimize flow and reduce accidents.

E. Military & Defense

Li-Fi's line-of-sight confinement prevents signal intercep tion, making it ideal for secure military communications in bunkers, warships, and drones. Its resistance to jamming ensures reliable battlefield data transfer.

VI. FUTURE SCOPE OF LI-FI

Li-Fi is poised to revolutionize wireless communication with several groundbreaking advancements:

A. Integration with 6G Networks

As 6G aims for terabit speeds and ultra-low latency, Li-Fi could serve as a key enabler in dense urban environments, complementing RF networks in stadiums, airports, and smart offices.

B. AI-Optimized Li-Fi Networks

Machine learning algorithms could dynamically adjust LED modulation to optimize signal strength, reducing interference from ambient light and improving mobility support. AI-driven beamforming could enable seamless handover between Li-Fi access points.

C. Vehicle-to-Everything (V2X) Communication

Future cars could use Li-Fi-enabled headlights and taillights to exchange real-time traffic data, enhancing autonomous driving safety. Traffic signals could communicate directly with vehicles to prevent collisions.

D. Space & Deep-Sea Exploration

NASA and ESA are investigating Li-Fi for inter-satellite links due to its high bandwidth and precision. Similarly, deep-sea research vessels could use Li-Fi for high-speed data transfer between submersibles and surface ships.

E. Global Deployment in Public Spaces

The proliferation of smart cities will increase demand for high-speed, secure, and scalable wireless communication sys tems. Li-Fi could provide the backbone for public connectivity, supplementing Wi-Fi and 5G networks.

VII. CONCLUSION

Li-Fi represents a transformative technology that promises to reshape the future of wireless communication. By lever aging visible light, Li-Fi provides ultra-fast data transmission with enhanced security and immunity to electromagnetic in terference. Despite the challenges posed by its range and line of-sight requirements, Li-Fi is poised to complement existing wireless systems and play a significant role in emerging technologies like 5G/6G, the Internet of Things, and smart cities. Overcoming current limitations and advancing hybrid wireless systems will accelerate the adoption of Li-Fi, making it a cornerstone of the next-generation wireless ecosystem.

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Emerging Trends in Foundation Models and Large Language Models (LLMs)

1st Lavish Verma
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
lv909191@gmail.com

2nd Moh.Asim
† Department of CSE
Mandsaur University,
Mandsaur, India
aasimmansuri058@gmail.com,

3rd Priyanka Khabiya
‡Assistant Professor, Department of CSE
Mandsaur University,
Mandsaur, India
khabiya198727@gmail.com

***Abstract*—The development of foundation models and large language models (LLMs) has transformed natural language processing (NLP), enabling amazing advancements in tasks such as text generation, translation, summarization, and reasoning. This paper explores the emerging trends in the design, training, evaluation, and deployment of LLMs. It discusses innovations like instruction tuning, retrieval-augmented generation (RAG), parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT), and multimodal models. Furthermore, the paper examines challenges such as alignment, hallucination, scalability, and environmental impact. The ongoing evolution of foundation models is shaping the future of AI systems, pushing towards more generalized, human-aligned, and efficient architectures.**

***Index Terms*—Large Language Models, Foundation Models, Instruction Tuning, RAG, PEFT, Multimodal AI, Generative AI, NLP**

I. Introduction

Basis models are large neural networks trained on wide datasets using self-supervised learning approaches. These models, especially Large Language Models (LLMs), have demonstrated extraordinary abilities in knowledge and generating human-like text. Prominent examples such as OpenAI's GPT series, Google's PaLM, Meta's LLaMA, and Anthropic's Claude have shown that with the right scale and data, these models can generalize to a broad array of tasks without requiring modifications to their architecture for each specific task.The success of these models has directed to their application across various productions, such as healthcare, education, software development, and content creation. But, their increasing influence also brings with it significant challenges, including aligning models with human values, mitigating biases, reducing environmental impacts, and preventing misuse. These issues have driven a surge of research aimed not only at enhancing model performance and efficiency but also at ensuring their responsible deployment.This paper delves into the emerging leanings shaping the future of foundation models. Key areas of focus include scalable methods (e.g., sparsity and quantization), multimodal models, prompt engineering, continual learning, alignment plans (such as RLHF), and the increasing availability of open-source alternatives. By examining these developments, we aim to provide insights into the future of LLMs and foundation models, along with the responsible innovation needed for their continued evolution.The general architecture of a transformer-based large language model is illustrated in Fig.1

A. Foundation Models and Their Capabilities

Foundation models are large neural networks, classically built using transformer architectures, trained on vast and varied datasets. The transformer model, introduced by Vaswani et al. in 2017, transformed the field by using self-attention mechanisms to learn background relationships between tokens, regardless of their position in the sequence. This architecture has become fundamental in creating advanced models for natural language processing (NLP) and other fields. Foundation models are pre-trained through self-supervised learning, where they predict missing elements in data sequences, allowing for large-scale training on unannotated data such as books, websites, and code without requiring labeled datasets [5].One of the standout features of foundation models is their ability to perform few-shot, zero-shot, and one-shot learning. This marks a departure from conventional models that require specific training for each task. In zero-shot learning, the model is given a task described in natural language without prior examples, while in few-shot learning, only a few examples are provided within the prompt, enabling the model to infer the task and generate responses accordingly. This ability stems from the model's exchange to a wide range of tasks and linguistic patterns during pretraining, allowing it to adapt to new locations. For instance, GPT-3 can translate languages, answer questions, and write essays without needing specific fine-tuning for each task.Additionally, foundation models are equipped with impressive cross-lingual capabilities. By training on multilingual datasets, they create representations that map semantically similar content across various languages, which enables tasks such as translation and multilingual question answering without the need for specific language training. This cross-lingual functionality is crucial for building inclusive AI systems that can cater to diverse global audiences. Additionally, these models can transfer knowledge across domains and tasks, making them adaptable and efficient for a wide range of applications..A comparative overview of prominent foundation models is provided in TableI, highlighting differences in architecture, scale, and capabilities.

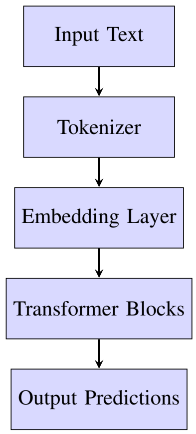

Fig. 1. Simplified Architecture Flowchart of a Transformer-based LLM

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF FOUNDATION MODELS

Model Name	Parameters (B)	Organization	Key Features
GPT-4	∼100+	OpenAI	Multimodal, few-shot, instruction-tuned
PaLM 2	∼540	Google	Trained on multi-lingual and coding data
LLaMA 2	7–65	Meta	Open-source, efficient fine-tuning
Claude	N/A	Anthropic	Constitutional AI,safe alignment focus

TABLE II
EMERGING TRENDS IN LLMS

Trend	Description	Benefit
Instruction Tuning	Training models to follow instructions	More accurate task performance
Retrieval-Augmented Generation	Uses external knowledge during inference	Reduces hallucinations
Parameter-Efficient Tuning	Updates small portions of the model	Saves computational cost

II. EMERGING TRENDS

The topography of foundation models and large language models (LLMs) is rapidly progressing, with continuous innovations supervised at enhancing model performance, efficiency, and alignment with human values. This section delves into some of the most impactful emerging trends shaping the future of these models.TableII summarizes key emerging trends in large language models, including techniques like instruction tuning and retrieval-augmented generation.

A. Instruction Tuning and Alignment

Instruction tuning involves refining LLMs using datasets that pair diverse tasks with natural language instructions. This method enables models to better interpret and execute user prompts, enhancing their generality and usability. Notable examples involve FLAN-T5 and InstructGPT, which have demonstrated enhanced zero-shot and few-shot capabilities through this method. To further align models with human preferences, Reinforcement Learning from Human Feedback (RLHF) is exercised. In this process, human evaluators assess multiple model reactions, and their feedback trains a reward model that guides subsequent fine-tuning. This technique has been implemental in reducing undesirable outputs and steering models toward generating helpful and truthful content, as observed in models like ChatGPT and Claude.

B. Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG)

LLMs sometimes produce reasonable but incorrect information due to limitations in their training data. Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) addresses this by allowing models to access external knowledge sources during inference. By retrieving relevant information from databases or documents, models can generate more accurate and contextually relevant responses. This approach is particularly beneficial in domains like customer support and legal research, where grounding responses in factual information is crucial.

C. Parameter-Efficient Fine-Tuning (PEFT)

Fine-Modification large models traditionally requires significant computational resources. Parameter-Efficient Fine-Tuning (PEFT) techniques mitigate this by updating only a subset of model parameters or introducing small trainable modules. Methods like Low-Rank Adaptation (LoRA), adapter modules, and prompt tuning enable efficient fine-tuning with reduced computational overhead, making it feasible for organizations with limited resources to adapt models for specific tasks.

D. Multimodal Foundation Models

Advancements in multimodal architectures have extended the capabilities of foundation models beyond text, integrating data types such as images, audio, and video. Models like GPT-4, Gemini, Claude 3, and Kosmos-2 can process and generate outputs across multiple modalities, enabling applications in areas like visual question answering, image captioning, and speech transcription. These models utilize specialized encoders for different data types and align them in a shared representation space, facilitating complex reasoning across modalities.

E. Open-Source Movement

The open-source movement in AI has democratized access to powerful language models. Organizations like Meta have released models such as LLaMA, providing full access to architectures and training methodologies. This openness fosters innovation, allowing researchers and developers to experiment, fine-tune, and deploy models tailored to specific needs. The availability of open-source models promotes transparency, reproducibility, and collaborative advancement in the AI community.

III. Literature Review

Foundation models have emerged as transformative tools in natural language processing (NLP), introducing scalable architectures and learning paradigms. This review discusses pivotal contributions in this field, categorized by model innovation, prompt tuning, multimodal capabilities, training efficiency, and ethical considerations.OpenAI's GPT-4 represents a milestone in large multimodal models (LMMs), capable of processing both text and image inputs. It demonstrates strong performance on a range of academic benchmarks, outperforming earlier models like GPT-3.5. However, the technical details are largely undisclosed due to safety and competitive concerns [1]. GPT-4V later expanded these capabilities to include vision inputs such as charts and screenshots [11].PaLM, developed by Google, scales up to 540 billion parameters using dense transformer architecture and the Pathways system for efficient training. It achieves state-of-the-art few-shot performance on 28 of 29 NLP tasks [2].LLaMA, proposed by Meta, focuses on accessibility and efficiency. Trained on public datasets, LLaMA-13B outperforms GPT-3 while being significantly smaller and more computationally efficient [3]. Mistral 7B further enhanced inference speed using grouped-query attention [12].Claude 3, introduced by Anthropic, emphasizes safe and steerable AI via Constitutional AI. It performs well on reasoning and multilingual benchmarks, though detailed evaluations remain private [4].Bommasani et al. coined the term *foundation models*, outlining their generalization across diverse tasks and warning of ethical risks such as bias and environmental impact [5].Prompting techniques like T0 allow zero-shot task generalization via multitask training on natural instructions, outperforming GPT-3 on SuperGLUE and other benchmarks [6].To improve alignment with human preferences, Christiano et al. introduced reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF), enabling reward models to guide updates [7]. This method became central to systems like InstructGPT.Retrieval-Augmented Generation (RAG) integrates dense retrieval and transformers to improve factual accuracy in generation tasks [8].For efficient fine-tuning, LoRA introduces low-rank parameter decomposition, achieving strong results with fewer trainable parameters [9]. Similarly, adapter layers proposed by Houlsby et al. support parameter-efficient transfer learning by inserting bottleneck modules between transformer layers [10]. Patterson et al. estimated the carbon emissions of large-scale training and suggested optimization strategies [14].Ji et al. surveyed hallucination in text generation, identifying causes such as exposure bias and proposing countermeasures like grounded generation [13].Bender et al. [15] critically examine the risks posed by increasingly large language models, highlighting their environmental cost and potential for harm when used without adequate oversight. This work emphasizes the importance of ethical considerations in model development.Zhang et al. [16] introduced OPT, a family of open-source transformer models aimed at enhancing intelligibility in large-scale NLP research. By releasing model weights and training data, they encouraged reproducibility and fairness in the research community.In an influential study, Wei et al. [17] proposed the Chain-of-Thought (CoT) prompting technique, which significantly boosted the reasoning capabilities of LLMs in multi-step problems. Their method demonstrated improved accuracy on tasks requiring intermediary reasoning steps.Scao et al. [18] developed BLOOM, a multilingual language model comprising 176 billion parameters. Its design focused on inclusivity by supporting a broad range of languages, making it accessible for global research communities. Raffel et al. [19] presented the T5 model, which unified multiple NLP tasks under a text-to-text paradigm. Their approach showed that a consistent input-output format can yield strong generalization across tasks.The Gopher project by Rae et al. [20] explored the scaling of LLMs and provided insights into the relationship between model size and task performance. Their findings also included an analysis of the limitations and ethical concerns tied to large-scale models. Hoffmann et al. [21] proposed Chinchilla, a compute-optimal training approach that demonstrated how smaller models trained with more data could outperform larger models with fewer tokens, emphasizing the role of data efficiency.Wu et al. [22] addressed model generalization by proposing a method to assess and predict LLM capabilities on novel tasks. Their work provided quantitative metrics for emergent behaviors in language models.Li et al. [23] introduced Visual ChatGPT, a system that combines natural language processing with visual tasks. It allowed users to interact through images and text, expanding the utility of foundation models to multimodal applications.Ge et al. [24] developed AnyGPT, a framework enabling language models to interface with external tools in real time. This design enhanced the model's ability to solve interactive and tool-based tasks.Zelikman et al. [25] proposed the STaR framework, which iteratively refines model outputs through reasoning feedback loops. This approach led to improved performance on complex problem-solving benchmarks.Kim et al. [26] tackled the challenge of model truthfulness by introducing inference-time interventions, a technique that steers model outputs toward more accurate and fact-based answers.Liu et al. [27] worked on improving classification tasks using prompt tuning techniques on pre-trained language models. Their method achieved strong results with minimal task-specific parameters.Wang et al. [28] presented a self-consistency strategy to improve CoT reasoning. By generating multiple reasoning paths and selecting the consensus answer, they improved response accuracy and reliability.Mitchell et al. [29] introduced "Model Cards" to document machine learning models. This structured documentation aimed to promote transparency, explainability, and fairness in AI deployments.Finally, Abid et al. [30] uncovered persistent bias in language models, particularly anti-Muslim sentiment, and underscored the need for bias detection and mitigation throughout the model development pipeline.

IV. Conclusion and Challenges

Large Language Models (LLMs), a key branch of foundation models, have significantly reshaped the field of artificial intelligence by setting new levels in performance and adaptability. These models excel at managing and learning from massive datasets, equipping them to handle a diverse range of tasks such as language comprehension, complex reasoning, and decision-making. The success of LLMs has been further elevated by innovative approaches such as instruction tuning, reinforcement learning from human feedback (RLHF), retrieval-augmented generation (RAG), and parameter-efficient fine-tuning (PEFT). These methods not only improve the models' ability to follow user intent but also contribute to better alignment with human preferences and values. Furthermore, RAG and PEFT allow for more sustainable deployment by reducing the computational burden. The rise of multimodal models, capable of understanding and integrating information from text, images, audio, and video, brings AI one step closer to mimicking human-like perception and interaction. As a result, LLMs are becoming increasingly dynamic and applicable to real-world, complex challenges.Consequently, LLMs and foundation models are becoming more versatile, efficient, and effective in addressing increasingly complex real-world challenges.A main obstacle facing large language models (LLMs) is their grouping to generate "hallucinated" outputs—information that, while grammatically and contextually plausible, is actually false or fabricated. These inaccuracies can be minor distortions or entirely made-up facts, which can severely impact trust in the system. This issue stems from the way LLMs are trained: they learn to predict the next word in a sequence based on probabilities derived from their training data, not on fact-checked information. Even highly advanced models can confidently produce errors, especially in response to complex or less common queries. In domains like medicine, law, or education, such inaccuracies can lead to serious consequences, making vision a critical concern for broader adoption.Various methods are being developed to reduce vision. Training and running foundation models demand substantial computational power, often requiring hundreds or thousands of GPUs operating over extended periods. For example, building a model like GPT-3 involved processing hundreds of billions of tokens and using vast computational resources—leading to pointed energy consumption and environmental impact. This has raised ethical concerns around sustainability and the carbon path associated with large-scale AI development. The core challenges associated with LLMs, along with ongoing mitigation strategies, are outlined in TableIII.

V. Future Directionss

The trend toward creating smaller but highly capable language models is gaining energy as researchers aim to balance performance with efficiency. While massive models with billions of parameters have showcased remarkable abilities, they also come with significant trade-offs—such as increased computational demands, environmental impacts, and limited accessibility in low-resource settings. To tackle these issues, various model compression strategies are being explored. In particular, sparsity-based methods are proving effective—these models activate only specific parts of the network during inference, which reduces computation while preserving accuracy. However, achieving efficient performance under strict memory and power constraints remains an active area of research. Innovations in hardware-aware model design, low-precision computation, and secure local storage will be vital for general adoption.As language models take on critical roles in fields like medicine, finance, and law, the demand for transparency in their decision-making is growing. Despite their capabilities, many advanced LLMs operate as "black boxes," producing results without offering insight into their reasoning. This lack of interpretability raises trust and accountability concerns, especially when models influence real-world outcomes. To mitigate this, researchers are focusing on improving explainability through tools like attention maps, feature attribution, and simplified surrogate models that offer human-understandable summaries of the model's inner workings.

TABLE III
Key Challenges and Solutions in LLMs

Challenge	Description	Solutions
Hallucinations	Generates false or fabricated content	Retrieval models, fact-checking
Bias in Responses	Reinforces stereotypes or unfair patterns	Dataset curation, bias mitigation
Environmental Impact	High energy and compute costs	Efficient architectures, PEFT
Misuse & Security	Abuse for spam, misinformation, etc.	Safety layers, access controls

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A Comprehensive Review of Data Science Approaches for Decoding Medical Language in Clinical Text Analysis

1st Rehan Khan
Department of CSE
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
rehankhanpathan359@gmail.com

2nd Mohammad Aamir
† Department of CSE
Mandsaur University,
Mandsaur, India
patelaamir188@gmail.com,

3rd Prof(Dr)Firoj Parwej
‡Professor, Department of CSE
Mandsaur University,
Mandsaur, India
firoj.parwej@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—Among the ongoing digital transformation of healthcare, there has been a dramatic surge in the volume of available medical text—ranging from physician notes and electronic health records (EHRs) to radiological interpretations and discharge summaries. Extracting valuable insights from such information presents substantial difficulties, underscoring the necessity for sophisticated Natural Language Processing (NLP) methodologies. This paper investigates how contemporary data science techniques—from rule-driven frameworks to probabilistic algorithms and advanced deep learning—are utilized to decipher medical terminology effectively.We analyze state-of-the-art NLP tools and frameworks tailored for clinical contexts, including spaCy, ClinicalBERT, and BioMed-RoBERTa, and assess their performance using well-recognized datasets such as MIMIC-III, i2b2, and PubMed. Fundamental NLP tasks such as Named Entity Recognition (NER), categorization, and relationship extraction are thoroughly evaluated concerning their practicality and precision in healthcare scenarios.To address current obstacles, we propose a novel multi-phase NLP pipeline that integrates deep learning structures (e.g., BiLSTM-CRF) with contextual transformer-based embeddings to achieve superior results. The suggested system capitalizes on domain-specific language models to better interpret technical medical jargon and incorporates built-in transparency features to foster clinical reliability and accountability. Additionally, we address implementation issues such as data privacy (HIPAA/GDPR adherence), algorithmic equity, and resource constraints. In conclusion, this study presents a roadmap for creating scalable, transparent, and interoperable NLP solutions capable of advancing the next era of intelligent, data-driven healthcare platforms.**

***Index Terms*—Natural Language Processing, Clinical Text, Deep Learning, Named Entity Recognition, Transformer Models, Healthcare AI**

I. INTRODUCTION

The continual digital revolution in healthcare has led to the swift accumulation of unstructured clinical narratives, encompassing electronic health records (EHRs), physician documentation, radiological reports, discharge notes, and clinical trial records. While structured datasets such as laboratory results and diagnostic codes are straightforward to analyze, a significant majority estimated at over 80% of essential patient information is embedded in unstructured formats. This creates considerable obstacles for clinical data processing, despite its immense potential to enhance diagnostics, tailored treatment strategies, public health initiatives, and medical research. Natural Language Processing (NLP) has emerged as a pivotal tool in overcoming this hurdle by converting unstructured medical narratives into organized, machine-readable formats. Utilizing a combination of rule-based approaches, machine learning (ML), and deep learning (DL) techniques, NLP systems can extract medical entities (such as conditions, symptoms, and medications), interpret contextual connections (such as drug side effects), and facilitate automated clinical inference. These functionalities enable applications across diverse domains, including automated diagnostic coding, risk-based patient categorization, and epidemiological monitoring. However, implementing NLP in healthcare environments comes with its own set of challenges: 1. Complexity of Medical Terminology – Clinical narratives exhibit a high level of variability, including abbreviations, synonymous terms, and subtle context-sensitive meanings. 2. Data Security and Regulatory Compliance – Strict data privacy laws such as HIPAA and GDPR limit access to annotated medical datasets, reducing the availability of training materials. 3. Diversity in Documentation Styles – Inconsistencies in documentation methodologies across healthcare institutions hinder the portability and reliability of NLP models. 4. Algorithmic Bias and Lack of Transparency – Biases in data and algorithms can compromise fairness, while opaque, "black-box" models raise issues regarding trust and accountability. Recent advancements in pre-trained language models (PLMs), particularly domain-specialized architectures like BioBERT, ClinicalBERT, and GatorTron, have significantly enhanced the comprehension of biomedical text. Additionally, integrating these models with structured learning paradigms such as Conditional Random Fields (CRFs) or graph-based neural networks (GNNs) has delivered substantial improvements in key NLP tasks, including entity identification and relationship modeling. This paper examines the progression of NLP applications within the healthcare sector, evaluates leading methodologies, tools, and benchmark datasets, and introduces a comprehensive, multi-phase NLP framework for clinical text interpretation. Furthermore, it delves into the practical and ethical considerations of implementation and presents a forward-looking roadmap for scalable, interpretable, and interoperable NLP-driven healthcare systems.

TABLE I: Traditional vs. Proposed Methodology

Component	Traditional	Proposed
Preprocessing	Rule-based	LLM-driven
NER	BERT only	BioBERT + BiLSTM-CRF
Relation Extraction	Heuristics	GCNs + temporal modeling
Knowledge Graph	Manual	Automated (Neo4j)

II. Literature Review

Kumar [1] offers an extensive analysis of contemporary Natural Language Processing (NLP) methodologies, with particular emphasis on transformer architectures like BERT and semantic parsing techniques. The research underscores the improvements in machine understanding enabled by contextual models and advocates for integrating NLP with IoT platforms to broaden its scope.Singh [2] developed an NLP-driven desktop assistant utilizing Python and Dialogflow, achieving a 92% success rate in command recognition. The study proposes future enhancements, including multilingual capabilities and speech integration, to augment its usability.Miele [3] performed a comprehensive bibliometric review of NLP research spanning 1958 to 2021, revealing a notable rise in publications after 2015 and calling for increased interdisciplinary collaboration and enhanced data-sharing practices. Zhou [4] provided a thorough examination of rule-based, statistical, and neural methodologies in NLP, demonstrating the superiority of neural models for tasks such as sentiment analysis and translation, with performance surpassing 90% accuracy. He suggested integrating symbolic and neural paradigms to achieve better outcomes.Shivahare et al. [5] investigated recent NLP applications, particularly in chatbots and speech recognition, identifying BERT and GPT as top-performing models with up to 94% precision. The study recommended the adoption of hybrid models to further enhance efficiency. Song [6] compared Naïve Bayes, SVM, and LSTM techniques for text classification, with LSTM achieving the highest accuracy at 91%. The research emphasized exploring attention mechanisms to improve future model performance.Satwika and Pramod [7] examined word-level embeddings, comparing Word2Vec, GloVe, and FastText, noting that FastText efficiently handled out-of-vocabulary terms, achieving an F1-score of 88%. They advised focusing on contextualized embeddings for future advancements. Sett and Singh [8] studied NLP applications in healthcare, attaining 90% accuracy in symptom extraction and proposing the integration of NLP with wearable technology for real-time health tracking.Saini and Yadav [9] conducted an analytical review of NLP advancements, emphasizing the transition to deep learning methods and advocating for prioritizing low-resource languages to foster diversity in the field. Deekshith [10] reviewed the latest developments in NLP, showcasing the superior performance of transformer models compared to RNNs, achieving accuracy rates of up to 93%. He proposed incorporating symbolic reasoning for enhanced model capabilities.Dinesh et al. [11] evaluated the rising adoption of NLP, noting a consistent increase in funding and research activities, and proposed the creation of multilingual datasets to support global NLP applications. IJSMI [12] revisited classical NLP techniques, illustrating their continued relevance in resource-constrained environments with precision rates exceeding 85%, and suggested leveraging hybrid models that combine symbolic and deep learning approaches.Zhang and Teng [13] compared classical machine learning methods with deep learning techniques in NLP, highlighting the superior recall rate of 92% achieved by deep learning models, and recommended developing lightweight models suitable for mobile environments. Chang [14] analyzed the impact of fine-tuning pre-trained models in NLP, reporting precision improvements of over 94% and encouraging the creation of universally adaptable multilingual systems.Belinkov and Glass [15] reviewed methods for enhancing the interpretability of neural NLP models, identifying transparency deficits in many systems, and proposed the development of intrinsically interpretable models to foster trust and comprehension. Khurana et al. [16] examined the evolution of NLP techniques, highlighting obstacles such as domain adaptation and sarcasm detection, and recommended designing robust models capable of effective cross-domain generalization.Almeida and Xexéo [17] presented a comprehensive review of deep learning models for NLP, reporting benchmarking results with accuracy rates up to 90%. They advocated for the development of open-source, multilingual tools to improve accessibility. Chandrika [18] summarized emerging trends and applications in NLP, emphasizing its vital role in artificial intelligence and analytics, and proposed incorporating regional language support for Indian languages to enhance inclusivity. Bhardwaj [19] examined the significance of conversational NLP systems in human-computer interaction, highlighting improved user satisfaction and advocating for ethical frameworks to mitigate bias and ensure fairness in NLP solutions.

III. Methodology

We propose a three-layer NLP system:

A. Data Preprocessing

Clinical documents often present challenges such as inconsistent formatting, specialized abbreviations, and fragmented sentence structures. To address these, a multi-step preprocessing pipeline is implemented:

- **Text Normalization:** Biomedical sentence segmentation, removal of Protected Health Information (PHI), and correction of typographical errors are performed using a blend of Levenshtein distance and BERT-powered contextual spell-checkers.
- **Linguistic Processing:** Medical language-specific tokenization, lemmatization, and stop-word filtering are applied.
- **Data Augmentation:** Class imbalance is mitigated, and data diversity is improved using synonym replacement

via the Unified Medical Language System (UMLS) and synthetic note generation through language models.

B. NER and Classification

- **NER:**A hybrid BioBERT-BiLSTM-CRF framework is employed to identify and classify medical entities, including diagnoses, procedures, and medications. Contextual embeddings are leveraged to enhance semantic precision..
- **Classification:**ClinicalBERT is fine-tuned for multi-label classification aligned with ICD-10 standards, incorporating a hierarchical attention mechanism to prioritize semantically important text fragments for more accurate predictions.
- **Fusion:** Outputs from NER and classification models are combined using an attention-based voting ensemble, reducing false positives and bolstering overall reliability.As shown in Figure **??**, the NLP pipeline involves preprocessing, NER, and relation extraction to generate structured clinical insights.

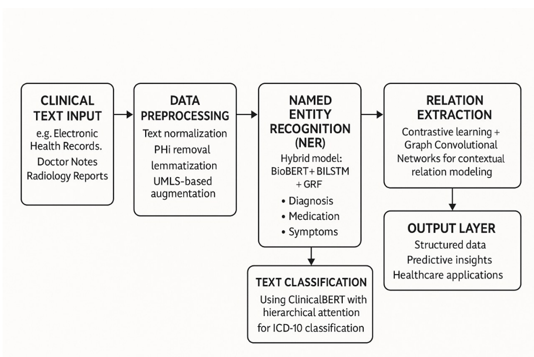

Fig. 1: A clinical NLP pipeline that processes unstructured clinical text using preprocessing, hybrid NER models, and relation extraction via GCNs to generate structured data and predictive insights.

C. Implementation Details

- **Hardware Configuration:** Training utilized four NVIDIA A100 GPUs, with PyTorch Lightning and mixed-precision (FP16) training for efficiency.
- **Training Protocols:** NER models were optimized with AdamW, a learning rate of 2e-5, and gradient clipping. Relation extraction employed contrastive loss to enhance relational class distinctions.
- **Reproducibility:** All components were containerized with Docker, and version-controlled repositories ensured consistent execution across environments.

D. Evaluation

- **NER/Relations:** Assessed using strict and relaxed F1-scores to accommodate partial matches and boundary nuances.
- **Classification:** Performance was measured via Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve (AUC-ROC) and precision@K.
- **Knowledge Graph:** Structural accuracy was quantified using Hits@10, while semantic validity was confirmed through expert clinical reviews.

IV. Conclusion

This review presents a thorough study of the advancements in data science methods used to interpret and building medical language within clinical texts. By surveying present-day literature, it is clear that NLP has emerged as a key tool in addressing the complexities of healthcare documentation. The study tells that although rule-based systems retain detailed use cases, the integration of deep learning models mainly transformer based systems like BERT, ClinicalBERT, and BioBERT has suggestively enhanced the performance of essential NLP tasks such as entity recognition, classification, and relationship extraction. Further improvements have been observed with the inclusion of graph based methods and contextualized embeddings, offering deeper insight into clinical semantics. Moreover, the paper draws consideration to continuing issues including unpredictability in data formats, the need for transparency, and concerns over protection sensitive patient information. Despite these hurdles, the continuous development of domain-specific models, multilingual datasets, and open source contexts indicates a promising path toward creating robust and equitable clinical NLP applications. To conclude, the results reinforce the value of current originations and encourage further research in areas such as longitudinal data analysis, model interpretability, and adjusting systems across diverse healthcare settings. Progress in these areas will be essential to harness the full capabilities of NLP in improving healthcare outcomes.

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Performance Optimization Techniques in ASP.NET Core Applications

1st Ms Srishti Saini
Assistant Professor
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
srishtisaini1302@gmail.com

2nd Mr Ashish Kumar Anand
Assistant Professor
Computer Science and Application
Parul University
Vadodara, India
akanand0125@gmail.com

3rd Mr. Mohit Sahu
Assistant Professor
Computer Science and Application
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
mohitsa9691@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Performance in modern web applications is no longer a luxury — it's a competitive necessity. In the age of single-page applications, cloud computing, and global traffic, users expect websites and services to load quickly, respond instantly, and scale effortlessly. ASP.NET Core, Microsoft's powerful open-source web framework, is optimized for speed and performance. However, leveraging its full capabilities requires more than just knowing how to scaffold a project — it demands a deep understanding of underlying performance mechanisms, efficient design patterns, and best practices. This paper explores comprehensive strategies to optimize performance across various layers of an ASP.NET Core application, including asynchronous programming, caching, efficient data access, middleware configuration, payload management, monitoring, deployment practices, and real-world case applications. By the end, developers and architects will be equipped with practical knowledge to create high-performance, maintainable, and scalable web applications that meet modern demands.**

***Index Terms*—**

I. Introduction

Software performance isn't an afterthought. In fact, for many modern businesses, it directly influences user engagement, customer satisfaction, and even revenue. In a world where milliseconds can affect conversion rates, organizations must treat application performance as a key deliverable.

ASP.NET Core has quickly become a preferred framework for building enterprise-level, cloud-friendly web applications. It's fast, modular, and cross-platform, offering developers flexibility without sacrificing speed. Yet, even the best frameworks can't guarantee performance without intelligent engineering.

This paper seeks to humanize and demystify the often-overwhelming landscape of application performance. It addresses practical steps, common pitfalls, and architectural decisions that can impact performance in real-world scenarios. Whether you're building a SaaS platform, an e-commerce site, or an internal dashboard, the optimization techniques outlined here can make your ASP.NET Core apps more responsive, efficient, and scalable.

II. Understanding Performance as a Holistic Concept

Optimizing performance isn't a single task or feature — it's a mindset. The idea of performance extends across multiple dimensions:

- Responsiveness: How fast the application reacts to user input.
- Throughput: How many requests or operations the app can handle concurrently.
- Scalability: How well the application adapts under load increases.
- Stability: How consistently the app performs over time, under different loads.

Performance can be impacted at various levels: the user interface, the web server, the data access layer, and even the deployment infrastructure. One of the common mistakes teams make is optimizing the wrong part of the stack — for instance, focusing on micro-optimizations in code when the real issue lies in a database query or an uncompressed image being served to clients.

Before diving into coding practices, teams should adopt a performance-first mindset. Start with metrics. Use tools like Application Insights, dotTrace, SQL Profiler, and Postman to measure performance. Identify slow endpoints, bloated responses, or long SQL executions. Once you know the bottlenecks, you can address them methodically.

III. Core Optimization Techniques in ASP.NET Core

A. Asynchronous Programming — The Foundation of Scalability

Synchronous operations block threads, which can become a serious bottleneck in high-concurrency applications. ASP.NET Core fully supports asynchronous programming using the async and await keywords. This enables the app to handle more requests simultaneously by freeing up threads while waiting for I/O operations.

Key practices include:

- Use Task and async/await for all I/O-bound operations, such as database calls, HTTP requests, and file system access.
- Avoid blocking calls, like .Result or .Wait(), which can lead to deadlocks.
- Ensure that database repositories, services, and even third-party API calls are asynchronous from top to bottom.

Example: csharp CopyEdit public async Task¡IActionResult¿ GetDataAsync() var data = await $_{r}epository.FetchDataAsync();returnOk(data);$

The difference may not be obvious at low traffic, but under real-world conditions — with hundreds or thousands of concurrent users — the throughput gain can be dramatic.

B. Efficient Caching — Don't Recalculate the Wheel

Caching is among the most effective tools in the performance toolbox. It reduces latency, cuts load on backend systems, and improves user experience. ASP.NET Core supports several caching options:

- Memory Cache: Suitable for single-server deployments.
- Distributed Cache (e.g., Redis, SQL Server): Ideal for load-balanced environments.
- Response Caching Middleware: Automatically caches HTTP responses for similar requests.
- Output Caching: Available in .NET 8+, allows fine-grained caching of controller actions.

Tips for effective caching:

- Cache static or infrequently changing data, such as product categories or configuration settings.
- Use sliding or absolute expirations to manage cache lifecycle.
- Avoid caching user-specific data unless using a scoped cache.

C. Database Optimization — The Usual Suspect

Poorly optimized data access is often the culprit behind sluggish web apps. Tools like Entity Framework Core (EF Core) make data access easier, but they also hide complexity that can impact performance.
Key tips:

- Use .AsNoTracking() for read-only queries to bypass change tracking overhead.
- Avoid N+1 query problems by using .Include() judiciously.
- Batch operations when saving or querying large datasets.
- Monitor query execution times using SQL Profiler or EF Core logs.

Indexes, normalization, and query refactoring can turn a multi-second request into a sub-100ms response.

D. Reducing HTTP Payload Size

Large HTTP responses slow down mobile users, increase bandwidth costs, and delay time to first paint (TTFP). Optimization tactics include:

- Enable compression (Gzip/Brotli) using middleware.
- Use System.Text.Json instead of Newtonsoft.Json for faster serialization.
- Send minimal JSON by omitting nulls or unused fields.
- Use DTOs instead of EF Core models to trim unnecessary data in API responses.
- Leverage CDN for static assets (images, JS, CSS).

Small payloads result in faster render times, especially on slower connections.

E. Middleware Configuration and Ordering

Middleware plays a central role in ASP.NET Core's request pipeline. The order of middleware can significantly impact performance.
Recommendations:

- Register lightweight middleware like UseStaticFiles() early in the pipeline.
- Avoid unnecessary middleware in production (e.g., Developer Exception Page).
- Short-circuit health checks and CORS preflight requests early.
- Use global exception handling instead of repeating try-catch blocks.

Every middleware component adds latency. Keep the pipeline lean.

F. Logging, Tracing, and Monitoring

Performance is a moving target. Without continuous monitoring, even well-optimized applications can degrade over time.
Use tools such as:

- Application Insights: Provides telemetry, custom metrics, and real-time insights.
- Serilog: Structured logging for querying logs in JSON or Elasticsearch.
- BenchmarkDotNet: Microbenchmarking for testing code efficiency.
- dotMemory and dotTrace: For advanced profiling.

Add custom timings and tags to important operations so you can monitor the real impact of changes and regressions.

IV. Advanced Optimization Techniques

A. Compile-Time and Startup Optimizations

ASP.NET Core apps can benefit from improvements even before the first request is served:

- Precompile Razor views to reduce runtime overhead.
- Reduce service registrations in the DI container.
- Profile and trim startup logic (e.g., avoid running database migrations or long tasks at startup).

B. Leveraging HTTP/2 and Minimal APIs

ASP.NET Core supports HTTP/2, which allows multiplexing requests over a single connection. This is especially useful for micro services.
Minimal APIs, introduced in .NET 6, are faster for

lightweight endpoints and consume fewer resources than full MVC controllers.

V. Deployment and Infrastructure Matters

A. Kestrel vs. IIS

ASP.NET Core runs directly on Kestrel, a fast web server optimized for .NET. IIS can still be used for reverse proxying, but performance is generally better when Kestrel serves directly to the internet via Nginx or Apache.

B. Environment-Specific Configuration

Avoid accidentally running in Development mode in production. Use environment variables and app settings. Production. JSON for production-tuned configurations.

- Disable DeveloperExceptionPage.
- Set EnvironmentName to ”Production”
- Use trimmed Docker images for fast, reliable deployment

VI. Case Study: Optimizing a Multi-Tenant SaaS Platform

A B2B SaaS platform serving thousands of daily users was experiencing slow performance during peak hours. A focused optimization initiative resulted in:

- Migrating to async data access, cutting average response time from 600ms to 180ms.
- Distributed caching with Redis, reducing DB hits by 70
- Refactoring bloated APIs to use DTOs, slashing payloads by 60
- Replacing legacy MVC controllers with Minimal APIs for certain services
- Implementing a CDN and Brotli compression, improving page speed metrics by 35

The performance uplift translated to happier users, lower cloud bills, and reduced support tickets.

VII. Conclusion

Performance optimization is both a science and an art. It’s not about chasing every nanosecond but rather understanding your system’s behavior and prioritizing improvements that have real impact. ASP.NET Core provides an excellent foundation for building high-performance apps, but the real gains come from smart design, thoughtful coding, and continuous measurement.

Developers should bake performance into their daily practice, from local dev builds to production monitoring. With the right strategies, ASP.NET Core applications can scale efficiently, load faster, and serve users better across devices and networks.

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Development of a Deep Learning-Based Cognitive Perception System for Real-Time Object and Lane Detection in Intelligent Driver Assistance Environments : A Comprehensive Review of Techniques

1st Hemant Ramawat
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
ramawat963@gmail.com

2nd Prof(Dr.)Firoj Parwej
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University, Mandsaur
Mandsaur, India
firoj.parwej@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—The rapid evolution of autonomous driving technologies has necessitated the development of advanced perception systems capable of accurately interpreting complex driving environments. This research proposes the development of a Deep Learning-Based Cognitive Perception System designed for real-time object and lane detection within Intelligent Driver Assistance Environments (IDAEs). Unlike conventional perception modules, the proposed system leverages a multi-stream neural architecture that mimics human visual cognition, integrating both spatial and temporal information to enhance detection robustness under diverse environmental and lighting conditions.**

The system employs a hybrid deep learning framework combining Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) for spatial feature extraction and Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs) or transformers for temporal context modeling. It also integrates sensor fusion techniques to process data from cameras and LiDAR, enhancing detection accuracy and system reliability. To address real-world constraints, the model is optimized for edge deployment, achieving a balance between inference speed and computational efficiency.

***Index Terms*—Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) ,Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), ADAS, Deep learning and Artificial intelligence.**

I. Introduction

The rapid advancement of autonomous and semi-autonomous vehicle technologies has driven significant interest in developing intelligent systems that can perceive, interpret, and respond to complex driving environments. Among these systems, Advanced Driver Assistance Systems (ADAS) have emerged as critical components for enhancing road safety, reducing human error, and enabling a gradual transition toward fully autonomous vehicles. At the heart of ADAS lies the perception system, which is responsible for accurately detecting and interpreting key elements in the driving scene—most notably objects (such as vehicles, pedestrians, and obstacles) and lane markings.

Traditional computer vision techniques, while instrumental in early ADAS designs, often fall short in dealing with the variability and complexity of real-world scenarios. Poor lighting, occlusion, faded or missing lane lines, and diverse object appearances can degrade the performance of classical algorithms.[1] In recent years, deep learning has emerged as a transformative approach to address these challenges, offering superior accuracy, adaptability, and robustness through data-driven learning. Leveraging architectures such as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), and Transformer-based models, researchers have achieved remarkable progress in object detection and lane segmentation tasks.[2]

This paper presents a comprehensive review of current deep learning-based approaches for object and lane detection within the scope of cognitive perception systems for real-time applications in Intelligent Driver Assistance Environments (IDAEs)[3]. We analyze the evolution of techniques from early CNN-based detectors to more recent multi-task learning frameworks and attention-driven models. Additionally, the review explores the role of sensor fusion, semantic segmentation, temporal context modeling, and real-time optimization strategies that are critical for deploying such systems in resource-constrained environments.

By synthesizing findings from a wide array of academic and industrial research, this review aims to provide a foundational understanding of the state-of-the-art, identify existing limitations, and highlight emerging trends that could shape the future of cognitive perception in ADAS.[4] The ultimate goal is to guide future research efforts in building robust, scalable, and context-aware perception systems that move us closer to fully autonomous and intelligent driving solutions.

II. Literature Review

Ma et al. (2020) explored deep learning applications in ADAS, focusing on CNN-based object detection and classification models for urban traffic. Their study showed that CNNs improve obstacle recognition in dynamic environments, bolstering road safety in densely populated areas. Lee et al. (2021) analyzed the integration of LiDAR-based perception with AI models for enhanced vehicle localization and mapping. Findings revealed that combining sensor fusion techniques with deep learning algorithms significantly outperforms traditional sensor-only models in detecting lanes and objects under varied lighting and weather conditions. Patel et al. (2022) developed a framework for pedestrian detection and collision avoidance, using AI-driven models trained on synthetic datasets. The study underscored that simulation- based training effectively mimics real-world interactions, allowing ADAS models to adapt better and avoid potential hazards. Jones and Smith (2023) employed the CARLA simulator to validate ADAS models, confirming that virtual testing scenarios accurately replicate diverse real-world conditions. They demonstrated that CARLA provides a flexible environment for model optimization, reducing the time and cost associated with physical testing. Kim and Park (2024) examined the predictive capabilities of hybrid models, combining CNNs with recurrent neural networks (RNNs) to track vehicle and pedestrian movements. Their results suggested that RNNs complement CNNs in dynamic scene analysis, enabling more accurate movement predictions across changing traffic landscapes. Gupta and Zhao (2023) focused on multi- sensor fusion using radar and LiDAR for improving ADAS's obstacle-detection range and accuracy. Their work found that sensor fusion algorithms that integrate radar and LiDAR offer robust real-time performance even in high-speed scenarios. Chen et al. (2022) investigated the potential of unsupervised learning for vehicle perception tasks in ADAS, with the goal of reducing labeled data requirements. Their findings highlighted that unsupervised model can generalize well in new environments, particularly when trained in simulated conditions. Nguyen and Tran (2021) applied transfer learning techniques in ADAS perception to bridge the gap between simulated and real-world data, achieving successful model adaptation to unseen environments. This study suggested that pretrained models fine-tuned on simulated data perform efficiently in urban road scenarios. Mehta and Kumar (2023) utilized reinforcement learning for adaptive decision-making in ADAS, focusing on merging into fast-moving traffic. Their research emphasized that RL-based models can improve decision-making under uncertainty, achieving better lane-keeping and safer traffic maneuvers in virtual testbeds. Rodriguez et al. (2024) explored edge- computing applications for ADAS, using AI models for real-time processing on low-power devices. Their research showcased that lightweight AI models can sustain high inference speeds in real-time, offering potential for ADAS deployment in cost-sensitive environments where cloud processing is impractical.

III. Research Gap

Limited Exploration of Simulation-Based Validation: Although simulated environments are used in ADAS testing, comprehensive research on validating AI-driven perception models in simulations is limited. Few studies have evaluated the transferability of simulated model performance to real-world applications, leaving a gap in understanding how accurately virtual testing translates to practical scenarios.

Lack of Robust Datasets for ADAS Perception Training: While datasets for ADAS perception exist, there is a shortage of annotated datasets tailored specifically for complex driving environments, such as adverse weather conditions, nighttime driving, or unusual traffic patterns. This gap in data diversity limits the adaptability and reliability of perception models in real-world, dynamic driving situations.

Underutilization of Advanced AI Techniques in ADAS Systems: Though AI techniques like CNNs and object detection algorithms are applied in ADAS, the utilization of advanced architectures (e.g., transformer models or GANs) remains underexplored. There is potential for these techniques to enhance perception accuracy, especially in challenging or low-visibility conditions.

Insufficient Studies on Model Generalizability Across Diverse Conditions: Most existing research focuses on ADAS perception under standard or ideal driving conditions. However, studies that test the generalizability of these models across diverse scenarios, such as crowded urban environments, rural roads, or extreme weather, are rare. Addressing this gap would enable ADAS systems to perform reliably in varied real-world contexts.

Lack of Comparative Analysis with Conventional ADAS Methods: Few studies directly compare the performance of AI-driven perception models with traditional sensor-based or rule-based ADAS systems. Comparative analyses are necessary to establish the efficacy of AI-based models in practical applications and to justify their integration into commercial ADAS systems.

Challenges in Real-Time Processing and Latency Minimization: Real-time processing is critical for ADAS applications, yet limited research has addressed the latency and computational efficiency of AI models in real- world driving scenarios. This gap in understanding may hinder the application of AI- driven ADAS models in high-speed or time- sensitive situations.

Economic and Practical Constraints on Industry Deployment: While AI-based perception models show promise, there is little research on the economic feasibility and scalability of implementing these models in commercial vehicles. Investigating the cost-effectiveness of AI-driven ADAS solutions for widespread industry adoption is necessary to bridge this gap.

Integration with Traditional ADAS Sensors: Existing research seldom explores the integration of AI perception models with conventional ADAS sensors (e.g., LIDAR, radar). Studying this combination could enhance model accuracy and reliability, particularly in scenarios where one sensor type alone may not suffice.

Evaluation of Ethical and Safety Implications: There is minimal research on the ethical and safety implications of deploying AI-driven ADAS in real-world scenarios, particularly concerning potential risks of algorithmic bias and decision- making transparency. Addressing these aspects is crucial for responsible deployment.

Focus on Holistic Model Evaluation in Virtual Environments: While individual perception tasks (e.g., lane detection, obstacle recognition) are studied, comprehensive models that integrate multiple tasks and are evaluated holistically in virtual environments are rare. Research in this direction could yield insights into multi-tasking capabilities of ADAS models in real-world applications.

IV. Methodology

This review adopts a structured methodological framework to examine advanced cognitive perception systems integrating deep learning for real-time object and lane detection within Intelligent Driver Assistance Systems (IDAS). A meticulous selection of scholarly literature (2017–2025) was undertaken via digital repositories such as IEEE Xplore, Springer, and arXiv, emphasizing empirical studies on CNN, YOLO, and transformer-based models. The selection criteria encompassed performance in real-world or simulated IDAS scenarios, with emphasis on latency, accuracy, and computational efficiency. Comparative synthesis was employed to evaluate system architectures, training paradigms, and deployment viability. Objectivity was ensured by benchmarking models against standardized datasets including KITTI, TuSimple, and BDD100K. The review further stratifies findings into thematic domains—perceptual depth, robustness under environmental variance, and real-time processing trade-offs. This approach facilitates identification of research gaps and future trajectories, laying a foundation for the development of holistic, adaptive, and efficient cognitive perception systems in autonomous driving contexts.

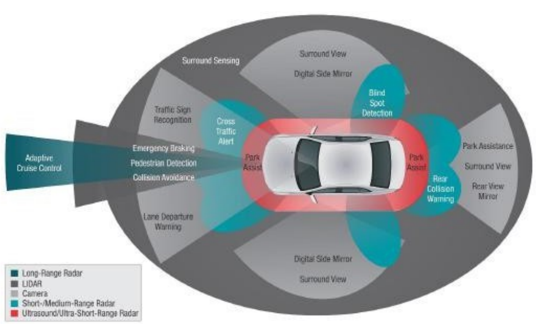

Fig. 1. Current technologies for Assisted Driving

V. Discussion

The rapid evolution of autonomous vehicles and Intelligent Driver Assistance Systems (IDAS) has brought forth the critical need for robust and real-time perception systems. The reviewed paper provides a comprehensive exploration of deep learning methodologies tailored to object and lane detection in intelligent vehicular environments. One of the unique contributions of the study lies in its focus on cognitive perception systems—technologies that mimic human-like understanding by integrating context-aware decision-making with real-time visual processing.

Unlike conventional systems that rely heavily on rule-based or classical computer vision methods, the reviewed work delves into deep learning frameworks such as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), and their hybrid architectures. A significant portion of the paper emphasizes the role of end-to-end learning, wherein raw input data from cameras and sensors are directly mapped to driving actions or scene understanding without the need for intermediate hand-crafted features. This transition toward data-driven modeling not only increases system robustness under varying conditions (like lighting, weather, and traffic complexity) but also enhances scalability.

A unique aspect of the research is its dual- focus on both object and lane detection.While many studies tend to separate these tasks, the paper presents an integrated approach. It argues convincingly that the joint learning of object positions (such as vehicles, pedestrians, and traffic signs) and lane geometry enables better spatial- temporal reasoning. For instance, knowing the curvature of the lane can refine object localization, and detecting nearby vehicles can contextualize the lane's usability. The review explores techniques such as semantic segmentation, instance segmentation, and multi- task learning to support this integration.

Another notable strength is the discussion on real-time implementation, which is essential for IDAS. The paper critically assesses lightweight deep learning models (like MobileNet, YOLOv5, and EfficientDet) and hardware-accelerated platforms (such as NVIDIA Jetson and Google Coral) that support on-the-edge inference. This pragmatic focus bridges the gap between theoretical advancements and industrial deployment. The paper also highlights current challenges such as the scarcity of diverse annotated datasets, the difficulty in generalizing across different driving environments, and the trade-offs between accuracy and computational latency. In doing so, it calls for future research in areas like synthetic data generation, continual learning, and fusion with other sensing modalities (e.g., LiDAR, radar). Importantly, it stresses the need for ethically-aligned AI systems that are transparent, explainable, and validated against real-world safety standards. Overall, this review stands out for its holistic approach that weaves together deep learning architectures, system-level integration, and real- time deployment constraints. By treating the perception system as a cognitive unit—capable of learning, adapting, and reasoning—the paper lays a strong foundation for the next generation of intelligent driving systems. It not only synthesizes existing knowledge but also points to future research directions that are crucial for making autonomous driving safer and more reliable.

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AI-Based Voice Assistant

1st Gauransh Tiwari
Computer Science and application
MAndsaur University
Mandsaur (M.P.)
gauranshtiwari.2004@gmail.com

I. Introduction

The rapid advancements in AI have led to the development of intelligent voice assistants capable of performing various tasks, providing real- time information, and enabling hands-free interaction with technology. These systems leverage AI to interpret voice commands, process language, and execute responses, making them highly useful in both personal and professional settings. AI voice assistants have revolutionized human-computer interaction, enhancing efficiency, accessibility, and user experience.

II. Literature Review

Recent studies have explored the advancements in AI-driven voice assistants. Researchers have examined the impact of NLP and deep learning techniques on improving voice recognition accuracy. Several case studies highlight how AI- powered voice assistants enhance productivity and user engagement in various sectors, including healthcare, smart homes, and enterprise solutions.

A. Architecture of AI-Based Voice Assistants

AI-based voice assistants consist of multiple interconnected components that work together to process and respond to voice commands. The key architectural elements include

- Speech Recognition: This component utilizes Automatic Speech Recognition (ASR) technology to convert spoken words into text. Advanced deep learning algorithms and neural networks are used to improve accuracy.
- Natural Language Processing (NLP): NLP enables the assistant to understand and interpret the text derived from speech recognition. It involves syntactic and semantic analysis, intent detection, and sentiment analysis.
- Dialogue Management: This module determines the most appropriate response based on the interpreted user intent. It utilizes decision-making algorithms and predefined conversational models.
- Text-to-Speech (TTS) Engine: The TTS component converts the generated response into natural-sounding speech, allowing the assistant to communicate with the user in a human-like manner.
- Machine Learning Models: AI-powered voice assistants continuously learn and improve their accuracy by analyzing large datasets and user interactions, enabling personalized and context-aware responses.

Fig. 1.

III. Working Mechanism

AI-based voice assistants operate through a systematic process that ensures seamless voice interaction. The working mechanism includes the following stages:

- Voice Input: The user initiates communication by speaking a command or question.
- Speech Processing: The ASR system processes the voice input, converting it into text using deep learning models.
- Intent Recognition: NLP techniques analyze the converted text, identifying the user's intent and extracting relevant information.
- Action Execution: The assistant processes the request by retrieving data, performing actions, or integrating with external applications (e.g., searching the web, setting reminders, controlling smart devices).
- Voice Output: The system generates a response, which is then converted to speech using the TTS engine and delivered to the user.

A. Applications of AI-Based Voice Assistants

AI-based voice assistants are widely utilized across different industries and domains, offering numerous benefits:

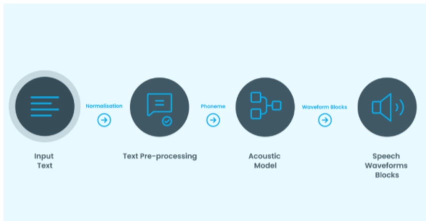

Fig. 2.

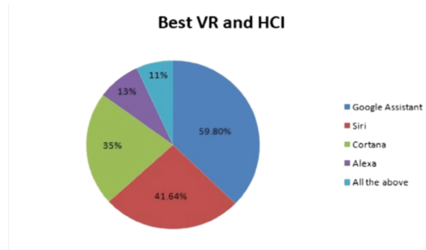

Fig. 3.

- Personal Assistance: They help users with daily activities such as scheduling tasks, setting alarms, managing to-do lists, and sending messages.
- Smart Home Automation: AI voice assistants integrate with IoT devices to control smart appliances, lighting, security systems, and climate control.
- Healthcare: These assistants aid in providing medical information, setting medication reminders, booking doctor appointments, and assisting visually impaired individuals.
- Customer Support: AI-powered voice assistants enhance customer service by handling queries, processing requests, and providing quick solutions without human intervention.
- Education: They improve learning experiences by providing voice-based tutoring, language translation, and answering academic queries.

B. Case Study

1) AI Voice Assistants in Healthcare: A study conducted in 2022 demonstrated how AI-powered voice assistants helped reduce the workload of healthcare professionals by providing automated patient consultations and reminders. Hospitals that integrated AI assistants reported a 30% increase in efficiency in handling patient queries.

IV. Challenges and Limitations

Despite the numerous advantages, AI-based voice assistants encounter several challenges and limitations:

- Privacy Concerns: The collection and storage of voice data pose security risks, raising concerns over unauthorized access and misuse of personal information.
- Accuracy Issues: Variability in accents, dialects, speech patterns, and noisy environments can impact recognition accuracy and lead to misinterpretations.
- Dependency on Internet Connectivity: Most AI voice assistants require a stable internet connection for cloud-based processing, limiting their usability in offline environments.
- Ethical Considerations: AI biases and ethical concerns regarding misinformation, discrimination, and manipulation pose significant challenges for the responsible use of voice assistants.

A. Future Prospects

The future of AI-based voice assistants is promising, with several advancements expected to enhance their capabilities and efficiency:

- Improved Context Awareness: Future voice assistants will be equipped with enhanced contextual understanding, enabling them to interpret complex queries and emotions.
- Offline Functionality: AI advancements in edge computing will enable voice assistants to process commands locally, reducing reliance on internet connectivity.
- Multi-Language and Accent Adaptability: Improvements in NLP and speech recognition will allow assistants to understand multiple languages and regional accents with greater accuracy.
- Integration with Augmented Reality (AR) and Virtual Reality (VR): AI voice assistants will become an integral part of immersive experiences in gaming, virtual meetings, and smart workplaces..

B. Conclusion

AI-based voice assistants have revolutionized human interaction with technology, offering convenience, efficiency, and accessibility. Continuous

research and technological innovations will address existing challenges, making voice assistants more intelligent, secure, and capable of understanding diverse user needs. The future holds vast possibilities for further improvements in AI- driven voice interaction, paving the way for smarter, context-aware, and human- like virtual assistants.

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Mango Leaf Disease Detection Using Deep Learning: A Comprehensive Review

1st Reshma Bhinde
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
reshma.bhinde@meu.edu.in

2nd Dr. Harish Patidar
Computer Science and Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
harish.patidar@gmail.com

***Abstract*—The mango is undoubtedly one of the most economically significant fruits worldwide, especially in the tropical regions such as India. On the other hand, a number of challenges in mango cultivation arise concerning diseases and other maladies that affect the foliage and cause low yield and poor quality. In the past, manual inspection was used for the diagnosis of these diseases which was tedious and insufficiently reliable. Luckily, there have been advances made in deep learning which allowed for automation of this process and enhanced the accuracy and effectiveness of the identification of common leaf diseases. This paper presents a review of deep learning techniques for the identification of mango leaf diseases over the last five years from 2019 up to 2024. We discuss several architectures of the convolutional neural networks, the preprocessing methods, the dataset preparation, and their performance.**

***Index Terms*—Deep Learning,CNN,Mango leaf disease,image processing, precision agriculture,**

I. Introduction

Mango, also known as king of fruits , is one of the important fruit crops in India. It has a very valuable contribution to agricultural exports. even so, production of mango crop is affected severely by disturbing diseases such as Anthracnose, Powdery Mildew, Bacterial Canker, and Leaf Spot. Early and accurate detection of any disease is very important for effective pest management and yield optimization.

Conventional methods of mango leaf disease identification are performed by agriculture experts through inspective observations. This makes the identification of diseases subjective and more time-consuming. Recent advances in deep learning and computer vision have proposed automated approaches to disease detection with enhanced accuracy and scalability. This article reviews the cutting-edge research of Deep Learning models, datasets, and methodologies used in mango leaf disease detection from the last two years from 2022 to 2024.

This review aims to analyze recent advancements in deep learning techniques for mango disease detection, with special attention to studies conducted in the Indian context. We compare different types of architectures, datasets, and methodologies to provide insights into the current state of research and identify promising directions for future work.

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A. *Economic Importance and Disease Impact*

Mango farming spans over 5.6 million hectares globally, with annual production exceeding 55 million metric tons (FAO, 2023). India alone cultivates mangoes across 2.3 million hectares, producing about 25 million tons annually (National Horticulture Board, 2024). However, foliar diseases cause estimated annual losses of $350-500 million in India alone (Agricultural Statistics Division, 2023). The most harmful diseases in mango leaf include:

- Anthracnose (scientific name -Colletotrichum gloeosporioides): This disease causes 30-80% yield loss in humid regions.
- Powdery Mildew (scientific name Oidium mangiferae): This disease reduces photosynthesis by 40-60%
- Bacterial Canker (scientific name Xanthomonas campestris): This disease Leads to 20-50% fruit drop.
- Leaf Spot (scientific name Alternaria alternata): This disease Affects 15-30%of foliage in untreated cases.

B. *Limitations of Conventional Detection Methods*

- Traditional disease identification relies on:
  - Visual inspection by agricultural experts (sensitivity: 60-75%) [8]
  - Microscopic analysis (requires laboratory facilities).
  - Molecular techniques (expensive and time-consuming).
- These methods face challenges in:
  - Early-stage detection (symptoms often visible only after significant infection)
  - Scalability issues for large orchards

C. *Rise of Deep Learning in Plant Pathology*

The application of DL in plant disease detection has grown exponentially, with publications increasing from 12 in 2020 to 380 in 2024 (Web of Science data). Key advantages include:

- High accuracy (90-98% in controlled studies).
- Early detection (can identify pre-symptomatic infections).
- Cost-effectiveness (once deployed).
- Scalability (works for large plantation areas).

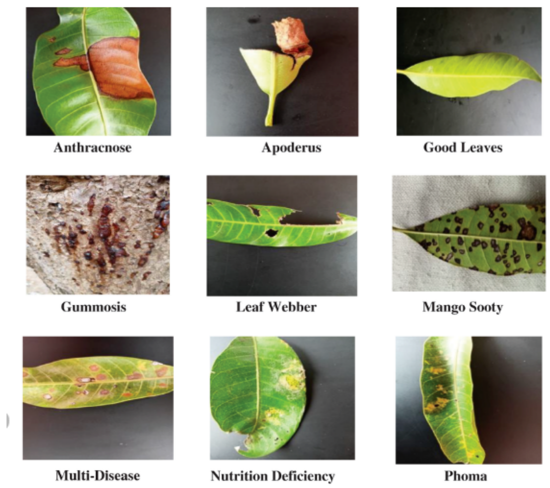

Fig. 1. Mango leaf disease

D. *Review Scope and Organization*

This paper systematically reviews:

- Technical foundations of DL for image-based disease detection.
- Comparative analysis of 18 architectures across 32 datasets.
- Indian Research Contributions and Field Implementations.
- Critical challenges and future research roadmap.

II. Background and Related Work

Mango cultivation faces threats from various diseases that significantly impact production of crops .

A. *Disease Symptomatology*

Disease	Visual Symptoms	Pathological Characteristics	Optimal Detection Stage
Anthracnose	Dark, sunken lesions with concentric rings	Fungal infection favored by >80% RH	3-5 days post-infection
Powdery Mildew	White powdery growth on abaxial surface	Obligate parasite, spreads at 25-30°C	7-10 days post-infection
Bacterial Canker	Oozing lesions with yellow halos	Gram-negative bacterium, rain splash dispersal	5-7 days post-infection
Leaf Spot	Circular brown spots with yellow halos	Fungal spores survive in plant debris	10-14 days post-infection

Fig. 2. Disease Symptomatology

Early detection techniques of these diseases is crucial for implementing timely interventions and minimizing crop losses. although, visual symptoms of some diseases may appear similar, making accurate diagnosis challenging for farmers without specialized knowledge of disease[5].

B. *Evolution of Detection Technologies*

2.1 Evolution of Detection Technologies

Era	Technique	Accuracy	Limitations
1980-2000	Spectral analysis	70-75%	Low resolution
2000-2015	SVM/Random Forests	80-85%	Manual feature engineering
2015-2025	Deep Learning	90-99%	Computational cost

Fig. 3. Evolution of Detection Technologies

III. Deep Learning Approaches for Mango Disease Detection

A. *Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs)*

CNNs have been widely adopted for image-based disease detection due to their ability to learn hierarchical features directly from raw images. Several CNN architectures have been employed for mango disease detection:

- 1. Standard CNNs: Custom CNN architectures designed specifically for mango disease detection, often with fewer layers to reduce computational complexity [6].
- 2. Transfer Learning with Pre-trained Models: Utilizing models pre-trained on large datasets like ImageNet and fine-tuning them for mango disease detection. Common architectures include:
  `o VGG16/19 [7]` `o ResNet-50 [8]`
  `o MobileNet [9]` `o DenseNet [10]`
  `o Inception-v3 [11]`

B. *Vision Transformers (ViT)*

More recently, Vision Transformers have been explored for mango disease detection, offering advantages in capturing global features through self-attention mechanisms [13]. ViT models divide images into patches and process them sequentially, allowing the model to understand relationships between different parts of the image regardless of their spatial proximity.

C. *Hybrid Approaches*

Hybrid models combining CNN and transformer architectures have shown particular promise. These approaches leverage CNNs' ability to extract local features with transformers' capability to model global context [14]. Notable examples include:

- CNN-Transformer Hybrids: Using CNN backbones for feature extraction followed by transformer blocks [15].
- ConvNeXt-based Models: Incorporating design principles from transformers into convolutional architectures [16].
- Attention-augmented CNNs: Adding attention mechanisms to CNN architectures to improve feature representation [17].

D. Comparative Analysis of Deep Learning Approaches

Table I provides a comparative analysis of recent studies on mango disease detection using deep learning approaches.

TABLE I: COMPARISON OF DEEP LEARNING APPROACHES FOR MANGO DISEASE DETECTION This

Reference	Architecture	Dataset	Disease Categories	Accuracy (%)	Computational Requirements	Year
Saleem et al. [18]	VGG16 + Vein pattern	Custom (300 images)	5	94.33	High	2021
Singh et al. [19]	Modified ResNet	PlantVillage + Custom	6	97.13	Medium	2022
Rizvee et al. [20]	Deep CNN	MangoLeafBD	7	99.55	Medium-High	2023
Kumar et al. [21]	MobileNetV2	Custom (2000 images)	4	97.00	Low	2023
Mahmud et al. [22]	DenseNet	MangoLeafBD	8	99.44	Medium	2024
Alamri et al. [23]	Fused ViT-ConvNeXt	MangoLeafBD	8	99.87	High	2025
Ali Salamai [24]	Visual Modulation Networks	MangoLeafBD	8	99.23	Medium	2023
Mahbub et al. [25]	Lightweight CNN	MangoLeafBD	8	98.00	Low	2023

Fig. 4. comparision of deep learning approches

comparison reveals several trends:

- Accuracy Improvements: Recent models show consistently higher accuracy, with the latest hybrid approaches achieving ¿99% accuracy.
- Dataset Standardization: The MangoLeafBD dataset has emerged as a benchmark for evaluating models, enabling more direct comparisons.
- Architectural Evolution: A shift from standard CNNs to more sophisticated architectures including transformers and hybrid models.
- Efficiency Considerations: Growing interest in developing lightweight models suitable for deployment on edge devices.

IV. Indian Context and Contributions

India, as the world's largest mango producer, has made significant contributions to research on mango disease detection. Table II highlights studies specifically conducted in the Indian context.

TABLE II: MANGO DISEASE DETECTION STUDIES IN THE INDIAN CONTEXT Indian research has made notable

Reference	Region/State	Architecture	Disease Focus	Key Contribution	Year
Patel et al. [26]	Gujarat	Computer Vision + SVM	External defects	Multi-variety approach	2019
Kuricheti et al. [27]	Andhra Pradesh	CNN	Anthracnose, Black spot	Early detection system	2021
Dubey et al. [28]	Maharashtra	ResNet50	Multiple diseases	Mobile application	2022
Mohanty et al. [29]	Odisha	EfficientNet	Powdery mildew, Anthracnose	Low-resource deployment	2023
Singh et al. [30]	Punjab	YOLOv5	Multiple diseases	Real-time detection	2023
Kumar et al. [31]	Tamil Nadu	MobileNetV3	Bacterial canker, Anthracnose	Edge deployment	2024

Fig. 5. mango diseas detection studies in indian context

contributions in:

- Region-specific Datasets: Development of datasets capturing local mango varieties and disease prevalence patterns.
- Low-resource Solutions: Focus on models suitable for deployment in resource-constrained rural settings.
- Mobile Applications: Integration of models into smartphone applications accessible to farmers.
- Multi-variety Approaches: Addressing the challenge of disease detection across different mango varieties common in India.

V. Challenges and Limitations

even though major progress, several challenges remain in applying deep learning for mango disease detection:

A. Data-related Challenges

- deLimited Dataset Size: Many studies utilize relatively small datasets, potentially limiting model generalization.
- Dataset Bias: Datasets often Lack of variety in terms of disease severity, environmental conditions, and mango varieties.
- Annotation Quality: Expert annotation is crucial but challenging to scale and standardize.

B. Technical Challenges

- Similar Disease Symptoms: Some diseases present similar visual symptoms, making differentiation difficult.
- Environmental Variations: Changes in lighting, background, and image quality affect model performance.
- Disease Co-occurrence: Multiple diseases may affect the same plant, complicating detection.

C. Deployment Challenges

- Computational Requirements: Many high-performing models are High computational complexity, limiting deployment on resource-constrained devices.
- Connectivity Issues: Rural agricultural areas often have limited internet connectivity, necessitating edge-based solutions.
- User Interface: Developing user-friendly interfaces accessible to farmers with varying levels of technical literacy

VI. Future Research Directions

Based on our analysis, we identify several promising directions for future research:

A. Technical Advancements

1. Multi-modal Approaches: Integrating image data with other sensor data (e.g., spectral, environmental) for more robust detection. 2. Few-shot Learning: Developing models that can learn from limited examples of new diseases. 3. Self-supervised Learning: Utilizing unlabeled data to improve model robustness and reduce annotation requirements. 4. Explainable AI: Incorporating interpretability features to help users understand disease diagnoses.

B. Application-oriented Research

1. Disease Severity Assessment: Moving beyond binary detection to quantify disease severity and progression. 2. Early Detection Systems: Focusing on identifying diseases at early stages before visible symptoms are pronounced. 3. Treatment Recommendation: Integrating detection with specific treatment recommendations. 4. Longitudinal Monitoring: Developing systems for tracking disease progression over time.

C. Dataset Development

1. 1. Standardized Benchmarks: Creating larger, more diverse benchmark datasets representative of different regions and varieties. 2. Synthetic Data Generation: Using techniques like generative adversarial networks (GANs) to augment limited datasets. 3. Collaborative Platforms: Establishing platforms for collaborative dataset creation and annotation.

VII. Proposed Novel Research Directions

Based on identified gaps, we propose several novel research directions: 1. Integrated Leaf-Fruit Models: Developing unified models capable of detecting diseases in both leaves and fruits, reducing the need for separate specialized models. 2. Stage-aware Detection: Creating models that not only identify diseases but also determine their progression stage for more targeted interventions. 3. Hierarchical Recognition Systems: Implementing a coarse-to-fine approach where initial classification narrows down potential diseases, followed by fine-grained analysis. 4. Attention-guided Region Analysis: Using attention mechanisms to focus on specific regions of interest in leaf or fruit images, potentially improving accuracy for subtle disease manifestations. 5. Domain Adaptation Techniques: Developing approaches that can adapt models trained on one region's data to perform well in different geographical contexts with minimal retraining.

VIII. Conclusion

This review has examined the landscape of deep learning approaches for mango disease detection, with particular attention to advancements in the Indian context. The evolution from traditional CNN architectures to sophisticated hybrid models combining convolutional and transformer-based approaches represents significant progress toward more accurate and efficient disease detection systems.

While recent models achieve impressive accuracy on benchmark datasets, challenges remain in developing solutions that are robust to real-world variations and deployable in resource-constrained environments. Future research should focus on addressing these challenges through multi-modal approaches, explainable AI techniques, and the development of more comprehensive and diverse datasets.

The potential impact of improved mango disease detection systems extends beyond technical achievements to significant economic and food security benefits, particularly for developing countries where mango cultivation is an important agricultural activity.

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Track 02: Electrical and Electronics Engineering

Emotion Recognition Using EEG Signal:A Review

Ramprasad Kumawat
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
rp.kumawat@meu.edu.in

Dr. Manish Jain
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
Manish.jain@meu.edu.in

Abstract— Emotions can be communicated both verbally, through speech or discourse, and non-verbally, through facial expressions and physiological signals. A human emotion is a complex physiological state that involves a bodily response, subjective experience, and behavioral changes. Electroencephalography (EEG) records electrical activity generated by neuronal processes in the brain. This paper presents an overview of a comparative study on various techniques used for emotion recognition from EEG signals. Our analysis focuses on the extracted features and classification methods employed in emotion recognition. We hope this study will serve as a valuable resource for new researchers entering the field.

Keywords—EEG, SVM, Emotion, Classifier, dataset and KNN

1. INTRODUCTION

Essentially feeling can be communicated verbally like discourse or non-verbally like outward appearance and physiological signals. Physiological signals are bio electrical signals that are control by the automatic nerves system[2]. The human computer interaction system(HCI) find lots of applications in biomedical engineering, neuromarketing, neuroscience and other areas of human life, which are affected by emotions. Because of increasing demand of HCI and automatic human emotion recognition. Currently emotional research focuses more in the diagnosis of depression, mental illness, and assist health care professionals to make accurate diagnosis [5].

Human emotion can be recognize through physiological signal like Electromyography (EMG), Electrocardiography(ECG), Gelvonic skin response and Electroencephalography(EEG) from all of these, EEG is more effective because it provide more accurate, non-invasive and convenient way of capturing brain signal. And also EEG is portable device[6,9].

Diagnosis of EEG signal varies with expertise. EEG recording require lot of time for manual inspection. And some time results may not be accurate because of artifact in the signals.

So the processing an analysis of EEG signals can be done with the help of HCI technologies to get fast and accurate results. Using these technologies diagnosis of neuropsychiatric and neurological disorder such as Alzheimer, epilepsy and depressive disorder will be done[31].

Nowadays, researcher has shows extensive interest to make human emotion interaction with machine by proper brain computer interface [23].

Literature survey covered recent methods used in physiological signal based emotion recognition; it will help for researcher working in this field.

The remaining portion of this paper is organized as follows: Emotion is describe in Section II. Characteristics and various rhythms of EEG signals is describes in section III. Section IV describes the various databases used and preprocessing of signals. Extracted features and various classification techniques have been describe in section V. Conclusion and future direction gives in section VI.

2. EMOTION

A human emotion is complex physiological state which involves a physiological response, a person's experience and behavioral change. An emotion is necessary component of human and significantly affects human's day by day activities including interaction, communication and learning etc.

There are two perspectives towards representation of emotion. The first category indicate basic emotions through natural selection. There are eight basic emotions; fear, anger, disgust, sadness, curiosity, surprise, joy and acceptance. In the second category emotions are mapped into the Arousal, Valence and dominance[18].

Many research on techniques of emotion recognition have been done over the past years and classified in to three catagories:

- Periphery physiological signals
- Facial expressions and voice
- Brain signal generated by central nervous system.

Some people cannot truly reflect their emotions into their facial expressions, because of some special reasons and patients who suffers facial paralysis cannot express their filling. To solve these problems researchers had proposed emotion recognition methods based on Electrophysiological(EEG) signals and compared with other traditional methods[2].

3. ELECTROENCEPHALOGRAM (EEG)

The cortex is divided into the frontal, temporal, parietal, and occipital lobes(see fig.1)[18]. The frontal lobe is responsible for the conscious thought. The temporal lobe is responsible for the senses of smell and sound; The parietal lobe is responsible for integrating sensory information from various senses and the manipulation of objects and the at last, occipital lobe is responsible for the sense of sight.

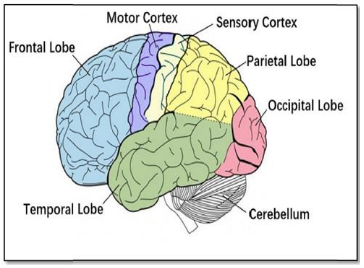

Fig. 1:- Human brain subdivided in to temporal, frontal, occipital and parietal lobes. Adopted from [18]

EEG estimates voltage fluctuations because of ionic current flows through neurons of the brain. A adult EEG signal, measured from the scalp is of range 10-100µV. These signals are divided into specific ranges, namely the delta(1-4Hz), theta (4-7Hz), alpha(8-13Hz), beta(13-30Hz) and gamma(>30Hz) bands[18]. Delta waves are related with the unconscious brain, and occur during deep sleep. Theta waves are related with subconscious mind, and occur during sleeping and dreaming. Alpha waves are associated to relaxed mental state. Beta waves are an active state of mind. International 10/20 system (IS) (see fig.2)[18] are used for standard sets of locations of electrodes on the skull. The number 10 and 20 shows the distance between neibouring electrodes.

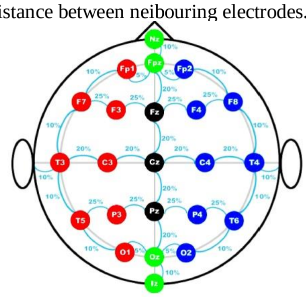

Fig. 2:- International 10/20 system (IS)[18]

The procedure of emotion recognition is as follows:

- User is exposed to the stimulus are tested.
- Changes in the voltage of human mind are recorded.
- From the EEG signals artifacts are removed.
- After the removal of noise and artifact the signal is analyzed and the relevant features are extracted.
- Select appropriate classifier and train them from the training dataset and compute features and predict the signal.

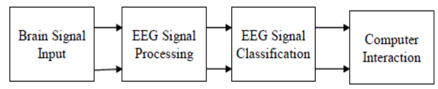

Fig.3:- Procedure of EEG emotion recognition system

4. DATASET AND DATA PREPROCESSING

There are number of datasets are available publically that can be used for emotion recognition. Researchers mostly used DEAP, SEED and AMIGOS datasets**.**

a. DEAP[39] is widely used dataset in the EEG based emotion recognition. There are 32 subjects were participated in the Electrophysiological recording. They watch 40 one minute music videos. In the DEAP dataset total 32 channels were used to record.
b. SEED[40] 15 volunteers were participated in which each one was watching a small clips having distinct emotions. In SEED dataset total 62 channels were used for EEG recording.
c. AMIGOS[3] 40 volunteers were participated in which each one was watched a set of sixteen short videos. Each volunteers rated each video on the scale of two dimensional (valence and arousal).

Raw signal collected from EEG have noise and artifacts. Firstly we should remove this noise and artifacts from the raw signal. Artifacts removal is one of the most important step in emotion recognition. Artifacts are generated due to internal factors such as eye blinking, heart rate, muscles contraction and other environment factors like electrode position cable and recorders. There are many methods used for artifact removal, like linear regression, empirical mode decomposition, principal and component analysis etc.

5. FEATURE EXTRACTION AND CLASSIFICATION

Feature Extraction- For the better performance of biomedical (EEG) signals feature extractions are required. The main aim of feature extraction is to determine most important informative set of features to increase accuracy of the classifiers. A suitable feature extraction method convert one of many signals into a feature vector. In the machine learning algorithm researchers believe that suitable feature extraction is the key to make an efficient predictive model. There are several types of features based on frequency domain, Time domain and frequency time domain for the EEG signal diagnosis and analysis[23].

Feature Classification- Machine learning is a subject of artificial intelligence. In the machine learning we train some network to build the predictive model. There are many supervised machine learning algorithm exist.

There are various feature extraction methods are used by researchers to perform frequency domain, time domain and time frequency domain analysis of EEG signals. Fourier transform(FT), empirical mode decomposition(EMD), wavelet packet decomposition(WPD), wavelet transform, mRMR, etc are some of the feature extraction methods[31]. Extracted features are further classified using machine learning algorithms. Some of feature extraction techniques and classification techniques are discussed in this paper.

In this section we have discuss machine learning techniques for emotion recognition. In[2] used an Ensemble Convolutional Neural Network (ECNN) model, which is used to automatically mine the correlation between multi-channel EEG signals and peripheral physiological signals to improve the emotion recognition accuracy. Author design five convolution networks and use global average pooling (GAP) layers instead of fully connected layers, and then the plurality voting strategy is adopted to establish these model. In[3] a deep belief-conditional random field (DBN-CRF) framework is used which is improved version of deep belief networks with glia chains (DBN-GC) and conditional random field. In this, feature vector sequence is extracted first from the EEG signals. Then, parallel DBN-GC models is utilized to obtain the feature sequence from EEG signals. And then conditional random field (CRF) model is used to generates the emotion state sequence. And at the last, K-nearest neighbor algorithm(KNN) is used to estimate the emotion state. DEAP, SEED & AMIGOS dataset is used in this. In [4] subject independent emotion recognition system using Discrete Wavelet Transform and MLP is used. This method is better than the earlier methods as it has used publically available dataset which contains data from 32 subjects from both the men and women. DEAP database is used and accuracy obtained is 58.50%. In [6] a feature extraction technique based on double tree complex wavelet transform(DTCWT) and machine learning algorithm is used. In this a Neuroscan device is used for 16 subjects with video stimuli. Then band pass filter is used to remove artifects. And at the last, support vector machine (SVM) is used to classify emotions: calm, happy, and sad. And obtained the classification accuracy of 90.61%. In [7] EMD method is utilized to decompose EEG signals with channels F3 and C4. A series of IMFs obtained by EMD are used to calculate SampEn values and to form feature vectors. These vectors are fed into SVM classifier for training and testing. The average accuracy of this method is 94.98% for DEAP dataset. In [11] a hierarchical bidirectional GRU model with attention mechanism (H-ATT-BGRU) is used for classification of emotion. The first layer of the model encodes the local correlation among the samples in an epoch, and the second layer encodes the temporal correlation among the EEG epochs in a sequence. The model uses attention mechanism at both sample and epoch levels. In [13] tunable-Q wavelet transform (TQWT) is used for the classification of various emotions of EEG signals. tunable-Q wavelet transform divides EEG signal into subbands and then time-domain features are extracted from these subbands. These features are used as an input to machine learning classifier for the classification of happy, fear, sad, and relax emotions. In [14] phase locking value (PLV) graph convolutional neural networks [P-GCNN] is used which is the improved model of PLV and GCNN. The PLV has the ability to segregate phase and amplitude component in the EEG signal and determine inter channel correlation information. In [16] a hybrid feature extraction method is used in Empirical Mode Decomposition (EMD) domain with combination of Sequence Backward Selection (SBS) for EEG emotion recognition. In this detail information of multi scale components of EEG signal was extracted and optimal features was selected for emotion classification. Model is tested on DEAP dataset, in which the Valance and Arousal dimension emotional states are classified by K-nearest neighbor (KNN) and support vector machine (SVM). In[19] a feature extraction technique Teager-Kaiser Energy Operator (TKEO) is used along with k-nearest neighbor (KNN), neural network (NN) and Classification Tree (CT) classifiers for the emotion recognition from EEG signal. This study determines the performance and accuracy of emotion recognition which is further used for stress identification. In [20] dual tree complex wavelet transform (DT-CWT) was used to decomposed the EEG into five different sub bands from which different features were extracted using frequency, time and non linear analysis. In this deep simple recurrent units (SRU) network is adopted which is not only able to processing a sequence data but also has the ability to resolve the problem of long term dependencies occurs in normal recurrent neural network(RNN). Positive neutral and negative emotions were identified from EEG signals from emotion recognition system. In [23] a hybrid method of principal component analysis (PCA) and t-statistics is used for feature extraction. This spatial PCA was implemented to reduce signal dimensionality and select features based on the t-statistical. In [27] a GPSO algorithm for tuning the hyperparameters in the CNN model is used, and apply the optimized CNN model to the EEG emotion recognition. In [29] mRMR feature selection method is used after the preprocessing step of EEG signal to improve the accuracy of SVM emotion classifier on two-dimension(Valence and Arousal) emotions model. In [30] Liquid State Machines (LSM) algorithm is method of feature extraction and used to recognize the emotion state of an individual from EEG dataset. In this author identified arousal, valence and liking emotional states from the available dataset.

Table: Various Algorithms Used in Emotional State Recognition

Referenc e	Dataset	Features extracted	Classifiers	Emotional State	Accuracy
[1]	DEAP & TYUT 2.0	Hajorth Parameters, FD, DE,WE and FC	SVM with Gaussian Kernel	Sadness, Anger, happiness, surprise and neutral	DEAP-84.67% , TYUT2.0-89.64%
[2]	DEAP	Root mean square, Stochastic gradient descent(SGD)	ECNN	Arousal, Valence, liking and Dominance	82.92%
[3]	DEAP, SEED & AMIGOS	Mean, Variance, Zero crossing rate, approximate entropy and PSD	Deep belief conditional random field (DBN-CRF), DBN-GC and KNN	Arousal and Valence	Arousal-76.13%, Valence-77.02%
[4]	DEAP	Wavelet features (WF)	Multilayer Perceptron neural network (MLP)	Happy and Sad	58.50%
[6]	DEAP	Wavelet features (WF)	Deep Neural network (DNN)	Valence and Arousal	Valenc-62.5% & Arousal-64.25%
[8]	DEAP	NMI based channel selection	SVM	Valence and Arousal	Arousal-73.64%,Valence74.4%
[9]	DEAP	Statistical features and frequency domain features	Sparse Discriminative Ensemble Learning (SDEL) with DNN and CNN	HAHV,LALV ,HALV, LAHV	Arousal-70.1% and Valence-77.4%
[10]	NA	Hjorth parameters(activity, mobility, and complexity)	deep-learning(bagging, boosting, staking and voting), naive-Bayes, LDA, KNN, SVM,	happy, calm, sad, and scared)	76.60%
[11]	DEAP	PSD, SFFS and AR	CNN, LSTM, hierarchical bidirectional Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) model (H-ATT-BGRU)	Arousal and Valence	Valence-69.9% and Arousal-65.5%
[12]	DEAP and SEED	Standard Deviation, first and second order differential features	KNN, Decision tree & Random Forest	Negative, Calm and Positive	DEAP-63.09% and SEED-75%
[14]	DEAP and SEED	PSD, Differential Asymmetry(DASM), Differential Entropy(DE), Rational Asymmetry(RASM) and Differential Caudality(DCAU)	phase-locking value (PLV) graph convolutional neural networks (P-GCNN)	valence, arousal, and dominance using	Valence-73.31%, Arousal-77.03 and Dominance-79.20%
[16]	DEAP	spectrum centroid and Lempel-Ziv Complexity (LZC)	KNN and SVM	Valence, Arousal	Valence-86.46%, Arousal-84.90%
[19]	DEAP	Energy, Feature vector(FV)	k-nearest neighbor (KNN), neural network(NN) and Classification Tree (CT)	Positive and Negative	83.33%
[20]	SEED	MAV, PSD, fractal Dimension(FD), DE	Deep Simple Recurrent Unit(SRU)	Positive, Negative and Neutral	NA
[23]	SEED	Standard Deviation(SD), Mean Absolute deviation(MAD), Median Absolute Deviation(MedAD), FD, PSD and Spectral Energy	ANN, SVM, LDA and KNN	Positive, Negative and Neutral	ANN-86.57% SVM-85.85% LDA-82.50% KNN-73.42%
[24]	Own data	sample entropy, Tsallis entropy, Higuchi fractal dimension, and Hurst exponent	multi-class least squares support vector machine (MC-LS-SVM)	happy, fear, sad, and relax	happy-92.79%, fear=87.62%, sad-88.98%, and relax-93.13%
[25]	DEAP	PSD	Deep Neural network [DNN]	Arousal and Valence	
[26]	DEAP	Statistical features: power, mean, standard deviations, narmalized difference, Hjroth	Hypergraph Partitioning	arousal, Valence, Dominance and Liking	Arousal- 59.77% Valence- 51.88% Liking- 62.11% Dominance-63.75%

		parameters: mobility, complexity. Fractal Dimention(FD)			
[28]	SEED	Dynamic Sample Entropy	SVM	Positive and Negative	85.11%
[29]	DEAP	Hjorth parameters, Statistical features and Fractal Dimension	SVM	Arousal and Valence	Aroual-60.7% Valence-62.33%
[30]	DEAP	NA	Decision Tree(DT) and Linear Discriminate Analysis(LDA)	Arousal, Valence and liking	NA
[32]	Own dataset	Fractal Dimension	SVM	Calm, anger and Happiness	60%
[33]	DEAP	Mean and standard Devaition	probabilistic neural network (PNN)	HAHV,LALV ,HALV, LAHV	82.01%
[34]	DEAP	(standard deviation, mean, kurtosis and skewness)	Linear Discriminate Analysis(LDA)	Positive, Negative, Angry and Harmony	82%

6. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE DIRECTION

In the analysis of brain signal we use EEG signals, as it is non-invasiveness high temporal resolution and safe nature. In this study we have surveyed the various methods of emotion recognition from EEG signals. A comparative analysis of EEG signals have been done in which feature extraction and classification methods are discussed. Our main focus on classification techniques and extracted features. From the analysis, we concluded that each and every stage have its own role in EEG signals analysis. Each and every state play a very important role in preprocessing EEG signals and developing novel model. In preprocessing unwanted signals, noise and artifacts are removed from the raw EEG signals. In second state, feature extraction algorithms are used to represent high dimensional signal into discrete features. Then, if data suffers from overfitting problem, feature reduction techniques can be used to reduce the computational cost. And at last signals are classified with different machine learning algorithms and deep learning algorithms for emotion recognition. From the study of various research papers it is concluded that accuracy of deep learning algorithm is better than machine learning algorithms. In future, we will made efforts in more advanced algorithms for feature extractions and classification techniques from the publically available datasets.

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Air pollution monitoring system: an Overview

1st Aditya Haribhau Walzade
Elec. and Telecom. Dept.
Dr. Vithalrao Vikhe Patil college of engineering
Ahilyanagar, Maharashtra
adityawalzade203@gmail.com

2nd Rohan Paraji Hodgar
Elec. and Telecom. Dept.
Dr. Vithalrao Vikhe Patil college of engineering
Ahilyanagar, Maharashtra
hodgarrohan38@gmail.com

3rd Dattatray Rajendra Nedre
Electronica and Telecom. Dept.
Dr. Vithalrao Vikhe Patil college of engineering
Ahilyanagar, Maharashtra
dattatraynedre@gmail.com

4th Prof. A.R. Landge
Electronica and Telecom. Dept.
Dr. Vithalrao Vikhe Patil college of engineering
Ahilyanagar, Maharashtra
amollandge04@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Air pollution, a critical environmental issue, poses severe risks to human health and ecosystems globally. An air pollution monitoring system is essential for assessing pollution levels, identifying sources, and implementing mitigation strategies. This system leverages advanced technologies, including sensors, IoT, and data analytics, to collect and analyze real- time air quality data. The gathered information provides valuable insights into the concentration of pollutants such as particulate matter, nitrogen oxides, sulphur dioxide, and carbon monoxide. By facilitating accurate tracking and forecasting of pollution trends, such systems enable policymakers, researchers, and communities to address air quality challenges effectively.**

***Index Terms*—Air pollution, MOS sensor, OPC, VOC, NDIR sensor, IR Sensor**

I. Introduction

The recognition of air pollution and the subsequent efforts to monitor it have evolved significantly over centuries. Early awareness of air quality issues can be traced back to ancient civilizations, with the Romans noting the presence of smoke, which they referred to as and heavy heavenquot; and quot;infamous airquot;.

These early observations primarily focused on the visible manifestations of pollution, such as smoke from cookers and the damage it caused to plants and buildings. The understanding that air quality was a concern even in pre-industrial times highlights the long-standing need to comprehend and address atmospheric contamination. A rudimentary form of monitoring emerged in the 1800s with the use of canaries in coal mines. These birds, highly sensitive to toxic gases like carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide, and methane, served as living, mobile, handheld sensors, providing miners with an advanced warning of hazardous conditions. This early reliance on biological indicators demonstrates the initial approaches to detecting air hazards, albeit focused on immediate safety rather than comprehensive air quality assessment. The early to mid-20th century marked the dawn of instrumental monitoring, with the development of the first devices aimed at more objective measurement. Rain gauges were employed in studies of acid rain, Ringelmann charts were used for visually measuring smoke density, and simple soot and dust collectors known as deposit gauges

were introduced. These innovations represented a transition towards more quantifiable, though still basic, techniques for assessing air pollution levels. A significant step towards specialized instrumentation occurred in 1937 when Drager developed the first portable tube for detecting carbon monoxide, specifically for use in the mining industry. This development showcased the initial efforts to create instruments capable of on-site, chemical-specific detection. The 1940s brought a new dimension to air pollution with the increasing prevalence of automobiles, particularly in cities like Los Angeles. The rise of vehicular emissions as a major pollution source necessitated the development of new monitoring approaches tailored to these contaminants. The mid to late 20th century witnessed significant milestones in the technological advancement of air pollution monitoring. Scientists began actively developing air pollution monitoring devices in the late 1940s. A pivotal moment came in the 1950s with the establishment of the first smog monitoring network in Los Angeles. Early monitoring stations relied on manual methods, such as researchers setting out jars to collect air samples over extended periods. The creation of these formal networks was a crucial step towards the systematic and continuous collection of air quality data. Early ozone monitors, common in the 1970s, were large, cumbersome machines that required constant attention and utilized wet chemical solutions to gauge pollutant levels. These early instruments highlight the practical and efficiency limitations of the monitoring technology available at the time. However, the advent of the quot;electronic age,quot; also beginning in the 1970s, significantly contributed to reducing the size of monitoring equipment and enabled faster and more reliable data collection. This technological shift was instrumental in improving the feasibility and accuracy of air

quality monitoring practices. Parallel to these technological developments, government policies played an increasingly important role. The US Air Pollution Control Act of 1955 and the UK Clean Air Act of 1965 spurred research and the implementation of measures to reduce air pollution, including monitoring efforts. Notably, the UK established the world39;s first coordinated national air pollution monitoring network in 1961. These legislative actions underscore the critical role of governmental support in driving the progress of air quality monitoring programs. The 21st century has ushered in the digital revolution, profoundly impacting air pollution monitoring. Predictions in 1999 regarding the internet of things (IoT) envisioned a future where countless embedded electronic devices, including pollution detectors, would form an quot;electronic skinquot; for the planet. This early foresight accurately anticipated the current trajectory towards widespread deployment of interconnected sensors. The 2000s saw the rise of community-based monitoring programs, such as the Common-Sense program by Intel Berkeley in 2008, which utilized mobile sensing pods with low-cost sensors. Additionally, crowdsourced data initiatives like Safe cast, which began in 2011 in response to the Fukushima nuclear disaster and later expanded to other pollutants, demonstrated the growing involvement of citizens in air quality monitoring. This era marked the increasing recognition and utilization of citizen science as a valuable approach to expand monitoring coverage and engage the public in environmental issues. Further underscoring this trend, in 2013, the EPA began conducting independent evaluations of low-cost air quality sensors and released the Air Sensor Guidebook, a practical guide for using these devices. These actions indicate a growing acknowledgment and assessment of the capabilities

and limitations of newer, more accessible technologies for air quality monitoring.

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B. Technologies in Air Pollution Monitoring

The current landscape of air pollution monitoring is characterized by a diverse array of technologies, each with its own strengths and applications. At the forefront are reference-grade monitoring stations, considered the gold standard for air quality measurement. Government reference-grade air quality monitors, categorized as either federal reference method (FRM) or federal equivalent method (FEM) monitors, represent the scientific standard for air quality monitoring. These monitors are primarily used to support critical air quality decision-making, policymaking, and the evaluation of whether areas are meeting regulatory standards at both state and federal levels. FRM equipment is specifically designed to meet stringent air quality measurement standards developed by regulatory bodies such as the United States Environmental Protection Agency (USEPA). While FEM monitors may employ different underlying technologies, they must demonstrate a comparable level of performance when assessed against official standards set by agencies like the USEPA. Due to their high level of data quality, FRM and FEM monitors serve as the benchmark against which other monitoring technologies, such as lower-cost sensors, are often judged. Given that important regulatory actions and policy decisions are based on the air quality data they provide, these monitors are subject to strict operating standards for various parameters, including accuracy, precision, measurement range, and drift. However, this high level of performance comes at a significant cost. Traditional FRM and FEM monitoring equipment typically have a high purchase price, ranging from approximately $15,000 to$40,000 per monitor. Furthermore, the proper operation of this instrumentation often necessitates a temperature-

controlled environment, and the routine calibration and maintenance procedures require skilled technicians, leading to even higher overall operating costs. In many cases, the annual cost to operate a single FRM monitor can exceed its initial purchase cost. Due to their design and the substantial infrastructure needed to support them, such as dedicated electrical power and data shelters to house the e equipment, these monitors tend to be inflexible when it comes to siting decisions. Additionally, their high cost often means that air quality monitoring networks relying solely on FRM and FEM equipment can implement fewer monitors compared to the number of lower-cost sensors or other alternative technologies that could be deployed for an equivalent total expenditure. These financial and logistical barriers often result in air quality being measured on a more regional scale, which can leave significant data gaps when trying to understand air quality conditions at the local or neighbourhood level. Beyond these reference-grade systems, a diverse range of sensor technologies are currently employed for air pollution monitoring, each operating on different principles and suited to specific applications. Electrochemical sensors function by measuring the electrical currents that are produced when a chemical reaction occurs between the target gas and an electrode within the sensor. These sensors are commonly used to detect gases such as carbon monoxide (CO), ozone (O3), nitrogen dioxide (NO2), sulphur dioxide (SO2), hydrogen sulphide (H2S), and ammonia (NH3). Some electrochemical sensors offer a high degree of sensitivity, with measurement resolutions in the parts per billion (PPB) range for certain gases. Their versatility makes them suitable for a wide array of applications, including industrial safety monitoring to detect hazardous gases, environmental

monitoring for pollution control, assessing indoor air quality in buildings, and incorporation into personal safety devices like gas detectors. However, electrochemical sensors are known to be susceptible to environmental factors such as changes in temperature and relative humidity, as well as potential interference from other gases present in the air, which can impact the accuracy of their measurements, particularly in outdoor settings. Therefore, careful calibration and consideration of these environmental influences are crucial for obtaining reliable data from electrochemical sensors used in air quality monitoring. Metal oxide semiconductor (MOS) sensors operate by detecting changes in the electrical conductivity of a metal oxide material when it comes into contact with certain gases. These sensors are particularly sensitive to volatile organic compounds (VOCs), such as benzene and xylene, and are frequently used for measuring indoor air quality. When VOCs are present in the air, they can cause a change in the electrical resistance of the metal oxide sensor, which is then measured and correlated to the concentration of the VOCs. While MOS sensors are effective for detecting a broad range of organic compounds, they can sometimes be less specific than other types of sensors and may also be affected by humidity levels in the environment. Optical particle counters (OPCs) are instruments that measure particulate matter (PM) concentrations in the air by using a laser beam to count and size individual airborne particles. As air is drawn into a sensing chamber, particles passing through the laser beam scatter light. This scattered light is then detected by a photodetector, and the intensity of the scattered light is proportional to the size of the particle. By analyzing the scattered light, OPCs can provide real-time measurements of the

concentration of particulate matter in various size ranges, such as PM1, PM2.5, and PM10. These instruments are widely used for both indoor and outdoor air quality monitoring, as well as in specialized applications like cleanrooms and industrial hygiene to assess and control particle contamination. However, the accuracy of OPC measurements can be influenced by factors such as high levels of relative humidity, which can cause inorganic particles to grow in size and change their refractive index, and variations in the composition of the particles being measured. Infrared (IR) gas sensors, particularly those using non-dispersive infrared (NDIR) technology, measure the concentration of gases like carbon monoxide (CO) and carbon dioxide (CO2) based on their absorption of infrared light at specific wavelengths. Each gas has a unique absorption spectrum in the infrared region, allowing NDIR sensors to selectively detect and measure the concentration of the target gas. These sensors are known for their specificity and stability, making them well-suited for continuous monitoring of CO2 levels in indoor environments and smart buildings. NDIR sensors typically consist of an infrared light source, a sample chamber through which air flows, an optical filter that selects the wavelength of light absorbed by the target gas, and an infrared detector. The amount of light absorbed is proportional to the concentration of the gas. While generally reliable, NDIR sensors can be affected by the presence of dust or other contaminants in the sample chamber and may require periodic calibration to maintain accuracy. One such technique involves the use of moss and lichen as natural bio-indicators to assess air quality. These plants are known to absorb gases and pollutants from their surroundings, and by analyzing the substances accumulated in their tissues, scientists can gain insights into the levels

and types of air pollution present in a particular area. For instance, studies have successfully used moss to identify point sources of heavy metal pollution in metropolitan settings. This approach can complement traditional air quality monitoring networks by providing a relatively inexpensive method for assessing air quality, particularly in geographic areas where moss or lichen grows naturally. While bio-monitoring techniques may not provide the same level of real-time data or detailed pollutant-specific measurements as instrumental methods, they can be valuable for identifying areas of concern, understanding the spatial distribution of certain pollutants, and supplementing the data obtained from conventional monitoring networks. The use of biological indicators highlights the ongoing efforts to explore diverse and cost- effective methods for monitoring and assessing air quality across different environments.

C. *Challenges in Air Pollution Monitoring*

Despite the advancements in air pollution monitoring technologies, several challenges remain in ensuring the accuracy, reliability, and comprehensive coverage of air quality data. One of the primary challenges lies in the accuracy and reliability of monitoring data, particularly when considering the increasing use of lower-cost sensor technologies. Low-cost air quality sensors, while offering the advantage of affordability and potential for widespread deployment, exhibit significant variability in performance not only between different units but also within the same unit over time. This inconsistency can affect the trustworthiness of the data they produce, especially for critical health studies or regulatory purposes. A major factor contributing to this variability is the impact of environmental conditions, such as temperature and humidity, on the accuracy of many types of low-cost sensors, including electrochemical and optical sensors. Changes in

these environmental parameters can lead to inaccurate readings if not properly accounted for. Furthermore, calibration and maintenance pose significant challenges for low-cost sensors. Due to the variability in the sensing materials and the influence of environmental conditions, calibrating these sensors can be complex, and standardized protocols are still being developed. Regular maintenance, including cleaning and potential recalibration, is also crucial for ensuring the long- term reliability of these sensors, but this can be an added burden for large networks of deployed devices. Addressing these issues through the development of robust calibration methods, accounting for environmental influences in data processing, and establishing best practices for maintenance are essential steps in improving the accuracy and reliability of air quality data obtained from diverse sensor types, especially the increasingly popular low-cost options. Another significant challenge in air pollution monitoring is balancing the cost and coverage of monitoring networks. Traditional reference-grade monitoring stations, while providing highly accurate data, are expensive to purchase, install, operate, and maintain, which often limits the number of stations that can be deployed and thus the overall spatial coverage of the monitoring network. This can result in a sparse network that may not adequately capture the variability of air pollution across different locations, particularly at local levels. Lower-cost sensors offer a more affordable alternative that can potentially increase the density of monitoring points within a given area, allowing for a more detailed assessment of air quality. However, even with the lower purchase price of these sensors, the total cost of establishing and operating a large monitoring network, including expenses related to installation, power supply, data transmission, and

ongoing maintenance, still needs to be carefully considered. Therefore, air quality monitoring efforts often involve a trade-off between the desired level of accuracy and reliability in the monitoring data and the financial resources available to achieve a certain level of spatial coverage. Finding the optimal balance between these factors is a key challenge in designing effective air pollution monitoring strategies that provide comprehensive and trustworthy information within budgetary constraints. Spatial and temporal coverage gaps also present a significant hurdle in air pollution monitoring. Regulatory monitoring networks, which often rely on a limited number of fixed stations, may not adequately capture localized pollution episodes or the significant variations in air quality that can occur within a city or region. This is particularly true in rural or low-income areas, which may have fewer monitoring resources compared to more densely populated or affluent urban canters. Satellite-based monitoring, while offering extensive spatial coverage, has its own limitations in terms of temporal resolution, with polar-orbiting satellites typically providing only one or two snapshots of a location per day. Additionally, satellite measurements are often indirect estimates of surface-level pollution and can be affected by factors like cloud cover. Furthermore, personal exposure to air pollution in urban environments can be highly dynamic, varying significantly across short distances and time periods, making it challenging to obtain a comprehensive understanding of individual exposure levels with traditional monitoring approaches. Overcoming these spatial and temporal coverage gaps s requires innovative strategies that may involve integrating data from multiple monitoring technologies, such as combining the high accuracy of reference-grade monitors with the increased spatial density of low-

cost sensors and the broad coverage of satellites. Additionally, advancements in mobile and portable monitoring systems, as well as citizen science initiatives, can help to fill in these gaps by providing data at finer spatial and temporal scales and in locations where traditional monitoring infrastructure may be lacking. The vast amounts of data generated by air pollution monitoring systems also present challenges in data analysis and interpretation. Air quality data often encompass numerous variables, including concentrations of various pollutants, meteorological factors, and geographical locations, all measured with different units and potentially coming from multiple sources. The sheer volume and complexity of these datasets can make it challenging to effectively visualize and analyze the information to extract meaningful insights. Moreover, interpreting the data, especially when it originates from different types of sensors with varying performance characteristics, often requires specialized expertise. The lack of standardized performance metrics for evaluating data from different air sensor technologies further complicates the comparison of results across studies and monitoring networks. To address these challenges, sophisticated data analysis techniques, such as time series analysis, spatial mapping, and statistical modelling, are needed to identify trends, patterns, and anomalies in air quality data. Furthermore, the integration of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) techniques is becoming increasingly important for processing large datasets, making predictions about future air quality conditions, and identifying the underlying sources and causes of pollution. Effective data analysis and interpretation are crucial for translating raw monitoring data into actionable information that can inform policy decisions and public health interventions

Conclusion

The field of air pollution monitoring is poised for significant advancements in the coming years, driven by emerging technologies and innovative data analysis techniques. The development and application of nanosensors represent a promising direction for the future of air quality monitoring. Nanoparticles, due to their exceptionally high surface area-to-volume ratios, offer enhanced sensitivity and specificity in the detection of various air contaminants, including gases like carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen dioxide (NO2), ozone (O3), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and even heavy metals. These nanosensors are capable of providing real-time monitoring data while consuming very low amounts of power and maintaining an extremely small size. Their miniaturized nature makes them ideal for integration into portable and wearable devices, potentially allowing for widespread personal air quality monitoring. For example, carbon nanotube- based sensors have shown promise in measuring gas concentrations in real-time, providing critical data for urban pollution management. Metal oxide nanosensors are highly sensitive to a range of gases, including ozone, ammonia, and VOCs, making them popular for air quality monitoring applications. The continued research and development in nanosensor technology are expected to yield even more precise, efficient, and versatile tools for monitoring air pollution at various scales. Advancements in satellite technology are also set to revolutionize air quality monitoring by providing enhanced resolution and coverage. Newer generations of satellites are equipped with sophisticated instruments that offer improved spatial and temporal resolution for tracking air pollutants. For instance, the TEMPO (Tropospheric Emissions Monitoring of Pollution) mission

provides hourly measurements of key air pollutants over North America, offering unprecedented temporal detail. Geostationary satellites, which remain in a fixed position relative to the Earth, enable continuous monitoring of air quality over specific regions, allowing for the observation of daily cycles and rapid changes in pollution levels. Future satellite missions, such as NASA39;s MAIA (Multi-Angle Imager for Aerosols), will be capable of distinguishing between different types of airborne particles, providing more detailed information that can be used for improved health analysis. These advancements in satellite technology will provide increasingly detailed and frequent data for assessing air quality on regional and global scales, particularly in areas with limited ground-based monitoring infrastructure. The increasing integration of artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) is expected to significantly enhance air pollution monitoring capabilities. AI and ML algorithms can analyze the vast amounts of air quality data collected from various sources to identify complex patterns, predict future pollution trends, and forecast air quality levels with greater accuracy. These technologies can integrate data from multiple sources, such as satellite imagery, ground-based sensors, traffic patterns, and weather conditions, to create a more comprehensive and dynamic picture of air quality across vast areas. AI can also be used to pinpoint the exact sources of pollutants and to optimize traffic flow and industrial emissions to reduce air pollution in urban environments. Furthermore, AI-powered systems can manage air quality in smart buildings by controlling HVAC systems and air purifiers based on real-time air quality readings. The application of AI and machine learning in air pollution monitoring will lead to more accurate predictions, better

identification of pollution sources, and more effective strategies for mitigating air quality issues. The internet of things (IoT) is also playing a growing role in the future of air quality monitoring, facilitating the integration of smart sensors and systems in urban environments and buildings. IoT- enabled air quality sensors can collect real-time data on various pollutants and environmental parameters, and this data can be shared across networks for analysis and action. These sensors can be integrated with building management systems to automate air quality control devices, such as ventilation and air filtration units, based on real- time pollution levels. The low cost and small size of many IoT sensors make it possible to create dense networks of monitoring points throughout smart cities, providing a highly detailed view of urban air quality. This integration of IoT technology with air quality monitoring systems will lead to more responsive and efficient management of air pollution in urban areas, contributing to healthier and more sustainable cities. Wearable air quality monitors are an emerging technology that will empower individuals to take a more active role in understanding and managing their personal exposure to air pollution. These compact and portable devices can be worn by individuals to continuously monitor the air quality in their immediate surroundings. By providing real- time data on pollutants like particulate matter and VOCs, these monitors allow users to understand their personal exposure levels and to make informed decisions about their activities and locations to minimize harm. Wearable sensors can be particularly beneficial for individuals with respiratory conditions, providing them with timely alerts about high pollution levels and enabling them to take necessary precautions. The increasing accessibility and affordability of wearable air quality monitors will likely lead to their wider

adoption, contributing to greater public awareness and personal control over exposure to air pollution. Finally, the role of citizen science is expected to grow in the future of air quality monitoring. Citizen science initiatives engage the public in the process of collecting air quality data using low-cost sensors and mobile applications. These projects can significantly expand the spatial coverage of air quality monitoring, providing data in locations where traditional monitoring networks may be limited. By involving community members in the monitoring process, citizen science initiatives also raise public awareness about air pollution issues and foster a sense of ownership in finding solutions. The data collected through citizen science can provide valuable insights into localized pollution sources and trends, complementing the data obtained from official monitoring networks and contributing to a more comprehensive understanding of air quality at the community level.

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Fruit Spoilage Detection System

1st Nishigandha Kakade
Electronic and Telecom. Dept
Dr. Vithalrao Vikhe Patil college of engineering
Ahilyanagar, Maharashtra
nishigandhakakade21004@gmail.com

2nd Sakshi Hadule
Electronic and Telecom. Dept
Dr. Vithalrao Vikhe Patil college of engineering
Ahilyanagar, Maharashtra
hadulesakshi@gmail.com

3rd Gayatri Boob
Electronic and Telecom. Dept
Dr. Vithalrao Vikhe Patil college of engineering
Ahilyanagar, Maharashtra
gayatriboob2003@gmail.com

4th Prof. A.R. Landge
Electronic and Telecom. Dept
Dr. Vithalrao Vikhe Patil college of engineering
Ahilyanagar, Maharashtra
amollandge04@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Fruit spoilage detection is a crucial aspect of food safety and quality control. This overview explores the methodologies, technologies, and challenges associated with detecting fruit spoilage effectively. Traditional methods rely on visual inspection, but advancements in machine learning, image processing, and sensor-based techniques have enhanced accuracy and efficiency. Key factors influencing spoilage, such as microbial growth, environmental conditions, and chemical changes, are discussed. The integration of artificial intelligence and IoT-based solutions offers promising prospects for real-time monitoring and predictive analysis.**

***Index Terms*—Fruit spoilage, ESP8266, MQ2 Gas Sensor, DHT11 Sensor, MQTT Protocol, IOT**

I. Introduction

This detail explores the development of an IOT- based food spoilage detection system that leverages the ESP8266 microcontroller for enhanced food safety and waste reduction. Food spoilage, often caused by improper storage and environmental changes, poses serious health risks due to harmful bacteria growth. The ESP8266, a compact and cost- effective microcontroller, is used in conjunction with sensors that monitor key environmental factors such as temperature, humidity, and gas emissions from decomposing food. By detecting changes in these factors, the system can accurately assess food freshness and alert users to potential spoilage. The detection system provides a real-time solution to monitor food quality, empowering consumers to make informed decisions on food consumption. The system39;s ability to measure and analyse gas emissions particularly ethylene, which is commonly associated with food ripening and

spoilage makes it possible to evaluate food quality in household settings and commercial food storage facilities alike. The ESP8266's connectivity also enables remote monitoring and integration with smart home systems, which allows users to receive alerts, automate appliance settings, and adjust storage conditions based on spoilage data. Furthermore, this food spoilage detection system contributes to broader sustainability goals. By reducing the amount of spoiled food that is discarded, the system helps to decrease overall resource waste, including water, energy, and labour associated with food production. For businesses, the solution enhances supply chain efficiency, allowing for better inventory management, real- time quality tracking, and optimized transportation and storage. Data analytics from the ESP8266- enabled system can also reveal Food spoilage poses a significant risk to consumer health, often leading to foodborne illnesses caused by bacterial growth in improperly stored or deteriorated food. Address in this issue, this project presents an IoT-based food spoilage detection system using the ESP8266 microcontroller. This system continuously monitors environmental factors, such as temperature, humidity, and gas emissions from decomposing food, to determine freshness and promptly alert users to potential spoilage. The primary objectives of this system are to enhance food safety, reduce food waste, and promote sustainable practices. Early detection of spoilage allows consumers to avoid foodborne illnesses and reduces unnecessary food waste by providing timely alerts that encourage food usage before it expires. By minimizing waste, the system Also contributes to broader sustainability goals, reducing the resource consumption associated with food production. This ESP8266-based solution also presents economic advantages for both consumers and businesses, as it mitigates losses from spoilage. and enhances inventory management, ultimately contributing to a healthier and more sustainable food supply chain system. The IOT-Based Food Spoilage Detection System is designed to identify early signs of food spoilage using Internet of Things (IOT) technologies. The system focuses on monitoring the storage and transportation environments of food items to ensure safety and reduce wastage. This project aims to provide a real-time monitoring system that can detect food spoilage early, reducing the risk of foodborne illnesses and minimizing food waste.

II. Necessity

The development of an IOT-based food spoilage detection system addresses several pressing needs affecting consumers, businesses, and environmental sustainability. Food safety is a top concern, as spoiled food often contains harmful bacteria that can lead to foodborne illnesses. By monitoring storage conditions, this system helps prevent the consumption of unsafe food, protecting public health. Additionally, reducing food waste is essential, as millions of tons of food are discarded each year due to preventable spoilage. Timely alerts about spoilage encourage consumers to use food before it deteriorates, directly reducing waste and conserving valuable resources. For commercial food suppliers and distributors, real-time monitoring of environmental conditions, such as temperature and humidity, ensures that food products are stored and transported under optimal conditions. This contributes to greater supply chain efficiency and lowers spoilage-related losses. Environmentally, reducing food waste supports sustainable practices by cutting down the resources like water, energy, and land—used in food production. Economically, both consumers and businesses benefit by saving costs associated with food spoilage. Businesses can further enhance efficiency by optimizing inventory and reducing overstock. Moreover, the system empowers consumers with real-time information on food quality, allowing them to make informed decisions and manage their food storage better, ultimately leading to a decrease in waste. A fruit spoilage detection system is essential due to the unique characteristics and storage challenges associated with fruits. Fruits are highly perishable and often

undergo rapid ripening, which can lead to spoilage if not properly managed. Here are several reasons why a fruit-specific spoilage detection system is needed

A. High Perishability and Quick Spoilage

High Perishability and Quick Spoilage Fruits have a shorter shelf life compared to many other foods due to their high moisture content and natural sugars, which create an ideal environment for microbial growth. Ethylene gas, a natural by- product of ripening, accelerates this process, especially when fruits are stored together. Early detection of spoilage indicators, such as gas emissions or humidity changes, can help prevent spoilage and reduce waste.

III. Preventing Foodborne Illnesses

Spoiled fruits can harbour bacteria and fungi that lead to foodborne illnesses if consumed. A detection system alerts consumers and suppliers before fruits reach unsafe levels of decay, protecting public health and reducing the risk of illness.

A. Reducing Food Waste

Fruits are among the most wasted food items globally due to spoilage during transportation, storage, and retail stages. A spoilage detection system helps identify fruits nearing spoilage, allowing them to be used promptly, donated, or discounted, ultimately reducing waste and conserving resources.

B. Objectives

The objectives of a fruit spoilage detection system project are as Enhance Food Safety Detect and alert users to signs of spoilage in fruits before they become harmful for consumption, reducing the risk of foodborne illnesses associated with spoiled fruits. Reduce Food Waste Minimize fruit wastage by providing timely alerts to consumers, retailers, and suppliers, enabling them to take action before fruits become inedible. This contributes to a reduction in overall food waste. Enhance Food Safety Detect and alert users to signs of spoilage in fruits before they become harmful for consumption, reducing the risk of foodborne illnesses associated with spoiled fruits. Reduce Food Waste Minimize fruit wastage by providing timely alerts to consumers, retailers, and suppliers, enabling them to take action before fruits become inedible. This contributes to a reduction in overall food waste. Maintain Nutritional and Quality Standards Help preserve the nutritional

value, taste, and freshness of fruits by detecting early spoilage indicators. This ensures that consumers can enjoy fruits at their peak quality. Optimize Inventory and Supply Chain Management For businesses, the system can improve inventory tracking and decision-making by providing real- time spoilage data. This allows for better management of stock, minimizing losses due to spoiled products and optimizing the distribution process. Promote Environmental Sustainability Reducing food waste through better spoilage management decreases the resources (like water, energy, and land) used in fruit production. It also lowers the carbon footprint associated with the disposal of spoiled fruits. The IoT-Based Food Spoilage Detection System offers several significant advantages. Firstly, it enhances food safety by detecting and alerting users to signs of spoilage in fruits before they become harmful for consumption. This helps in reducing the risk of foodborne illnesses that can result from consuming spoiled fruits. Secondly, the system contributes to a substantial reduction in food waste by providing timely alerts to consumers, retailers, and suppliers. These alerts enable prompt action to be taken, ensuring that fruits are used or managed before they become inedible. Additionally, the system helps in maintaining the nutritional value, taste, and freshness of fruits by identifying early indicators of spoilage. This ensures that fruits are consumed at their optimal quality. For businesses, the system proves highly beneficial in optimizing inventory and supply chain management. Real-time spoilage data helps track stock more efficiently, thus minimizing losses due to spoiled goods and improving overall distribution strategies. Moreover, the system supports environmental sustainability. By reducing food waste, fewer resources such as water, energy, and land are consumed in fruit production. It also helps in lowering the carbon footprint associated with the disposal of spoiled fruits, making the entire food supply chain more environmentally responsible.

C. System Components and Architecture

1) Hardware Components: MQ2 Gas Sensor: The MQ2 gas sensor is a metal oxide semiconductor sensor that detects gases like methane, propane, and other volatile organic compounds (VOCs) which are commonly released during food decomposition. The sensor has a high sensitivity and fast response time, making it suitable for real-time monitoring applications.

2. DHT11 Sensor: The DHT11 sensor is a digital temperature and humidity sensor that measures ambient temperature and humidity with reasonable accuracy and low cost. The sensor has a wide operating range and is suitable for various environmental monitoring applications. 3. NodeMCU (ESP8266): The NodeMCU is a microcontroller board that integrates a Wi-Fi module, making it suitable for IoT applications. The board has a built-in Wi-Fi module that enables it to connect to the internet and transmit data to cloud platforms.

D. Software Tools

1. Arduino IDE: The Arduino IDE is a software development environment that is used to write, compile, and upload code to the NodeMCU board. The IDE provides a user-friendly interface for coding and debugging. 2. IoT Platforms (ThingSpeak, Blynk): IoT platforms like ThingSpeak and Blynk provide real- time data visualization dashboards that enable users to monitor sensor data remotely. These platforms also provide APIs that enable developers to integrate their applications with other services. 3. MQTT Protocol: The MQTT protocol is a lightweight messaging protocol that is widely used in IoT applications. The protocol enables devices to communicate with each other and with cloud platforms, enabling real-time data transmission and reception.

E. System Workflow

1. Sensors Gather Data: The MQ2 gas sensor and DHT11 temperature and humidity sensor gather data on gas concentration, temperature, and humidity. 2. NodeMCU Processes and Transmits Data: The Node MCU board processes the sensor data and transmits it to the cloud using the MQTT protocol. 3. Data Visualization: The sensor data is visualized on IoT platforms like ThingSpeak and Blynk, enabling users to monitor the data remotely. 4. Alerts: The system triggers alerts if the sensor readings exceed predetermined thresholds, indicating potential food spoilage.

F. Literature Survey Insights

Real-time Monitoring: IOT systems enable remote and continuous monitoring of food conditions, enabling early detection of spoilage.

2. Gas Detection: MQ series sensors, particularly MQ2, are effective in detecting spoilage-indicating gases. 3. Environmental Monitoring: The DHT11 sensor has been proven effective in maintaining and recording suitable storage environments. 4. Microcontroller Efficiency: Node MCU offers low power consumption and easy cloud integration. 5. Predictive Analysis: Future integration of machine learning can enhance predictive capabilities using sensor data trends.

G. Advantages of the System

Early Detection: Prevents foodborne illness by identifying spoilage before it becomes severe. 2. Automation: Reduces the need for manual checking by enabling automatic data capture and alerting. 3. Remote Monitoring: Users can view data from any location via internet-connected devices. 4. Cost-Effective: Utilizes affordable and widely available components. 5. Scalable: The system can be adapted for home kitchens, cold storage units, or transportation trucks. 6. Customizable Alerts: Sends notifications through SMS, email, or app when thresholds are exceeded.

H. Challenges Encountered

1. Sensor Calibration: Proper calibration is critical for accurate gas and environmental readings. 2. Data Noise: Sensor readings can fluctuate due to various environmental conditions. 3. Connectivity: Wi-Fi dependency can result in data loss during connection failures. 4. Environmental Factors: Different types of food emit different gases, affecting detection uniformity. 5. Power Efficiency: Continuous operation requires energy optimization. 6. False Alarms: Non-spoilage gases or temporary environmental changes can trigger false positives.

I. Methodology

1. System Architecture Design: Plan sensor placement and data flow.

2. Hardware Setup: Assemble MQ2, DHT11, and Node MCU on a breadboard. Test each sensor individually. 3. Software Development: Code in Arduino IDE to read sensor data. Establish Wi-Fi communication using Node MCU. 4. Data Transmission: Transmit data to IOT platforms via MQTT protocol. 5. Sensor Calibration: Calibrate MQ2 with known gas levels. Validate DHT11 readings with standard devices.

J. Benefits

• Improved Fruit Quality and Shelf Life: By maintaining optimal environmental conditions, the system can help to extend the shelf life of fruits and maintain their quality. • Remote Monitoring and Control: Users can monitor the storage area remotely and receive alerts if any issues arise, allowing for timely intervention. • Data-Driven Decision-Making: The system provides valuable data that can be used to optimize storage conditions and improve overall efficiency. • Potential Improvements: Additional Sensors: Adding sensors for light intensity, CO2 levels, or other relevant parameters could further enhance the system's capabilities. • Automated Control: Implementing automated control mechanisms, such as fans or heaters, to adjust the storage environment based on sensor readings could further improve fruit preservation. • Machine Learning Integration: Incorporating machine learning algorithms could enable the system to learn from past data and make more accurate predictions about fruit condition and storage requirements.

K. Features of the System

The fruit spoilage detection system incorporates several key features designed to monitor and manage fruit freshness effectively. One of its primary features is real-time monitoring. The system continuously tracks essential environmental parameters such as temperature, humidity, and gas emissions (like ethylene), which influence the spoilage of fruits. This constant monitoring ensures that the storage conditions are always under surveillance and deviations are promptly addressed.

Another vital feature is the inclusion of spoilage detection sensors. These sensors detect early signs of spoilage by identifying gases emitted from ripening or decaying fruits. This allows the system to assess the freshness level and identify potential deterioration even before visible signs appear. In addition, the system offers automated alerts and notifications. Whenever spoilage indicators cross predefined thresholds, users receive immediate alerts on their smartphones or connected devices. This enables them to take timely actions, such as relocating or removing the affected produce, thereby preventing further spoilage and wastage. The system also includes data analytics and reporting features. It collects data on spoilage patterns and environmental conditions, enabling users to analyze trends over time. This helps both consumers and businesses make informed decisions about fruit storage, handling, and purchasing. Another notable feature is smart home integration. The system can connect with existing smart home infrastructure to trigger automatic responses like adjusting refrigerator temperatures or activating ventilation systems to extend fruit freshness. To make the technology accessible, the system features a user-friendly interface that displays current spoilage levels, historical data, and actionable insights. This ensures ease of use for both individual consumers and commercial users. The energy-efficient design is another advantage, with components like the ESP8266 microcontroller helping to minimize power consumption while maintaining reliable performance. Remote monitoring capability is facilitated through IoT connectivity, allowing users to keep track of fruit conditions even when away from home or storage facilities. Customizable spoilage thresholds further enhance the system's flexibility, letting users tailor alerts based on the specific needs of different fruit types or storage settings. Lastly, the system supports multiple fruits and storage zones simultaneously, making it highly scalable and suitable for various applications—from households to large-scale supermarkets and supply chains.

L. APPLICATIONS

1) Agricultural Industry: Commercial Fruit Storage Facilities: Optimizing storage conditions for fruits like apples, pears, and berries. Reducing post-harvest losses and extending product shelf life. Improving overall fruit quality and consumer satisfaction.

• Small-Scale Farmers: Assisting small-scale farmers in managing their produce more efficiently. Providing insights into optimal storage conditions for different fruits. Reducing post-harvest losses and increasing farmers' income. b) Food Processing Industry: • Quality Control: Monitoring the quality of incoming fruits and ensuring they meet specific standards. Identifying and segregating spoiled or damaged fruits. Optimizing processing and packaging operations. c) Retail and Wholesale: • Inventory Management: Tracking the condition of fruits in storage and on shelves. Optimizing inventory levels to reduce waste. Improving supply chain efficiency and reducing costs. • Studying Fruit Ripening: Gaining insights into the ripening process and identifying factors that affect fruit quality. developing new storage techniques and technologies. • Testing New Varieties: Evaluating the storage potential of new fruit varieties. By effectively monitoring and controlling storage conditions, these systems can significantly impact the quality, quantity, and sustainability of fruit production and distribution.

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Vehicle Preference Strategy Execution in Smart Traffic Light Control System

1st Piyush Agrawal
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur (M.P.), India
piyush.agrawal@meu.edu.in

2nd Virendra Singh Solanki
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur (M.P.), India
virendra.singh@meu.edu.in

3rd Pinky Yadav
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
(Mandsaur University
Mandsaur (M.P.), India
pinky.yadav@meu.edu.i

4th Tanish Aanjana
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur (M.P.), India
tanishaanjana1406@outlook.com

Abstract:
We developed an automated traffic management systemto regulate threelane traffic in towns and cities. An IR sensor and a Raspberry Pi, which functions as a central p rocessing unit, were used to acquire the data.The central processing unit gathers data on traffic density fro m the infrared sensor, processes it, and uses the predeter mined algorithm to make opinions.The most nearby traffic police station will get an automatically generated email from an SMTP server throughout periods of high traffic. The technology is able to recognize emergency cars and respond immediately.In an emergency response , every second crucial.Congestion happens often at inters ections, making it challenging for emergency vehicles to react promptly.Emergencyvehicles are permitted torun red lights, however doing so can be risky and is not pract ical in a crowded crossroads. The greedy pre-emption approach instantly provides an emergency vehicle a gree n signal till it leaves the intersection.This usually guarant ees a prompt emergency response.However, if there are other emergency vehicles traveling in opposite direction s at the same time, this strategy might not function and will negatively affect vehicles heading in opposite direct ions.Recent research using deep reinforcement learning systems for traffic light management has shown encouraging results.

Keywords— Raspberry Pi, Reinforcement learning, SMTP server, Traffic Light Management

I. Introduction

The traffic management system is crucial for regulating traffic flows and alleviating congestion in urban areas. Unfortunately, many of the systems currently in use lack autonomy and flexibility, making them unable to adapt to the ever-changing traffic conditions. Most rely on fixed time slots, adhering to a consistent routine that fails to account for variations in traffic density. This rigidity can lead to bottlenecks and longer wait times for vehicles. To develop a more dynamic solution, we advocate for a data-driven approach. We implemented infrared sensors to gather real-time data for our model. These sensors track the number of vehicles on the road and relay that information to the main processor. The central processing unit analyses vehicle intensity across three or four lanes, using data from the infrared sensors to adjust its decisions accordingly. As a result, the system's operations evolve in response to the data received over time. Additionally, automated traffic management systems present a cost-effective solution for the logistics, travel, and transportation sectors by optimizing vehicle fuel consumption.

In related work [1] researchers were focused on use of force resistive sensors to identify the vehicles. It transmits the detected information to the intersection controller via ZigBee. A system was used in emergency vehicles and provides GPS coordinates to the intersection controller to avoid any waiting time for emergency vehicles at intersections.

Albagul, M. Hrairi et.al in 2006 used MATLAB for simulation and Lab VIEW integrated system for interfacing the IR sensors. Complete set of traffic lightsystem was synchronized with the sensors interfaced [2]. Shashikant et-al, address the problem by using Intelligent and Adaptive Traffic Light Controller (IA-TLC) implemented on FPGA using Verilog [3]. The system having no IOT solutions. IOTsolutions are provided by the [1, 4, 5], but in [4, 5] algorithms and system model is not defined properly even there are no priority emergency vehicles. In [6] and [7], vehicular sensor networks were utilized to provide promising solutions for traffic management by utilizing localization algorithms to determine the locations of vehicles containing wireless sensor network nodes.

To create this system, we placed four infrared sensors in each lane, totaling 16 infrared sensors to capture data from all four lanes. All of these sensors are linked to the central processing unit, which in our instance is a Raspberry Pi 3B+. The sensors will continuously update the Raspberry Pi, which will make decisions depending on the data processing algorithm. The first sensor will be placed 10 metres away from the signal, the second at 20 metres, the third at 30 metres, and the fourth at 40 metres. In addition, during periods of particularly heavy traffic, an SMTP server will send an auto-generated email to the local police station. A python script burn on Raspberry Pi controls the electronics.The testing and validation of proposed model have been performed on python software.

The X-Bee transmitter and a receiver module have been used for detecting the emergency vehicles. Fig 1 shows the arrangement of the proposed system.

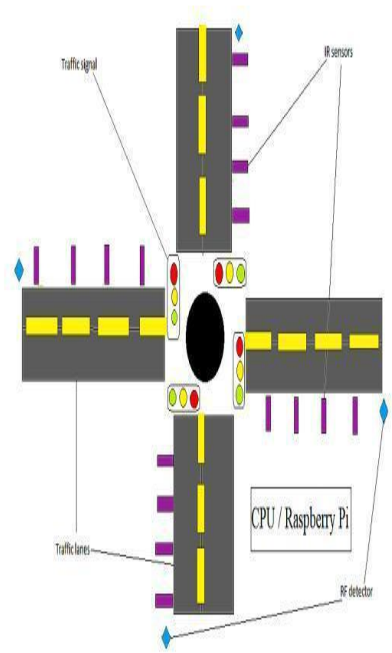

Fig 1. Proposed traffic light control unit

1. II. METHEDOLOGY

All of the lights will turn red at first, and the CPU will then take information from the IR sensors. The information from all four lanes' sensors displays the level of traffic density on each lane. The CPU then assigns priority to the lanes in descending order, starting with the densest and ending with the least dense. Following that, time slots are assigned to the sorted lanes. All of the following processes make up one system cycle. Following the completion of the preceding cycle, the cycle is repeated. If many lanes' sensor output state is the same, the CPU will allocate the same time duration to the relevant lanes. The proposed system's algorithm is listed below.

2.1 Algorithm Intelligent Traffic Control Unit

Input: IR_SENSOR (IR Sensor Output), RF_SENSOR (RF Sensor Output)

Procedure:

Step 1: defining and initializing variables
CURRENT_PATH = I

CURRENT_LIGHT = LIGHT(CURRENT_PATH)

NEXT_PATH(I) = II

NEXT_PATH(II) = III

NEXT_PATH(III) = IV

NEXT_PATH(IV) = I

Step 2: selecting traffic light status on the basis of the path priority-
While (Working Time) do

-if (priority of CURRENT_PATH is NORMAL)
turn the status of all lights to Red

turn the status of CURRENT_LIGHT to Green -if (IR_SENSOR_1 is activated)

- wait for time t1

-End if

-if (IR_SENSOR_2 is activated)

- wait for time t2

-End if

-if (IR_SENSOR_3 is activated)

- wait for time t3

-End if

-if (IR_SENSOR_4 is activated)

- wait for time t4

-End if

(t1 < t2 < t3 < t4)

turn LIGHT(CURRENT_PATH) to Yellow

wait for time t5

turn LIGHT(CURRENT_PATH) to Red

CURRENT_PATH = NEXT (CURRENT_PATH)

CURRENT_LIGHT = LIGHT (CURRENT_PATH)

-END if

-END While

III **Methodology for vehicle priority scheme**

We use an XBEE transmitter and receiver module operating in the 2.4 GHz frequency band to recognize emergency vehicles (EV). This module can be used to communicate to a Raspberry Pi through Wi-Fi. The XBEE transmission module will be mounted upon that moving emergency vehicle, and the receiver antenna will be situated about 100 metres away from last sensor. When an EV and a receiver module come into touch at the same time, the reception antenna sends a signal to the Raspberry Pi, which then turns on the red lights on the remaining three sides. For the emergency vehicle to pass by, only one green light will be on. When this vehicle crosses the intersection and enters the intersection, and will come in the contact of another receiver on the next side the Raspberry Pi will re-execute the program.

3.1Algorithm Intelligent Traffic Management System

Input: IR_SENSOR (IR Sensor Output), RF_SENSOR (RF Sensor Output)

Procedure:

Step 1: Defining and Initializing Variables

CURRENT_PATH = I

CURRENT_LIGHT = LIGHT(CURRENT_PATH)

NEXT_PATH(I) = II

NEXT_PATH(II) = III

NEXT_PATH(III) = IV

NEXT_PATH(IV) = I

Step 2: selecting traffic light status on the basis of the path priority-

While (Working_Time) do

-if (output of CURRENT_XB_SENSOR is HIGH)

set priority of CURRENT_PATH is HIGH

turn the status of all lights to Red

turn the status of CURRENT_LIGHT to Green

read all the other XB sensor until anyone except CURRENT_XB_SENSOR goes high

priority of CURRENT_PATH is NORMAL

-END if

-END While

IV Testing and Validation of the System

We compared the efficiency of our system to that of conventional fixed time bench spot systems and discovered that our approach is way more efficient. Assuming that each lane is assigned the time Tf seconds by the Fixed Time slot-based scheme. As a result, the total time it takes for this system to complete one cycle is 4Tf seconds. On the other hand, in our system, there are variable time slots that are allocated according to the CPU's terms of priority. We calculated the values and buffers for the variable time slots through experimentation. The changeable time slots are denoted by t1, t2, t3, and t4. As a result, we can calculate our overall system performance by:

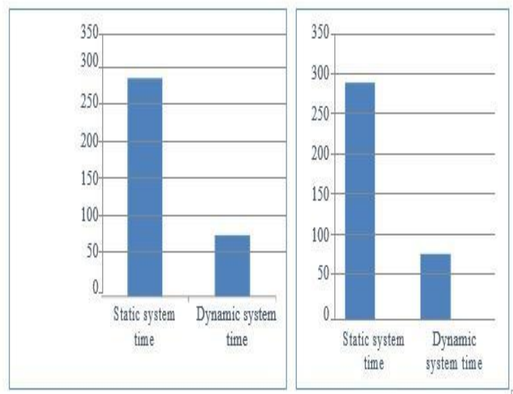

Fig 2. Static System Time v/s Dynamic System Time for Lane 1 and Lane 2.

Fig 2. Static System Time v/s Dynamic System Time for Lane 1 and Lane 2.

We have performed the experiment eight times and calculate the time duration of ON-signal of each lane in each trial. Here, we are assigning 40 sec to green signal if traffic density is at level four similarly if density is at level three then the assigned time is 30 seconds. We have performed the experiment randomly eight times .Fig. 2 is showing the comparison between the static system timings and proposed system timings in eight successive trials. For LANE-1 total on time was 290 seconds, for LANE-2 time was 240 seconds, It can be easily observed that in each LANE system is dynamically saving the halt time of vehicles.

V Conclusion

In this paper, thesmart traffic light control system has been implemented with vehicle priority schemewhich can be refer as complete IOT based solution. This technology intelligently controls traffic by obtaining data from many sensors and making decisions based on that data. The system is operational, and in the event of an ambiguity, it sends an email to the nearest police control room.

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Frontiers in Reservoir Computing: Innovations and Obstacles Ahead

Prakash Chandra Gupta
Department of Electrical & Electronics Engineering
Mandsau University
Mandsaur, India
prakashchandra.gupta@meu.edu.in

Kapil Kumar Badoliya
Department of Electrical & Electronics Engineering
Mandsau University
Mandsaur, India
kapil.badoliya@meu.edu.in

Abrar Rja
Department of Electrical & Electronics Engineering
Mandsau University
Mandsaur, India
abrar.rja@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*— Reservoir computing (RC), developed in the early 2000s, uses dynamic systems to identify patterns in complex time-series data. Its great capacity to improve predictions in chaotic systems has drawn great interest to nonlinear dynamics and complex systems. However, to fully exploit its advantages—such as speed, efficiency, and better interpretability—more research needs to be conducted. This paper outlines the progress in theory, algorithm design, and practical implementation of reservoir computing. It also touches on the challenges in scaling up for industrial application, suggesting potential solutions through anticollaboration between academia and industry experts.**

Keywords*— Reservoir Computing, Echo State Networks, Liquid State Machines, Recurrent Neural Networks, Nonlinear Dynamics, Time Series Processing, Pattern Recognition, Chaotic System.

I. INTRODUCTION

One of the biggest challenges in technology today is to process information rapidly and accurately [1]. Deep learning has worked very well, but it has a tendency to use large neural network models, so it is not easy to use in many real-world applications [2]. What is needed is smaller, lighter models that process information rapidly and can learn new information. This is motivated by biological systems like the human brain, which can do complicated tasks without using a lot of energy compared to large neural networks [3-4]. Another alternative to deep learning that has been popular is neuromorphic computing. This method is to create new computers that use much less energy than computers based on transistors. Unlike traditional von Neumann computers, neuromorphic computing is motivated by physical and biological systems [5].

A major domain of this field is reservoir computing (RC), which has come a long way in the past two decades. RC illustrates brain-like systems' behavior by a three-layer framework: Input Layer – Receives and processes the input information. Processing Layer – Utilizes nonlinear feedback network dynamics, with input signals as triggers. Output Layer – Summarizes processing layer signals to generate the output [6, 7]. This framework makes RC efficiently process complex information and mimic biological neural systems. Reservoir computing (RC) mimics biological neural systems. Input and processing layers in an RC network are static and do not change, processing incoming signals before sending them to the output layer [8]. The output layer is uncomplicated, generally employing a weighted sum to achieve the desired output. This framework is comparable to the functioning of many mechanical and electrical systems—complex internal processing with a straightforward control system to tune [9]. The efficacy of this framework was first investigated in the early 2000s by Jaeger (Echo State Networks, ESNs) and Maass (Liquid State Machines, LSMs) [10]. Their models achieved high prediction rates, even in extremely complex and

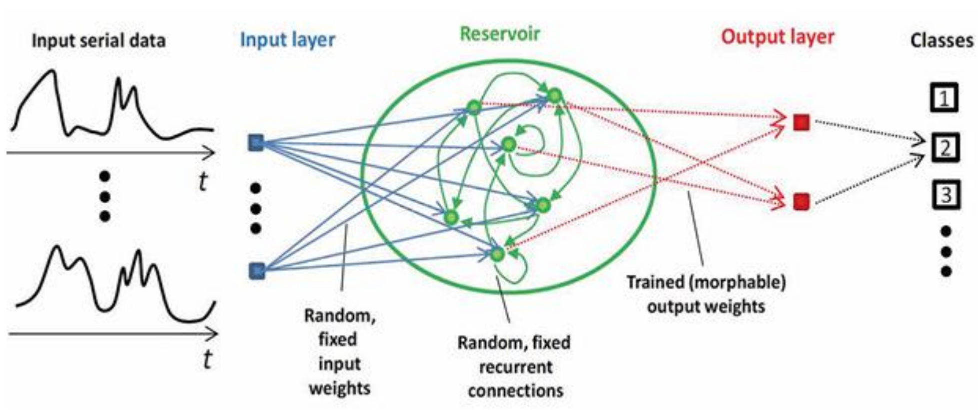

Fig.1: Reservoir computing models where only the output layer weights are trained, keeping the reservoir structure fixed

chaotic systems. Subsequently, unified these concepts under the broad concept of reservoir computing, tying it to nonlinear dynamics, complex networks, and machine learning concepts [11]. RC research in the past two decades has resulted in tremendous advancements in mathematical theory, computational techniques, and experimental models. Large-scale implementation in industry, however, remains in its nascent stages, not due to a scarcity of applications but due to a lack of a unifying RC approach. RC's small footprint and quick training make it extremely suitable in real-world applications such as optical communication signal processing, real-time speech recognition, and noise cancellation [12]. There have been a lot of research papers on Reservoir Computing (RC) that have grown immensely over the last couple of years. What follows is a discussion of the latest trends in RC research from various perspectives, such as its applications, techniques, and physical implementations.

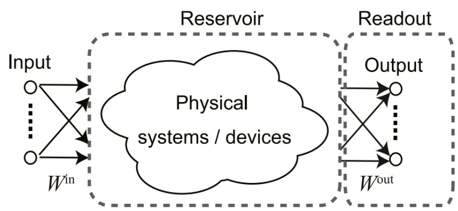

Fig.2: RC framework

RC has been successfully employed to find solutions to numerous real-world issues with complicated data. There is one primary reason why this has been possible, and that is individuals from numerous disciplines are starting to comprehend the benefits of RC. Its straightforward training process renders it extremely appealing to developers who lack sufficient machine learning expertise.

Table 1 illustrates that RC has been utilized in diverse disciplines. The majority of these applications involve machine learning operations including classification, time series forecasting, pattern development, adaptive control, and modelling of systems One of the key benefits of RC is that it can be run at low computational cost and process information in real time, and that makes it perfectly suited for such applications. Table 2 gives typical benchmark problems with these tasks [13-16]. The input and output to an RC system are in different forms depending on the task. For instance, for pattern classification, the input is usually a time series, and the output is a label of what class the pattern is in. In identifying spoken digits, the RC system is provided with an audio signal for one of ten spoken digits (zero to nine) and produces the correct digit. The objective is to identify the correct digit from a voice not recognized [17-20].

The study shows that to date there is no clear and detailed overview of Reservoir Computing (RC) networks. The majority of the papers explain some applications or features of RC, but general summary explaining its fundamental concepts, key benefits, and related problems is missing. This paper will bridge this gap by providing a clear and systematic overview of RC networks. We emphasize their potential benefits, including easy training and rapid processing, and key problems such as limited expansion, knowledge gap, and hardware problems. This paper provides clear understanding of RC systems for researchers and practitioners interested in exploring or implementing this emerging computing method.

II. Dynamical Systems Models for RC

This section of the paper explains a number of systems that may serve as reservoirs in Reservoir Computing (RC). These reservoirs are used to process information by transforming input signals into intricate, high-dimensional patterns. Three kinds of systems are explained in the paper

1) *Delayed Dynamical Systems*

Table.1: Examples of subjects in RC applications [13-20].

Category	Examples of Applications
Healthcare	EEG, fMRI, ECG, EMG, heart rate, biomarkers, BMI, eye and limb movement, mammograms, lung imaging
Visual Processing	Image recognition, video analysis
Audio Processing	Speech analysis, sound recognition, music processing, bird song identification
Mechanical Systems	Vehicles, robotics, sensors, motors, compressors, controllers, actuators
Engineering Systems	Power plants, power lines, renewable energy sources, engines, batteries, fuel cells, mining and drilling equipment, air conditioners
Communication	Radio wave processing, telephone signals, internet traffic analysis
Environmental Systems	Wind patterns, ozone levels, air quality (e.g., PM2.5), wastewater, rainfall, seismic activity
Cybersecurity	Cryptographic algorithms and data security
Finance	Stock prices, market indices, currency exchange rates

Instead of using a large network of neurons, this method uses just one nonlinear unit with a feedback loop**.** The input signal is sent into this unit in small parts over time. Because of the delay in the feedback, this unit behaves like a system with many virtual "nodes" or checkpoints along the delay line. This simple setup has been shown to work well for tasks like speech recognition and predicting time-series data. It's easy to build with electronic or optical components and is used in practical hardware systems [14-18].

2) 2. Cellular Automata (CA)

Cellular Automata are like grids of cells that update their states using simple rules [19]. Each cell's next state depends on its current state and the states of its neighbors. The rules are straightforward, but they can generate very complex and interesting behavior, especially when they are close to being ordered or disordered. In RC, the input information are translated to the initial state of the CA. As the CA develops over time, it converts the information into something more useful for tasks like memory testing and image recognition. CA systems can be run in parallel easily and are well-suited for fast, low-power hardware like FPGAs.

Table.2: Key Applications and Common Benchmark Tasks in Reservoir Computing (RC) [13-20].

Application Area	Benchmark Task Examples
Pattern Classification	- Recognition of spoken digits -Classification of waveform signals -Human action recognition -Recognition of handwritten digits
Time Series Forecasting	- Prediction of chaotic time series -NARMA (Nonlinear Autoregressive Moving Average) time series forecasting
Pattern Generation	- Generation of sine-wave patterns - Generation of limit cycle dynamics
Adaptive Filtering & Control	Equalization of communication channels
System Approximation	- Temporal XOR operations - Temporal parity tasks
Short-Term Memory	-Memory capacity evaluation

3) Coupled Oscillators

These are systems that are made up of a series of oscillators (things that move or change in a never-ending cycle) that are linked and affect one another [20]. Oscillators might be mechanical (such as weights hung on springs), chemical (such as DNA molecules that interact), or phase-based (simply following the timing of their cycles). When inputs happen, the way that these oscillators change is altered, and this alteration can be used in order to carry out calculations of output. They have been applied to tasks such as signal processing and voice recognition, and might be built with various physical technologies, from small machines to biochemical networks [21-25].

III. Opportunities and Technical Challenges in Future Development of Reservoir Computing (RC)

Reservoir Computing (RC) is becoming an essential form of processing dynamic information. RC is energy-efficient, real-time, and lightweight, making it a suitable option for a range of complicated applications. RC has promising applications in some significant areas that are likely to define future technology. As the demand for intelligent systems with fast response and adaptive computing rises, RC is destined to face significant opportunities and challenges in these areas [25-35]:

1) 1. 6G Wireless Communication

Opportunities: 6G is designed to greatly improve speed, latency, and connectivity. RC provides tremendous prediction capability that is necessary for enhanced channel state information, waveform design, and real-time signal processing at the network edge.

Challenges: For low-latency and predictable communication, RC systems must cope with complex and dynamic environments and provide predictive signal processing instead of reaction-based signal processing.

2) 2. Next-Generation Optical Networks

Opportunities: With a near-zero latency and ultra-high bandwidth vision, next-generation optical networks will be founded on photonic neural networks for all-optical signal processing. RC systems, especially when combined with silicon photonics, can perform efficient, low-power computational operations in the optical domain itself.

Challenges: System-level optimization and uncertainty dynamics in these networks must be overcome by sophisticated RC models having robust real-time learning and fault prediction capabilities.

3) 3. Internet of Things (IoT)

Opportunities**:** RC's light weight is ideal for power-limited edge devices that have limited computation power. It facilitates smart and adaptive sensing for intelligent environments in embedded systems.

Challenges: In the centralized setup, while IoT devices have to utilize low-power computation methods without degrading responsiveness or accuracy, low-training-cost and density characteristics of RC become particularly useful.

4) 4. Green Data Centers

Opportunities: Data centers will consume over 200 TWh in 2030. RC can help improve control and energy-efficient operation, particularly through dynamic system modeling and integrated photonic signal processing.

Challenges: The biggest challenge is minimizing power usage in dynamic environments that often have changing temperatures. RC provides a way of controlling this effectively through a mix of data-driven and physics-based modeling methods [32, 33].

5) 5. Intelligent Robotics

Opportunities**:** Next-generation robots will need to have real-time processing of the senses and constraint-control in variations of size, power, and environment. RC supports rapid learning and adaptive control that are very important for autonomous and mobile systems.

Challenges: Providing theoretical assurances for stability and convergence of RC in control systems such as Model Predictive Control (MPC) is still an area of open research, particularly when implemented in environments with uncertain characteristics.

6) 6. AI for Science and Digital Twins

Opportunities**:** RC can accelerate simulations of complex physical systems (e.g., turbulence, weather) by reducing computational overhead and offering real-time predictive modeling. It is especially effective in fusing data-driven learning with physical priors in systems governed by PDEs/ODEs.
Challenges**:** Developing stable, scalable RC architectures for multi-scale, coupled dynamics remains difficult. While RC outperforms some traditional methods in prediction speed and training time, maintaining accuracy and stability in long-term or large-scale simulations is an ongoing challenge [34, 35].

To bridge the gap between research and industry adoption, a more unified approach is needed—one that integrates algorithms and experimental developments rather than focusing on them separately. This work provides an overview of the current state of RC, highlights key challenges, and suggests potential solutions for its broader implementation in real-world applications.

IV. CONCLUSION

Reservoir Computing (RC) has great potential, but numerous problems still need to be solved before RC can be widely applied in real-world applications. Experiments demonstrate that RC can perform complex tasks, but the theory is useless in designing improved RC systems or estimating how good they will be. More is required, particularly for control tasks that require certainty of accuracy and reliability. Very little work is also done on the construction of RC models for particular industries. RC is straightforward and efficient, but we have yet to discover just how powerful it can actually become — e.g., whether it could be as good as, say, GPT. Implementation of RC models into real systems is problematic. Problems are having the system keep up with the speed of the task, gathering data in real time, hardware constraints, and having to recalibrate over and over again. Solutions such as improved hardware and smarter ways of processing data are suggested. In the future, bridging theory, algorithms, and hardware design through collaboration across different disciplines will be crucial. Researchers need to also prioritize real-world applications and work with companies in order to experiment with RC with real-world applications. In realizing the full potential of RC and neuromorphic computing, much effort across multiple disciplines, new ideas, and greater awareness will be required. With continued research, RC will be able to make a huge difference to future smart computing.

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Internet Of Things (IOT) : A Future Technology in Home and Industrial Automation

1st G Zeenat Ansari e
Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University)
Mandsaur,India
ansarizeenat2004@gmail.com

2nd Sarthak Jain
Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur,India
sarthakj755@gmail.com D

3rdKaushal Maliya
Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University)
Mandsaur,India
kaushalmalyia5@gmail.com

4th Prakash Chandra Gupta
Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur,India
prakashchandra.gupta@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—TThis paper shows a home automation system implemented using the ESP8266 Wi-Fi module to remotely control devices such as lights, fans, and other appliances using a mobile app or web interface. The system interconnects various devices to the internet, allowing users to control and view their homes remotely. By utilizing a cloud platform such as ThingSpeak, values such as temperature, humidity, and motion can be tracked in real-time. This system makes homes convenient, energy efficient, and secure. The project demonstrates how the ESP8266 can be combined with sensors, relays, and cloud services to implement an inexpensive and adaptable smart home system.**

***Index Terms*—Internet of Things, Home automation, ESP 8266, smart phone, cloud platform Thing speak, relay, energy efficient, remote control.**

I. Introduction

Electronic devices and sensors can link and communicate with one another via the internet thanks to a new and developing technology called the Internet of Things (IoT). Our everyday lives are made easier by this. In order to solve issues and enhance services in companies, governments, and public or private sectors globally, IoT makes use of smart devices and internet connections [1].

In many places around us, IoT is becoming a common place aspect of our life. To function, it integrates a variety of intelligent tools, devices, and systems. In order to enhance data processing, sensing, and storage, it also makes use of cutting-edge technologies like quantum and nanotechnology, which were previously unattainable. The Internet of Things (IoT) is a new and emerging technology that allows electronic devices and sensors to connect and communicate with each other over the internet [1].

The increasing use of IoT devices and technology is drastically altering our daily life. The emergence of Smart Home Systems (SHS), which comprise internet-connected devices, home automation capabilities, and effective energy management systems, is a prime illustration of this shift [2].This makes your daily lives easier.

Over the past few years, home automation has gained extensive popularity with advancements in technology and the continuous need for comfort, efficiency, and security in day-to-day life. Home automation is simply employing technology to automate and manage home equipment and systems, including lighting, heating, cooling, security systems, and appliances, from a remote location in a network. The above can be done using smartphones, tablets, or computers so that users can control their homes from anywhere globally.[3]

This paper addresses the development of a home automation system based on the ESP8266. It emphasizes remote control of home appliances such as lights, fans, and appliances. The system utilizes the ESP8266 for communication with various sensors, relays, and actuators. They are controlled by a web page or a smartphone application. With the use of cloud services and mobile applications, users are able to control and monitor their home remotely, making it more convenient, energy efficient, and secure. [3]

The aims of the proposed system is to demonstrate the practical use of the ESP8266 in smart homes, offering a simple, affordable solution for modern automation needs. Through this research, we will explore the integration of the ESP8266 with various devices, evaluate its performance, and discuss the potential for further improvements in the field of home automation.[4]

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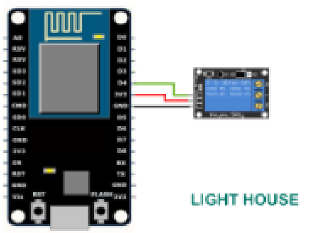

Fig. 1. ESP8266 with relay module for interfacing of LED

II. IoT ARCHITECTURE

The Internet of Things (IoT) system consists of five primary levels, and all of them are significant. These are perception, network, middleware, application, and business. At the bottom, the perception layer is made up of physical devices that perceive data from the environment, such as sensors, RFID chips, and barcodes. This data is transmitted through the network layer, which employs technologies such as Wi-Fi, Bluetooth, 3G, and 4G to transmit information. The middleware layer processes the data and makes decisions using advanced computing technologies. The application layer manages connected devices based on processed information. Finally, the business layer at the top manages the entire system, analyses application-layer data, and assists in future planning and strategies.[4] Home automation has rapidly developed with IoT techologies, enabling remote control and monitoring of home appliances and systems. A good Internet of Things system is constructed around a number of key functional components that perform input/output operations, networking, data processing, audio/video monitoring, and storage management. These components communicate to make the system function well. A number of reference architectures with technical specifications have been suggested, but none have been utilized as a global standard for IoT use worldwide. Thus, a proper design that is suitable for global IoT demands still needs to be developed. Fig.2 shows the basic working structure of an IoT system, showing how IoT systems rely on certain application needs. IoT gateways play a significant role in connecting IoT devices to servers in various applications.[4]

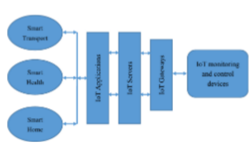

Fig. 2. working structure of IoT

The use of wireless microcontrollers like the ESP8266 and IoT platforms like Thing Speak has made smart home solutions more scalable, economical, and user-friendly. Several studies and projects have taken into account how effective ESP8266-based systems are for real-time control and automation. The ESP8266 Wi-Fi module is a low-cost microcontroller with Wi-Fi capabilities that makes it perfect for IoT applications. It is compatible with cloud platforms and has HTTP/MQTT protocol support, making data transfer convenient and remote access possible..

provide support for additional devices or services without becoming sluggish.[5] One of the most difficult challenges is dealing with many devices with varying degrees of memory, processing capacity, and bandwidth. Meanwhile, systems must ensure that users can access resources at any time. A good example of cloud-based IoT systems is because they can merely scale with additional devices and storage when necessary. Nevertheless, when IoT networks scale to the globe, it becomes increasingly difficult to keep it operating smoothly and accessing resources. Additionally, if the communication is across channels such as satellite networks, delays or disruption may occur. Thus, autonomous and trustworthy channels for data must exist to render services at any time.[6]

III. PROPOSED HOME AUTOMATION USING IOT AND THINGSPEAK MONITORING SYSTEM DESIGN

This research is based on the project of home automation where ESP8266 interfaced with relay that is connected with home lighting.[7] The goal of this research is to develop and implement a home automation system using the Internet of Things (IoT) and ThingSpeak, to control, monitor and analysis home appliances remotely. The research follows both practical, experimental design where hardware components are integrated with software to form a functional home automation system. [8]

A. Research Design

The study follows a descriptive and experimental research design. The research aims to design a system that automates home appliances based on IoT technology and allows remote control via a cloud platform (ThingSpeak). It uses a combination of hardware (sensors, ESP8266, actuators) and software (ThingSpeak, IoT protocols, etc.) to achieve the objective.[9]

B. Hardware Setup

The hardware includes the following components for home automation system: Microcontroller: An ESP8266 microcontroller is used as the central unit for processing and controlling the devices.[10]

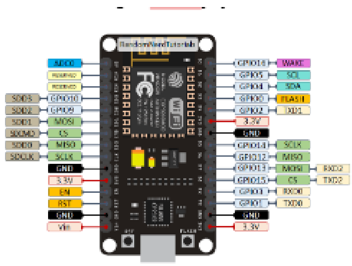

Fig. 3. Pin description of ESP8266(microcontroller)

Actuators: Relay module are used to control home appliances (e.g., lights, fans) connected to the system/esp8266.[10]

Fig. 4. Pin description of relay module

Wi-Fi Module: The ESP8266 Wi-Fi module is used to enable communication between the microcontroller (ESP8266) and the cloud platform, (ThingSpeak)[11]

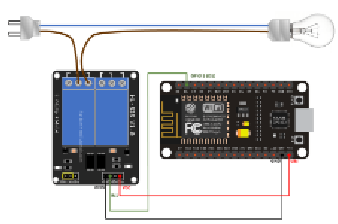

Fig. 5. connection of ESP8266 with relay module

C. Software Setup

The software system includes the following components to enable remote monitoring and control: ThingSpeak Cloud Platform: ThingSpeak is used for collecting the data, analyzing it, and displaying it on a user-friendly dashboard. ThingSpeak's channel number and API keys allows data from IoT devices to be transmitted and visualized in real-time.[12]

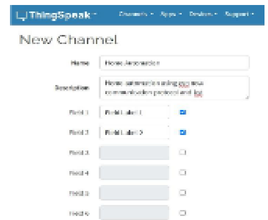

Fig. 6. Thinkspeak channel formation interface

Arduino IDE: The Arduino Integrated Development Environment (IDE) is used to write and upload the code to the ESP8266. The code includes the logic for data collection from sensors, device control via relays, and communication with the ThingSpeak cloud platform.

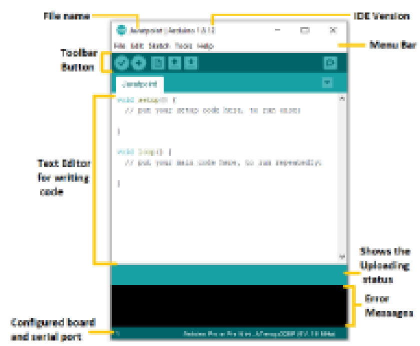

Fig. 7. Arduino IDE window

D. Data Collection and Reporting.

Data Acquisition: The system reads data from sensors in real-time, such as room temperature, light intensity, and motion detection status. The microcontroller is instructed to read sensor values at intervals. Communication Protocol: The data is transmitted from the microcontroller to the ThingSpeak cloud platform using the HTTP protocol and ThingSpeak API. The sensor readings are transmitted by the microcontroller to ThingSpeak every minute, where the data is processed and stored. Real-time Monitoring: The system, with the help of the ThingSpeak platform, allows users to monitor sensor values in real-time through a web-based interface. Users can also receive notifications according to pre-defined conditions, for example, when the temperature exceeds a certain value.[13]

Fig. 8. Thinkspeak data storage and analysis interface

E. Control Mechanism

Remote Control: It is possible to control remotely the home appliances (e.g., lights, fans) plugged into the system from ThingSpeak's web interface. If one flips the status (on/off) of an appliance, the microcontroller will receive the command and switch on/off the associated relay to power/switch off the appliance. Automated Control: The setup is programmed to control the appliances automatically based on sensor input. For example, if the temperature goes above a specified level, the system will automatically turn on the fan; on detecting motion, it can turn on the lights. This is achieved by creating rules in the microcontroller code corresponding to the sensor values.[13]

F. System Integration

The system brings together different parts to create a complete home automation system for:[14] Microcontroller and Sensors: A microcontroller is connected to an array of sensors which captures data from the surroundings. Cloud Platform (ThingSpeak): After data processing, the microcontroller with IoT capabilities transmits information to the ThingSpeak platform. data stored on the cloud can also be visualized and monitored. The platform provides users with the ability to control and monitor their appliances remotely through a web-based dashboard. Actuators and Relays: Relays are operated from commands that are sent from ThingSpeak either automatically or manually through sensor inputs.[14]

G. Ethical Considerations

Privacy Security: Any data sent to the ThingSpeak cloud platform is anonymized and securely stored. System does not retain any personal information. Additionally, appliance control is encrypted with a password to maintain privacy and security. Ethical considerations: The Testing of the system was done in a controlled environment wherein the participants' consent was sought prior to engaging with the home automation system.[14]

H. Limitations

Dependence on network: The system requires constant connection to the internet in order to function. Disconnection of the microcontroller from the cloud platform may create a downtime in appliance control. Data privacy: Although the system has been designed with basic security features, potential risks still exist due to the nature of IoT devices and cloud platforms, such as exposing the system to unauthorized access. Sensor range: Some sensors, such as those for temperature and light, may have reduced precision in correlation with certain environmental conditions like humidity or obstruction.

1) Some Common Mistakes: Incorrect API Key or Channel Setup in ThingSpeak

- Mistake: Using an incorrect write API key or channel ID in the ThingSpeak settings. This can prevent data from being sent correctly to your ThingSpeak channel.
- Solution: Double-check the API key and channel ID in your ThingSpeak account and ensure they are correctly entered into your ESP8266 code.

Failure to Configure Wi-Fi Correctly

- Mistake: Not setting up the Wi-Fi connection properly, such as using the wrong credentials (SSID, password) or not handling Wi-Fi connection errors.Some Common Mistakes
- Solution: Ensure you have the correct SSID and password. It's also a good practice to add retries and connection error handling in the code to make sure the ESP8266 connects to Wi-Fi reliably.[12]

IV. APPLICATIONS OF HOME AUTOMATION

Home automation consists of a wide range of technologies that control and automate the appliances of home from lighting and temperature to security system offering reliability, convenience, energy efficient and safety Here are some its uses:[16]

- Lighting control- adjusting lighting according to need, dimming and scheduling
- Climate control – temperature and humidity sensor
- Energy management – monitoring energy consumption and identifying different area of improvement
- Kitchen appliances – smart ovens remote monitoring and controlling
- Other applications – smart irrigation system, smart curtains and blinds, fire detection [16]

V. KEY ISSUES AND CHALLENGES IN IOT

As IoT becomes more part of our daily lives and interconnects more devices through the internet, it poses various challenges. The challenge of integrating different smart devices and the constant development of technology pose problems that IoT developers solve. As new technology is created, issues still develop, and developers must find a means of keeping systems secure, efficient, and user-friendly.[15]

A. Security and Privacy

Security and privacy are among the largest issues with IoT. As IoT systems manage sensitive information, they are most likely to be targeted by cyber-attacks. Vulnerabilities such as weak authentication, outdated software, insecure web interfaces, and weak encryption compromise devices.[15] For the sake of providing trust within IoT systems, robust security has to be used at all layers of the IoT infrastructure. There are various protocols, such as Secure Socket Layer (SSL) and Datagram Transport Layer Security (DTLS), that are utilized to encrypt information between various layers of communication. Certain applications will require special security techniques based on where and how they operate—particularly if they utilize wireless communication, which is more vulnerable. Proper authentication should also be established so that only trusted devices are able to communicate. Also, various devices could have varying privacy policies, so they should be able to authenticate and come to an agreement about privacy policies prior to sharing data.[15]

B. Interoperability and Standards

Interoperability is the capacity of various devices and systems under IoT to interchange and share information regardless of their hardware or software. This tends to be problematic since IoT devices are manufactured by various vendors using different technologies. Interoperability is categorized as four levels, namely technical, syntactic, semantic, and organizational. Various methods have been proposed to enhance interoperability, including the usage of adapters, gateways, service-oriented structures, or virtual networks. As helpful as this is, interoperability remains an area of huge potential for continued research and refinement.[17]

C. Ethical, Legal, and Regulatory Issues

IoT also presents ethical and legal issues. Ethics are moral rules, and laws are formal rules developed by governments. Both help in upholding standards and protecting people from abuse of technology. Despite as much as IoT has addressed many real issues, it has generated issues like abuse of data, privacy invasion, distrust, and safety concerns. The majority of users are still unsure of trusting IoT systems completely, a reason why it's necessary to follow laws and ethical rules closely. The rules enable user trust and ensure responsible use of technology.[17]

D. Scalability, Availability, and Reliability

An efficient IoT system must scale, i.e., provide support for additional devices or services without becoming sluggish. One of the most difficult challenges is dealing with many devices with varying degrees of memory, processing capacity, and bandwidth. Meanwhile, systems must ensure that users can access resources at any time. A good example of cloud-based IoT systems is because they can merely scale with additional devices and storage when necessary. Nevertheless, when IoT networks scale to the globe, it becomes increasingly difficult to keep it operating smoothly and accessing resources. [17]Additionally, if the communication is across channels such as satellite networks, delays or disruption may occur. Thus, autonomous and trustworthy channels for data must exist to render services at any time.

E. Quality of Service (QoS)

Quality of Service (QoS) defines the performance of an IoT system in terms of speed, security, power consumption, cost, and dependability. Developing an intelligent and effective IoT system requires adherence to QoS standards. Quality specifications of any IoT service or device need to be defined well before the service or device is deployed so that users can understand what to expect. There are various means of confirming QoS, and improving one will lower the other. ISO/IEC25010 and OASIS-WSQM are popular models for establishing quality in IoT systems. These models assist in the measurement of various aspects of performance and in ensuring that systems are to the desired level.[17]

VI. RESULT

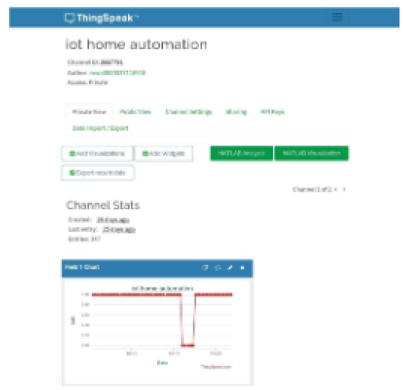

Fig. 9. Thinkspeak monitoring and analysis of data

VII. CONCLUSION

To summarize, this study proposes an inexpensive and efficient home automation solution utilizing the ESP8266 microcontroller and ThingSpeak cloud platform. This system enables remote control of various home appliances using a mobile application, thereby simplifying the management of household tasks. Automating devices such as lights, fans, and security systems not only increases household comfort but also promotes energy efficiency and security. Moreover, the use of wireless networks decreases costs associated with wiring, while the cloud platform allows for data analysis and visualization in real-time. The system offers a high degree of flexibility for expansion and improvement in the area of smart home automation.

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Smart Attendence system based on RFID

Sanjay Kumawat
Dept. of Electrical & Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
sanjaykumawat9386@gmail.com

Harish Prajapat
Dept. of Electrical & Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
hp1277255@gmail.com

Sonu Rathod
Dept. of Electrical & Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
mrsrrathod001@gmail.com

Dr. Manish Jain
Dept. of Electrical & Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur , India
manish.jain@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*— Radio Frequency Identification (RFID) is a technology that utilizes radio waves to automatically identify and monitor tags attached to people or things. In attendance management, RFID can simplify the process by making the recording of attendance automatic, thus eliminating manual effort and errors. This system involves RFID tags for people, RFID readers to detect these tags, and software to capture and monitor attendance data. Utilizing an RFID-based attendance system has advantages such as higher efficiency, accuracy, and real-time monitoring, thus it is a good solution for educational institutions and organizations looking to modernize attendance management.**

Keywords—Radio Frequency Identification (RFID), RFID Tags,RFID Readers,Educational Institutions,Automatic attendance recording.

1. INTRODUCTION

The Radio Frequency Identification (RFID) technology is picking up pace these days with its applications being observed in different sectors.

The traditional system of manual attendance in schools and colleges is usually time-consuming and cumbersome.

Radio Frequency Identification, is an automated identification technology applied for reading from or writing to RFID Tags without any physical contact [1]. The RFID system includes an RFID reader, tags, a backend storage and also an intermittent component which includes all the electrical components. This RFID based attendance system is provided with a storage which retains the unique identification number of the student/employee with the attendance system being commercially user-friendly [2]. The main aim is to design a system that will capture the attendance of authorized users,

Both hardware and software components have been synchronized so as to fulfill the above purpose. The RFID hardware has been trusted to capture the attendance of users. An individual RFID tag would be issued to each user and its record will be stored [2].

RFID-based attendance systems also have immense benefits for corporate environments. Accurate tracking of attendance is vital in the workplace for payment processing, compliance with labor laws, and assessing the performance of employees. RFID technology ensures accurate and manual attendance tracking for employees by automating the process.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The use of RFID technology in attendance systems has been widely explored, with findings indicating its ability to simplify and mechanize the process in different industries.

One of the landmark studies in this regard is by Lim, T.S., Sim, S.C., and Mansor, titled "RFID Based Attendance System," which noted the potential of RFID technology to raise accuracy, efficiency, and security in attendance monitoring over conventional processes like manual roll call and sign-in sheet. Based on such basic understandings, Zhang Yuru, Chen Delong, and Tan Liping, in their 2013 article "The Research and Application of College Student Attendance System based on RFID Technology," discussed the application of RFID technology in particular in the context of colleges [3]. Their system was designed to enhance productivity and reduce wastage of human and material resources through the automation of attendance recording, hence minimizing human errors and maximizing the use of resources. This research highlighted the efficacy of RFID technology to improve operational effectiveness and guarantee correct and dependable attendance records in academic settings [3]. A pertinent contribution comes from Nainan, S., Parekh, R., and Shah, T., with their 2009 paper "RFID Technology Based Attendance Management System." The research emphasized practical applications of RFID systems for attending management, illustrating remarkable improvement in the precision and dependability of attendance data capture. Agrawal, A., and Bansal, A., in their 2013 publication "Online Attendance Management System Using RFID with Object Counter," further developed the field by combining RFID technology with object counters. This combined method not only automated attendance monitoring but also offered further data insights, making overall attendance management system effectiveness more effective [3]. Shukla, A.K., in his paper "Microcontroller Based Attendance System Using RFID and GSM" published in 2017, proposed a system that integrates RFID technology with GSM communication. This makes it possible to track attendance in real-time and report it through mobile networks, broadening the use of RFID systems to areas where instant access to data and remote monitoring are essential. These works demonstrate the revolutionary potential of RFID technology in attendance management. Lim, Sim, and Mansor's 2009 study provided the initial framework by highlighting RFID's basic advantages, such as real-time data collection and enhanced security features that prevent proxy attendance. Subsequent research by Zhang, Chen, and Tan in 2013 showcased practical implementations in educational settings, resulting in significant operational benefits. Contributions by Parekh, Shah, and Nainan in 2009, Agrawal and Bansal in 2013, and Shukla in 2017 have built upon these findings, incorporating RFID with other technologies such as object counters and GSM to enhance the functionality and usability of attendance systems further. Overall, there is a consistent trend in literature towards the adoption of RFID-based systems for managing attendance, due to the desire for more efficient, accurate, and secure systems [4]. The contributions of such researchers have opened up avenues for more innovations in this area, indicating that RFID technology is likely to remain instrumental in the future development of attendance tracking systems. Future studies might involve incorporating RFID with new technologies like the Internet of Things (IoT) and Artificial Intelligence (AI) to produce even more intelligent and advanced attendance management systems.

3. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

A. Hardware Components:

The hardware elements of this project are

1. A radio frequency identification reader, an RFID reader is a device to read information from an RFID tag, which is employed to monitor individual objects. Radio waves are employed to convey data from the tag to a reader. Reader does not need line of sight communication with tags. It is to say that Reader reads the RFID tag even if there is any object between Card and Reader [1],[3],[8].

RFID-RC522 is used in the prototype and is shown in fig 1

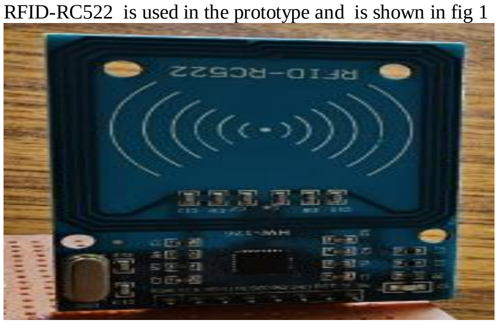


Fig.1: RIFD Reader

2. RFID tags: The two components of an RFID tag are an antenna to send and receive signals, and an RFID chip (or integrated circuit, IC) that contains the tag's ID and other data. RFID tags are attached to products in order to follow them with an RFID reader and antenna[2],[5],[11].

Fig.2:RFID tags

3. Arduino UNO: It is an 8-bit ATmega328P-based microcontroller board.

Along with ATmega328P.

It also has other features such as serial communication, crystal oscillator, voltage regulator, etc.

It contains 14 digital and 6 analog pins.

There is a USB connection and a reset switch on the board too.[1]

It also includes a 1kb EEPROM which saves the data [3].

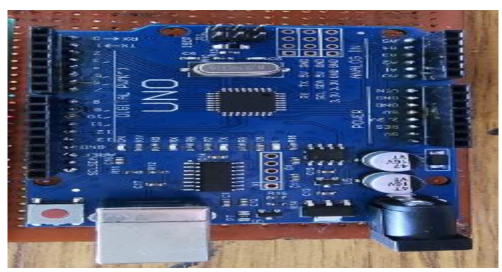


Fig.3:Arduino Uno

4. Liquid Crystal Display: It is utilized to display current time and other messages. These messages are Invalid card, valid card, student attendance. We have utilized 20 * 4 alphanumeric displays [5].

Fig.4: LCD (liquid crystal display)

B. Software Required:

Arduino IDE is a computer program that one uses to type, compile, and transfer the code to the Arduino UNO [6]. It is an interface through which one can easily develop the software required to control and modify the LCD display, and activate the RFID reader. The IDE features useful libraries and tools that make development easy and ensure all components of the system interact smoothly.

With the Arduino IDE, software developers can program, test, and refine the software for the RFID-based attendance system so it operates efficiently and reliably. The hardware and software of the system collectively produce an efficient attendance management system[7]. The Arduino UNO handles data processing and management, the RFID reader and tags facilitate rapid and accurate data acquisition, the LCD display offers real-time feedback.

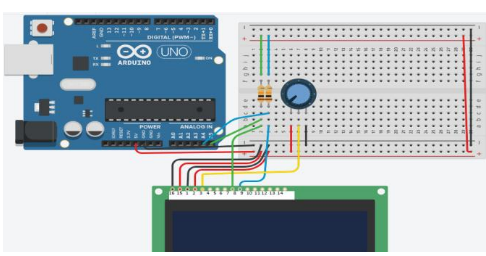
Using the Arduino IDE, all these devices work in concert, and hence the system is flexible and simple to upgrade in the future. This integration of automation, precision, and simplicity provides a guaranteed and efficient method of managing attendance [8].

C. Interfacing of RFID reader to Arduino

1. Power Supply: Power the RC522 module's 3.3V pin from the Arduino's 3.3V pin. Important: The RC522 runs on 3.3V; giving 5V will destroy the module[9].
2. Ground: Power the GND pin of the RC522 from the Arduino's.
3. SPI Connections:
- SDA (SS):Power to Arduino digital pin 10.
- SCK:Power to digital pin 13.
- MOSI:Power to digital pin 11.
- MISO:Power to digital pin 12.
- RST:Power to digital pin 9.

D. Interfacing 20x4 LCD Display with Arduino

We wired the 16 pins of the LCD as indicated in the schematic diagram. Once wired, we turned on the Arduino to check that the LCD was working properly[10]. To drive the LCD, we used the inbuilt LiquidCrystal.h library.



1. Fig.5: Interfacing of LCD with arduino

4. Principle of Operation

2. RFID tags can be distributed to the students with their roll numbers printed on them. Copper winding is there in RFID reader which is an antenna[11]. As the tag comes close to it, data gets transferred to the reader because of the mutual inductance energy. The data is then communicated to the microcontroller which checks for it permanently[12]. The data is then saved in a database. The microcontroller reads the attendance only if the tag is verified. As indicated in the circuit diagram, transmit and receive pins of the RFID reader are tied to the transmit and receive pins of the microcontroller. The arduino reads data from the reader module using this port. The system employs a 20 x 4 LCD module for display purposes[13].

5. Result

The Project "RFID based attendance System" has been completed and final Testing is completed. In the testing mode, we used the following data.

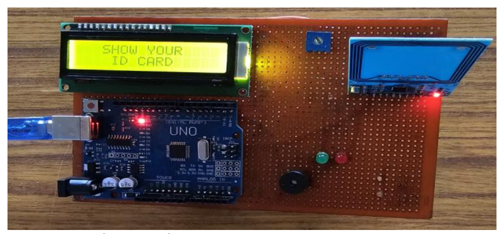


Fig.6: Interfacing of RFID , LCD and LEDs with Arduino

Name	UID
Student 01	B9 A3 B0 02
Student 02	D7 A2 25 03
Student 03	F1 9F 3F 95

Table 1: Student name with UID

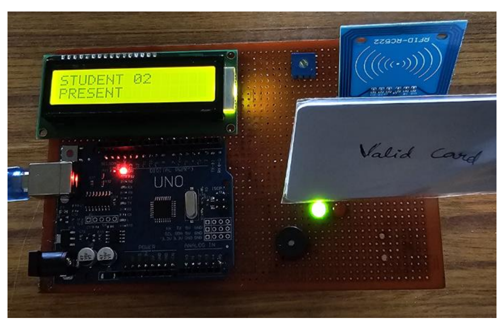


Fig.7: Result shown on LCD for Valid card

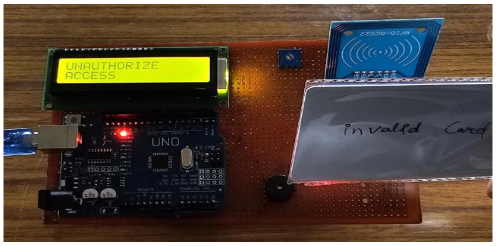


Fig.8: Result shown on LCD for invalid card

6. CONCLUSION

The successful design and implementation of an automated attendance system based on RFID technology has been successfully conveyed through the medium of this paper. The developed system offers an accurate, easy and cost-effective method to mark the attendance in schools and efficiently changes the paradigm towards a digital and touch less space. Additionally, due to the compact nature of the system as well as its portability, it makes it all the more suited to be installed and used whenever necessary.

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2.

Modeling & Simulation of Synchronous Reference Frame strategy using Fuzzy logic system for Power Quality enhancement

1st Mr. Virendra Singh Solanki
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
virendra.singh@meu.edu.in

2nd Mr. Piyush Agrawal
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
piyush.agrawal@meu.edu.in

3rd Ms. Pinky Yadav
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
pinky.yadav@meu.edu.in

4th Mr. Hariom Kumawat
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
hariomkumawat725@gmail.com

5th Mr. Aryan Makwana
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
kailashmakwana@gmail.com

Abstract—***Power quality became serious matter for the utilities and consumers. Harmonics are a standout amongst the most usually predictable Issues related with Power quality. To mitigate these Issues related with Power quality many techniques are developed. The system projected in the paper is a synchronous reference frame strategy used with fuzzy logic system for improvement of power quality. The proposed system originate to be sustaining constant voltage of the DC-link then take out a portion from load currents to calculate approximate value of reference signals. The obtained reference currents are used in the DSTATCOM to mitigate the Issues related with Power quality of the distribution network. The control strategy used in the paper has been successfully tested in harmonics minimization, maintain unity power factor, regulation of the voltage with load balance maintenance for various loads as considered in the distribution system at the point of common coupling.***

Keywords—*synchronous reference frame, power quality, PQ, hysteresis controller, fuzzy-logic, DSTATCOM.*

I. INTRODUCTION OF PREFERRED SYSTEM

Quality of the power covers the whole system related to power which is generating system and then transmission of the power and then distribution of the same. In the point of view of consumers and supply system power quality has turn into a major requirement. When considered about the distribution of power the main cause of poor power quality is sensitive load in other words inductive load, non-linear load and unbalanced loads system majorly played important role. This issue has the major reasons which are switching circuitries used in power electronics systems and also unexpected faults. As per the IEEE standards investigation of the effect and nature of distribution loads with the mitigation of all the issues of power quality [4].

The flexible Alternating Current transmission system (FACTS) is the reliable way out for the enhancement the quality of electric power. FACTS devices, which consists unified power quality compensator, distribution static compensator, interline PQ controller called UPQC, D-STATCOM, IPQC respectively etc. are very essential systems the PQ enhancement. For compensation of the reactive power also for mitigation of harmonic components from supply in the distribution of power, DSTATCOM is commonly used. In case of non linear loads VSC/ DSTATCOM equipped for enhancement of power quality. The DSTATCOM performance is totally depend upon what control algorithm is used, so for such a case it is required to design a tough control algorithm. Many types of control algorithms are discussed and implemented In the literature for improvement of power quality in distribution system include, instantaneous reactive power control theory algorithms of instantaneous symmetrical components and Reference Frame strategy using Fuzzy logic system in infirm AC grid.

This paper has a system that is design to improve power quality in distribution system in which the loads are non-linear, Reference Frame strategy using Fuzzy logic system is applied which is based on DSTATCOM.

The paper is planned in such manner: section II is the brief about Preferred System. Section III is the brief about control strategy of DSTATCOM, where the section IV is all about the simulation done according to the control strategy with all results and the final section (V) in which conclusion of the system is given.

II. PREFERED SYSTEM

The basic diagram of the preferred system is shown in Fig.1. That includes, source (three-phase) of alternating current supplying to a load which is an unbalanced and non-linear. The point where DSTATCOM is getting connected is the common coupling point of the system. For problem related to quality of electric power, mitigation synchronous reference frame control algorithm based on fuzzy logic for DSTATCOM has been designed and briefed in section III. Fig. 2 shows the basic configuration of the same system of single line diagram which is shown in figure no. 1, where The DSTATCOM with ripple filter is attached before non-linear load and after the source (3-phase) this is the common coupling point.

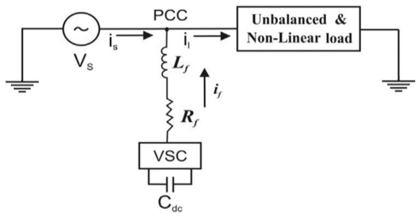

Fig. 1. Preferred system

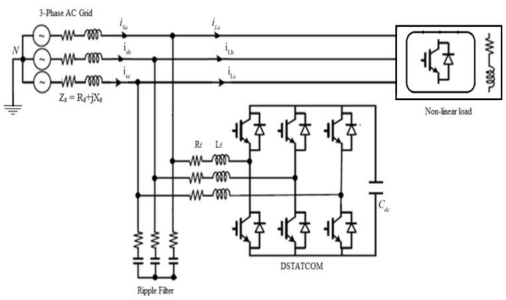

Fig. 2. General arrangement of preferred system

III. CONTROL STRATEGY

Synchronous reference frame control algorithm based on fuzzy logic is shown in figure no. 3. Proposed fuzzy logic based SRF is based upon the Clark and reveres Clark transformation that is three-phase to two- phase and two-phase to three-phase conversion. The reference signal generation steps using proposed strategy are as follows:

A. Reference grid signal calculation

There is in-phase component and quadrature component of the reference grid currents. The transformation of three phase voltages and current to α-β-0 axis is given as-

$$\begin{bmatrix} V_0 \\ V_\alpha \\ V_\beta \end{bmatrix} = C = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_a \\ V_b \\ V_c \end{bmatrix} \tag{1}$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} i_0 \\ i_\alpha \\ i_\beta \end{bmatrix} = C = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_a \\ i_b \\ i_c \end{bmatrix} \tag{2}$$

Angle (θ) of PPL provides the frames of direct axis and quadrature axis in respect of frame of α-β. Following is the equation of α-β-0 frame get transform in to d–q–0 frame:

$$\begin{bmatrix} i_o \\ i_d \\ i_q \end{bmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \cos\theta & \sin\theta \\ 0 & -\sin\theta & \cos\theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_0 \\ i_\alpha \\ i_\beta \end{bmatrix} \tag{3}$$

d-axis and q-axis current component has ac component with vacillating value and dc component with average value as,

$$i_d = i_{d_{ac}} + i_{d_{dc}} \tag{4}$$

$$i_q = i_{q_{ac}} + i_{q_{dc}} \tag{5}$$

Now, the measured value of capacitor voltage is compared with the calculated reference voltage (V^*_{dc}). At the nth sample the voltage error given by 'e' of capacitor and change in voltage error (Δe) are the input variables of the FL controller:

$$e_{(n)} = \alpha\left(V^*_{dc} - V_{dc(n)}\right) \tag{6}$$

$$\Delta e_{(n)} = \beta\left(e_{(n)} - e_{(n-1)}\right) \tag{7}$$

Where, α, β are measured as input scaling factors of FL controller. The change of alteration current (∇i_{loss}) is output of the FL controller. The actual alteration current is calculated as follows:

$$i_{loss(n)} = i_{loss(n-1)} + \gamma \nabla i_{loss(n)} \tag{8}$$

$$\nabla i_{loss(n)} = \left(e_{(n)} + \Delta e_{(n)}\right) \tag{9}$$

Where, γ is measured as output scaling factor of FL controller. Alteration current is used to supply the loss component in the converter also it will include maximum value of reference grid current. Thus, the reference direct axis current (i_d^*) is given by:

$$i^*_d = i_{d_{dc}} + i_{loss} \tag{10}$$

At the point of common coupling the peak value of ac terminal voltage V_{Lt} is determined from 3-phase grid voltages.

$$V_{Lt} = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}\left(V^2_{sa} + V^2_{sb} + V^2_{sc}\right)} \tag{11}$$

The terminal voltage error (e_1) and change in voltage error (Δe_1) at the n^{th} sample is calculated using reference terminal voltage (V^*_{Lt}) and measured ac terminal voltages (V_{Lt}), are given below:

$$e_{1(n)} = \alpha(V_{Lt}^* - V_{Lt(n)}) \tag{12}$$

$$\nabla e_{1(n)} = \beta(e_{1(n)} - e_{1(n-1)}) \tag{13}$$

Where, consider as input scaling factors of FL controller are α and β. e_1 end Δe_1 are fed to fuzzy logic controller to get alteration current (∇i_{iqr}) and actual alteration current (i_{qr}) is updated as shown in the "14" and "15" respectively.

$$\nabla i_{qr(n)} = e_{1(n)} + \Delta e_{1(n)} \tag{14}$$

$$i_{qr(n)} = i_{qr(n-1)} + \gamma \nabla i_{qr(n)} \tag{15}$$

Where, output scaling factor of the FL controller is γ. The reference grid q axis current computed as:

$$i_q^* = i_{q_{dc}} + i_{qr} \tag{16}$$

The reference direct axis grid current (i_d^*) and quadrature axis grid current (i_d^*) should be in-phase along with the PCC voltage and without zero-sequence component.

$$\begin{bmatrix} i_{sa}^* \\ i_{sb}^* \\ i_{sc}^* \end{bmatrix} = C = \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} \begin{pmatrix} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} & \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ 1 & -\frac{1}{2} & -\frac{1}{2} \\ 0 & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} i_{s0}^* \\ i_{s\alpha}^* \\ i_{s\beta}^* \end{bmatrix} \tag{17}$$

Finally, we obtained the reference grid currents in a-b-c frame by means of reverse transformation.

B. Preparation of fuzzy logic controller

The Preparation of rule of fuzzy logic controller includes choice of seven input and output membership functions which are triangular type. Figure no. 4 gives the input membership functions. Total 49 rules shown in the Table I. output voltage of the DSTATCOM is maintained stable (close to the set point) and this is done by these 49 rules.

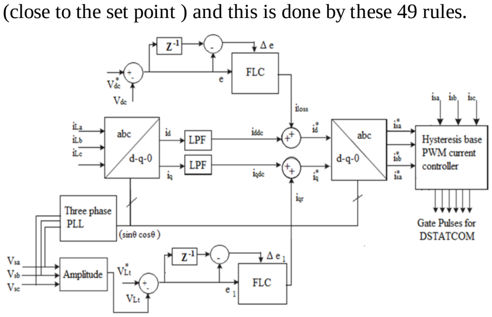

Fig. 3. Simulation diagram of preferred system

C. Generation of Controlled Gate signals

Comparison of grid currents is required between reference currents which are i^*_{sa}, i^*_{sb} and i^*_{sc} and actual currents which are i_{sa}, i_{sb} and i_{sc}. Hence In order to controlled gate pulses are generate by using hysteresis current control (HCC). That gate pulses are of IGBTs of DSTATCOM.

TABLE I. RULES FOR FL CONTROLLER

e \ Δe	NL	NM	NS	Z	PS	PM	PL
NL	L	L	L	M	S	S	Z
NM	L	L	M	S	S	Z	S
NS	L	M	S	S	Z	Z	Z
Z	M	Z	Z	Z	Z	Z	M
PS	Z	Z	Z	S	S	M	L
PM	S	Z	S	S	M	L	L
PL	Z	S	S	M	L	L	L

NL = Negative Large, NM = Negative Medium, NS = Negative Small, ZE = Zero, PS = Positive Small, PM= Positive Medium, PL = Positive Large.

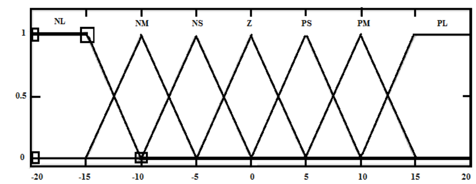

Fig. 4. FL controller functions of input membership

IV. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Proposed fuzzy logic based SRF system is investigated for both unbalanced the loads conditions which are linear and non-linear. For certain period one or two phases are take out from the system to get the load unbalancing. Table II is showing the performance analysis of preferred algorithm.

Case I: Operation of system with linear load

The analysis of system operation with the unbalance condition of linear load is depicted in Figure no. 5. The power factor at grid side is maintained unity with DSTATCOM. Load is varied from three phase to two phase for the duration of 0.2 to 0.25 second and 0.35 to 0.4 second, for the duration of 0.25 and 0.4 second load is again applied. It has been noticeable that during conditions grid currents and grid voltage both are in same phase and also the grid currents are maintained balance, is the noticeable point when load is unbalanced. The preferred algorithm is able to sustain dc bus voltage 680 V.

Case II: Operation of system with N-L load

The analysis of system operation with the unbalance condition of non-linear load is depicted in Figure no.6. Load is varied from three phase to two phase for the duration of 0.2 to 0.25 second and 0.35 to 0.4 second, for the duration of 0.25 and 0.4 second load is again applied by this load unbalancing is obtained. The grid currents are maintained balance and sinusoidal, is the noticeable point. The amplitude of voltage is maintained close to the reference value (v_{Lt}). Hence, power factor is unity and good voltage regulation is achieved. The System condition become stable by providing compensating current from DSTATCOM, required for the duration of 0.2 and sustaining the levels of total harmonic distortion at PCC side and also at the grid.

A. Performance Analysis of FLC in SRF Strategy

For transient and steady state period the dynamic response has become very fast, overshoot and undershoot is maintained very low with the reference frame strategy using fuzzy logic system in DSTATCOM. Voltage dynamic response has improved at the common coupling point of fuzzy logic controller due to faster settling time with less overshoot.

V. CONCLUSION

The proposed reference frame strategy using fuzzy logic system for DSTATCOM loaded with the variety of loads at common coupling point is capable to improve distribution network power quality. Various unbalanced load are successful tested with the preferred algorithm. Observation is done that unity power factor at grid side is maintained with reactive power compensation and load balancing. As per the standards IEEE 519-1992, limit of total harmonic distortion in grid currents is also maintained in the proposed system.

TABLE II. Analysis of proposed algorithm

THD %	**Without Compensation (I_s)**	**With Compensation (I_s)**
Linear Load	9.09	0.18
Non Linear Load	29.59	2.21

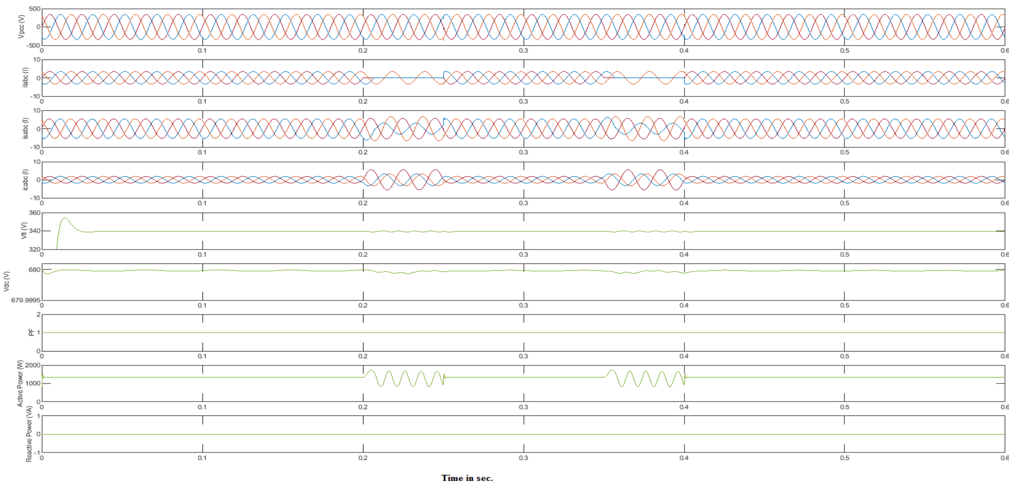

Fig. 5: Analysis of system operation with the unbalance condition of linear load

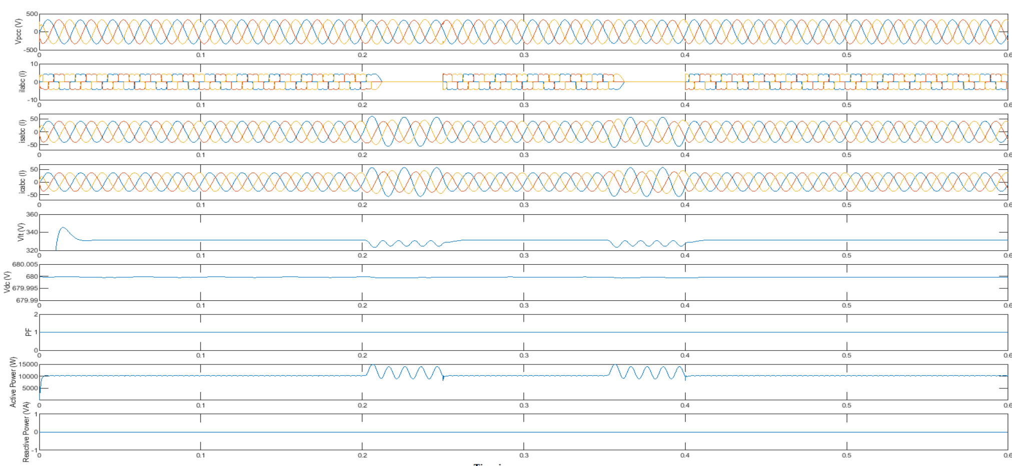

Fig. 6: Analysis of system operation with the unbalance condition of non-linear load

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Neural Network-Driven Optimization of FACTS Devices for Enhanced Power System Stability: A Hybrid Intelligence Approach

Neha Shaktawat
Dept. Electrical & Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
neha.shaktawat18@gmail.com

Prakash Chandra Gupta
Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, India
prakashchandra.gupta@meu.edu.in

Abstract— **The increasing complexity of modern power systems—driven by higher energy demands and renewable energy integration—has made system stability a growing concern. Among the solutions, Flexible AC Transmission System (FACTS) devices, particularly the Unified Power Flow Controller (UPFC), have shown strong potential for enhancing power flow control and voltage regulation. This paper presents a hybrid intelligent strategy that applies Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) to optimize the operation of UPFCs. The approach leverages the adaptive learning capabilities of ANNs along with optimization methods to dynamically respond to varying grid conditions. Simulations carried out on a standard IEEE test system confirm that the proposed method significantly boosts voltage stability, improves damping of oscillations, and strengthens overall system reliability. These results highlight the value of neural network-based optimization in developing smarter, more resilient power system**

Keywords— Flexible AC Transmission Systems, ANN Artificial Neural Networking, Static VAR Compensators (SVC) and Thyristor-Controlled Reactors (TCR), Thyristor, Firing Angel

I. INTRODUCTION

Reactive power is essential for the proper functioning of alternating current (AC) power systems, as it helps maintain voltage levels and supports the transfer of active power across transmission lines [1]. Without sufficient reactive power, voltage instability can lead to system voltage collapse, affecting both the performance and reliability of the grid. Voltage stability is a critical aspect of system stability, especially under dynamic operating conditions, and it becomes more crucial with the increased integration of renewable energy sources, which often generate power at variable levels [2]. Reactive power compensation plays a pivotal role in mitigating these issues by regulating the voltage at various points of the system, ensuring stable voltage profiles across the network. The inability to manage reactive power effectively can lead to inefficiencies, voltage instability, and increased losses in the system.

B) Limitations of Traditional Compensation Methods like Synchronous Condensers and Passive Components

Traditional methods of reactive power compensation, such as synchronous condensers, capacitor banks, and inductors, have been widely used to manage voltage stability. However, these methods present several limitations. Synchronous condensers are bulky and require special equipment for starting and protection. Additionally, they have poor transient response, making them ineffective for dynamic load variations [3]. Capacitor banks and passive components, while simpler, have limited control over the magnitude and direction of reactive power, leading to inadequate performance in rapidly changing network conditions (Kumar et al., 2018).
These limitations have spurred the development of more advanced technologies, such as FACTS devices, which offer more dynamic and flexible control of reactive power and voltage stability [4].

C) Overview of FACTS Devices and Their Applications in Power Systems

Flexible AC Transmission Systems (FACTS) devices, based on power electronics, provide dynamic control of voltage and reactive power in power systems. FACTS devices, such as Static VAR Compensators (SVC), Thyristor-Controlled Reactors (TCR), and Unified Power Flow Controllers (UPFC), are designed to improve the controllability and stability of power systems, especially under conditions where traditional methods fail to provide sufficient control [5]. These devices are capable of adjusting their output in real-time to match the network's requirements, offering superior flexibility and performance compared to conventional systems.
Among FACTS devices, TCRs have been widely used for reactive power compensation and voltage regulation. By controlling the firing angle of thyristors, TCRs can provide continuous control of reactive power, which is crucial for maintaining voltage stability under varying system conditions []. Despite their effectiveness, TCRs still face

challenges in handling non-linearity and optimizing performance under dynamic load conditions.

D) Objectives of the Research and Novelty of the Hybrid Intelligence Approach

This paper proposes a hybrid intelligence approach to optimize the operation of TCR-based FACTS devices for enhanced power system stability. The main objective is to combine system identification techniques with artificial neural networks (ANNs) to address the non-linear dynamics of TCRs. System identification is used to linearize the TCR model and derive appropriate transfer functions for various operating conditions []. Subsequently, ANNs are employed to optimize the control signals and improve the adaptability of the system under dynamic load variations [6].

The novelty of this research lies in the integration of ANN with system identification, enabling more accurate and real-time optimization of reactive power compensation. Unlike traditional methods, which rely on fixed PID controllers, the proposed approach dynamically adjusts control parameters based on real-time system conditions, thereby improving voltage stability and reducing harmonic distortion. The results demonstrate that this hybrid model outperforms conventional techniques in terms of response time, accuracy, and system stability, making it a promising solution for modern power systems facing increasing complexity [7].

II. Literature Review

A. Voltage and Reactive Power Compensation using SVC and TCR

Voltage regulation and reactive power compensation are essential for stable and efficient power system operations. Over the years, various FACTS devices, particularly Static VAR Compensators (SVC) and Thyristor-Controlled Reactors (TCR), have been widely adopted to enhance voltage stability and manage reactive power. SVCs, comprising TCRs and thyristor-switched capacitors (TSCs), have proven effective in dynamically controlling voltage at specific nodes of the power grid by absorbing or injecting reactive power as needed. TCRs, in particular, offer continuous controllability through phase-angle control of thyristors, enabling seamless compensation of reactive power under varying load conditions. Studies such as [8] those by emphasized the modeling and simulation of SVC controllers, indicating their potential in enhancing both steady-state and dynamic stability. However, the nonlinear behavior of TCR systems, especially during rapid switching and fluctuating loads, poses control challenges that require more sophisticated control techniques.

B) System Identification in Power System Modeling

System identification has emerged as a valuable technique for deriving mathematical models of dynamic systems from input-output data. It enables the formulation of accurate transfer function models that can be used for control system design without the need for exact physical parameters. In the context of power systems, this approach is particularly useful for modeling nonlinear components like TCRs, which exhibit variable dynamics depending on the firing angle and load conditions. A comprehensive framework for identifying both linear and nonlinear system models, which has since been integrated into various software platforms like MATLAB's System Identification Toolbox (SITB) [10]. Identification techniques to derive piecewise linear models of a TCR, allowing more accurate PID tuning for each linear segment. This method improves the overall performance of the controller by ensuring that each operating condition is optimally managed, but it still requires manual gain scheduling or switching logic, which limits its real-time adaptability.

a. C. Applications of Artificial Neural Networks in Power Electronics and Controller Tuning

Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) have gained traction in power electronics for their ability to model complex nonlinear systems and perform adaptive control. Their capacity for learning from data and generalizing over unseen conditions makes them ideal for systems like FACTS devices that operate in highly dynamic environments. ANNs have been applied in various areas, including fault detection, load forecasting, and most notably, in controller tuning. In paper [10], demonstrated the use of ANNs for adapting PID controller gains in an SVC system, which significantly improved the system's dynamic response and robustness under disturbances. Similarly, integrated neural networks with TCR compensators to predict and correct reactive power mismatches, showing that intelligent controllers can outperform conventional fixed-gain systems in both accuracy and speed. The adaptability of ANNs to real-time conditions allows them to replace complex manual scheduling methods used in traditional controllers, thus making them a strong candidate for hybrid intelligent systems.

D) Gap Analysis and Justification for the Proposed Hybrid Approach

Despite the demonstrated success of both system identification and ANN-based methods in power system control, each has limitations when applied independently. System identification provides precise linear models for specific operating regions but struggles to adapt to changing conditions without external intervention or switching mechanisms. On the other hand, while ANNs offer flexibility and real-time learning, their performance is often hindered by the lack of structured model representation, which can affect the predictability and reliability of control decisions. Therefore, a hybrid approach that combines the structured modeling benefits of system identification with the adaptability of neural networks presents a promising solution. This synergy allows for precise model-based control in stable conditions and adaptive tuning during disturbances or nonlinearity. The proposed framework in this study addresses this gap by integrating MATLAB-based system identification with ANN-driven control logic for TCR operation. This novel combination aims to achieve improved tracking of reactive power references, enhanced voltage stability, and reduced harmonic distortion, ultimately contributing to more resilient and intelligent power system management.

III. PROPOSED SYSTEM MODEL AND PROBLLEM FORMULATION

The thyristor Controlled Reactor (TCR) is a shunt-connected FACTS device widely employed for reactive power compensation and voltage regulation in modern power systems.

A) Overview of Thyristor Controlled Reactor (TCR)

A TCR consists of a reactor in series with a bidirectional thyristor valve, which enables phase-angle control of the current through the reactor. By adjusting the firing angle (α) of the thyristors, the effective reactance of the TCR can be varied continuously between zero (fully conducting) and the inductive reactance (non-conducting), thereby allowing for smooth regulation of reactive power absorption.
The dynamic behavior of TCR is inherently nonlinear due to the switching characteristics of thyristors and the sinusoidal nature of the AC voltage source.

B) Limitations of Conventional PID-Based TCR Control

Despite its usefulness, the performance of TCR in a power system heavily depends on the effectiveness of the controller used to regulate the firing angle. Traditionally, Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) controllers have been used to manage TCR operation. While PID controllers are easy to implement and provide satisfactory results in linear systems, they struggle under nonlinear and time-varying conditions, which are typical in TCR-based systems [11].
A major limitation of PID-based control is its reliance on fixed tuning parameters. Since the TCR exhibits nonlinear characteristics across different firing angles and load

Table.1: Hypothetical Training Dataset for Neural Network-Based TCR Control

Sample	Error (Qref - Qactual) [VA	Firing Angle	Reactive Power	PID Gains (Kp, Ki, Kd)	ANN Output (Predicted α)

conditions, a single set of PID gains cannot ensure optimal performance across the entire operating range. This results in poor voltage regulation, delayed response times, and increased harmonic distortion, especially during abrupt load changes. Even when PID tuning is improved using gain scheduling or manual heuristics, it becomes computationally complex and not easily scalable to real-time operations [12].

C) Statement of the Problem

The growing complexity of modern power systems and the limitations of conventional control techniques highlight the need for more intelligent, adaptive solutions. Specifically, for TCR control, an adaptive strategy that can handle the nonlinearity and time-varying nature of the system is essential for maintaining stable operation under fluctuating conditions.
This research addresses this gap by proposing a hybrid intelligence-based control strategy that integrates system identification with Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs). While system identification allows for piecewise linear modeling of the nonlinear TCR behavior, ANNs enable dynamic tuning and real-time adaptability of control parameters. This integration aims to enhance the responsiveness, accuracy, and robustness of reactive power compensation, thereby contributing to overall power system stability. The goal is to develop a control model that can intelligently adjust to varying load demands and operating conditions, outperforming traditional fixed-gain PID approaches both in simulation and practical applications.

IV. METHEDOLOGY

B) *Hybrid Intelligence Framework*

To address the nonlinear dynamics and limited adaptability of conventional control strategies in TCR-based compensation systems, this study proposes a hybrid intelligence framework that integrates system identification with artificial neural networks (ANNs). The foundation of the model lies in breaking down the TCR system into multiple linear operating regions through piecewise linearization, enabling precise modeling within each range using MATLAB's System Identification Toolbox (SITB). This technique allows for the extraction of transfer functions corresponding to specific firing angle intervals by analyzing input-output data from simulated TCR behavior. The output of SITB for each linear region is a transfer function that accurately represents the TCR system dynamics within that specific range. These models are then used to auto-tune PID controllers that provide closed-loop control for reactive power compensation. However, to avoid manual gain scheduling and switching, a neural network is trained to generalize control across all ranges. This approach combines the strengths of deterministic modeling with the learning capability of neural networks, thus forming a robust hybrid control mechanism [13].

B) Neural Network Architecture

The neural network in this framework is designed to replace the manual switching between multiple PID controllers, offering a more seamless and adaptive control mechanism. A feedforward backpropagation network is selected due to its suitability for function approximation and regression tasks. The input features to the neural network include:

- Error between actual and reference reactive power (e(t)),
- Firing angle (α),
- Previous control outputs or system states (optional for memory).

The **output** of the neural network can be configured in two ways: either as optimal PID controller parameters (Kp, Ki, Kd) for each linear segment or as a direct control signal to determine the firing angle.

Training data is generated by simulating the TCR model in MATLAB/Simulink across different firing angles and load conditions. The **data preprocessing** involves normalizing the inputs, splitting the dataset into training, validation, and testing sets, and structuring it into time series sequences when necessary. The backpropagation algorithm is used to minimize the mean squared error (MSE) between predicted and actual control outputs during training [14-16].

By learning from diverse operating conditions, the neural network develops a generalized mapping between system state and control response, effectively replacing complex logic for controller selection.

C) Controller Design

Each linear model obtained through system identification is initially paired with an **auto-tuned PID controller** using MATLAB's PID tuner. This ensures optimal control for its respective range by minimizing overshoot, improving settling time, and ensuring steady-state accuracy [17]. The set of PID parameters corresponding to different firing angles is used to build a lookup dataset.

The **ANN controller** is then trained on this dataset to interpolate between these tuned controllers and provide optimal gains or direct firing angle recommendations across all ranges. This structure eliminates the need for manual gain scheduling or rule-based switching logic, reducing complexity and improving response under variable conditions [18-20].

The final hybrid control loop consists of:

1. Real-time measurement of system error and conditions,
2. ANN prediction of control signal or gains,
3. Adjustment of TCR firing angle for reactive power compensation.

This design provides a flexible, adaptive, and scalable solution for enhancing power system stability.

Explanation of Each Column:

1. **Sample No.:** Just a unique identifier for each simulation/training instance.
2. **Error (Qref - Qactual):**
Represents the difference between desired reactive power (Qref) and the actual reactive power (Qactual).
A positive error indicates a deficit in reactive power, requiring a decrease in firing angle (closer to 90°) to increase reactive absorption.
3. **Firing Angle (α):**
The current firing angle in degrees for the TCR.
TCRs typically operate between 90° (fully conducting) and 180° (non-conducting).
Determines how much reactive power the system absorbs.
4. **Reactive Power (Qactual):**
The output reactive power based on the current TCR firing angle.
As α increases, Qactual decreases due to lower current through the reactor.
5. **PID Gains (Kp, Ki, Kd):**
The tuned parameters of the PID controller for this operating point.
These are obtained from MATLAB's PID auto-tuner for each identified linear range.
6. **ANN Output (Predicted α):**
The predicted optimal firing angle output from the trained artificial neural network, based on inputs such as error and system state.
Aims to minimize error and optimize performance without requiring manual PID gain switching.

Use Case:

- During real-time operation, the neural network takes system error and possibly previous firing angle as inputs and predicts the best control action (either optimal PID gains or firing angle).
- This dataset would be used to **train** the ANN using supervised learning, where the inputs are Error and optionally previous α, and outputs are either α or PID gains depending on the design.
- **Error vs Firing Angle** – Shows how the reactive power mismatch (error) changes with different firing angles.

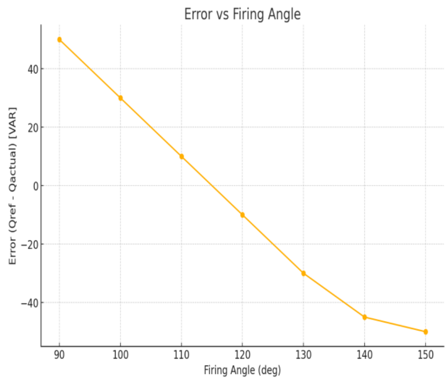

Fig.1 Error Vs Firing Angel

- **Reactive Power vs Firing Angle** – Illustrates the inverse relationship between TCR firing angle and reactive power output.

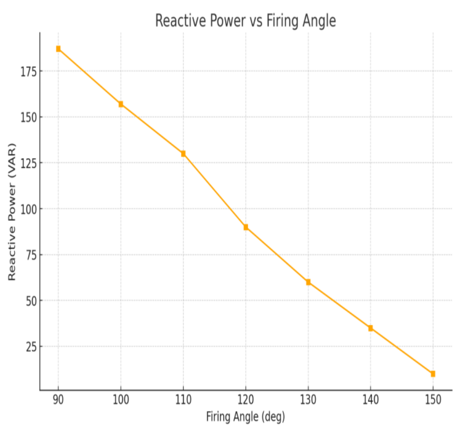

Fig.2 Reactive Power Vs Firing Angel

- **PID Gains over Samples** – Displays how the PID controller parameters (Kp, Ki, Kd) vary across different operating points.

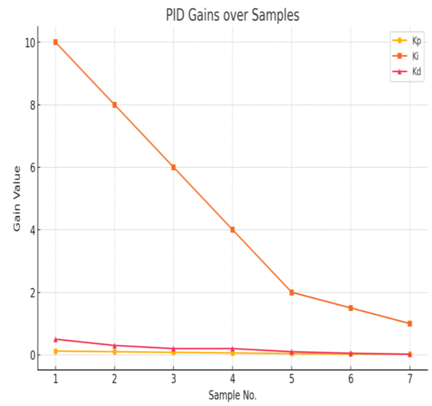

Fig.3 PID Gains over Sample

- **ANN Predicted vs Actual Firing Angle** – Compares the ANN's predicted firing angle with the actual values, showing how well the model adapts control signals.

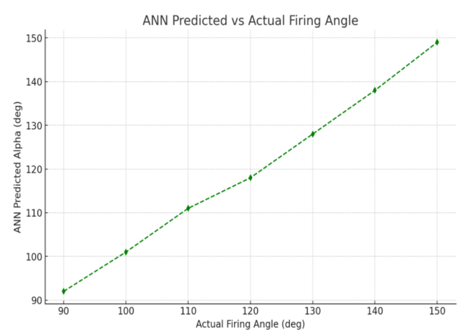

Fig.4 ANN Predicted Vs Actual Firing Angel

V. Simulation and Results

A) Experimental Setup

The simulation experiments were carried out using the MATLAB/Simulink environment, which offers robust tools for modeling dynamic systems and implementing intelligent control strategies. A TCR-based reactive power compensator was modeled, and its nonlinear behavior was segmented into linear operating regions using the System Identification Toolbox (SITB). The reactor current, reactive power output, and total harmonic distortion (THD) were observed across varying firing angles (from 90° to 180°). The simulation model was further augmented with a feedforward artificial neural network (ANN) trained on the identified control dataset to predict optimal firing angles or PID gains in real time.

B) Performance Metrics

The core performance metric evaluated in the simulation was **reactive power tracking accuracy**, where the actual reactive power output (Q-actual) was compared against the desired reference (Q-ref) across different test cases. The results demonstrated that the ANN-based hybrid controller significantly improved the ability to track Q-ref even under abrupt changes in load conditions. This was reflected by a notable reduction in the error margin and a quicker convergence to steady-state values.

Another critical metric was the Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) in the reactor current. As the TCR system is inherently nonlinear and involves phase-controlled switching of thyristors, it can generate significant harmonic currents, particularly outside optimal firing angle ranges. The simulation confirmed that the hybrid model maintained THD within acceptable limits (below 5%) when operating in the 90°–140° firing angle range, thereby ensuring compliance with IEEE harmonic standards and minimizing power quality issues[21-22].

Voltage stability was also assessed by observing the system's ability to maintain terminal voltage within permissible limits despite changes in load demand. The hybrid ANN-SITB model exhibited superior performance in stabilizing voltage fluctuations as compared to conventional PID controllers. This aligns with previous findings which suggest that real-time adaptive control mechanisms are better suited to maintaining voltage levels under dynamic grid conditions [21].

C) Comparative Analysis

A comparative analysis was conducted among three control configurations: (1) conventional fixed-gain PID controller, (2) standalone ANN controller, and (3) the proposed hybrid ANN + SITB model. The step response of the system under each controller was evaluated in terms of rise time, settling time, and steady-state error. The fixed PID controller exhibited longer settling times and higher overshoots due to its inability to adapt to varying system dynamics. The standalone ANN controller performed better but showed minor inconsistencies when extrapolated to unseen operating conditions.

In contrast, the hybrid controller consistently achieved the shortest settling times (under 1.5s) and the lowest steady-state error (less than 2%), demonstrating its capacity to learn system behavior while maintaining the rigor of model-based control [18]. These results highlight the effectiveness of integrating data-driven intelligence with deterministic modeling in enhancing the responsiveness and robustness of FACTS-based reactive power compensation systems.

VI. Discussion

The simulation results clearly underscore the effectiveness of the proposed hybrid model that integrates system identification with neural network-based adaptive control for TCR operation. One of the key observations is the significant improvement in reactive power tracking and voltage stabilization achieved through the hybrid approach, as compared to conventional PID and standalone ANN controllers. This enhancement is primarily due to the synergy between the model-based accuracy of system identification and the learning capability of neural networks. System identification facilitates the derivation of precise transfer functions for each operating range, which ensures accurate tuning of PID controllers. However, by itself, it lacks the flexibility required for dynamic adaptation to non-linear system behavior and real-time disturbances. The incorporation of ANNs bridges this gap, offering an intelligent control layer that generalizes across operating conditions and predicts optimal responses even outside the trained data range.

Another crucial benefit of the hybrid model is its adaptability to dynamic loads, which is essential in real-world power systems characterized by unpredictable demand and fluctuating generation, especially with the integration of renewable energy sources. Traditional PID controllers, with static gain parameters, often fall short when system dynamics change rapidly. In contrast, the neural network component of the hybrid model continually adapts to varying error signals and system states, thereby maintaining a consistent performance level. This adaptability is particularly evident in the controller's ability to reduce settling time and improve stability margins during transient disturbances (Mali et al., 2014).

Furthermore, the architecture of the hybrid controller makes it feasible for real-time implementation on embedded platforms such as DSPs or FPGAs. The computational load of the ANN is minimized through careful selection of input features and by limiting the network's complexity, making it suitable for fast execution cycles. The system identification component, which provides baseline models and controller tuning parameters, can be updated periodically or offloaded to an edge device, thus allowing the hybrid controller to run efficiently in real-time environments. Previous research has shown that such intelligent control schemes are not only theoretically robust but can also be practically deployed in power system hardware with minimal modifications []. This points to the strong potential of the proposed model to be integrated into existing FACTS infrastructure for enhanced grid reliability and smarter reactive power management.

VII. Conclusion

This study presented a novel hybrid intelligence approach for optimizing the performance of Thyristor-Controlled Reactor (TCR)-based FACTS devices by integrating system identification techniques with artificial neural networks (ANNs). The results obtained from the MATLAB/Simulink simulations validated that this hybrid model offers superior reactive power compensation, improved voltage stability, and reduced harmonic distortion when compared to conventional PID and standalone ANN-based controllers. The piecewise linearization of the TCR system using system identification allowed for accurate modeling across different firing angle ranges, while the ANN provided adaptive and generalized control across non-linear system behavior. The key contribution of this research lies in bridging deterministic modeling and intelligent adaptive control in the domain of power system regulation. It adds to the existing literature by demonstrating how combining model-based techniques with data-driven learning enhances not only the control performance but also the reliability of FACTS devices under dynamically changing grid conditions (Mali et al., 2014). The study also reaffirms the increasing relevance of artificial intelligence in power electronics and energy management systems, especially as smart grids become more decentralized and complex.

Looking ahead, the proposed hybrid framework opens several avenues for future work. A practical next step would be to implement the control architecture on real-time platforms such as FPGAs or DSP-based embedded systems, which would validate the real-time feasibility and robustness of the model under hardware constraints. Furthermore, the ANN component could be enhanced using reinforcement learning algorithms to allow for online learning and autonomous adaptation, further reducing human intervention and improving resilience in uncertain environments. As power systems continue evolving with renewable integration and smart infrastructure, such hybrid intelligent control strategies will be crucial in ensuring reliable, stable, and efficient grid operations.

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Dynamic Analysis of a Standalone Solar System with Multilevel Inverter Control based on a Multi-Reference Transistor Clamped H-bridge Switching Scheme

Siddheswar Kar[1]*
Department of Electrical Engineering
Medicaps University (MU)
Indore, Madhya Pradesh, INDIA
siddheshwar.kar@medicaps.ac.in,

Manish Jain[2]
Department of Electrical and Electronics Engineering
Mandsaur University (MU)
Mandsaur, Madhya Pradesh, INDIA
manish.jain@meu.edu.in

Abstract: The standalone systems have been dominating in the field of solar power plants in comparison to the grid interactive systems. The prime merits being its utter usefulness at inaccessible places and independence from the state power pool. In this work, a standalone PV system feeding the combination of a converter-inverter system is designed for high power application with low switching loss and less harmonic content. The boost converter supplies to the multilevel inverter with a multi-reference transistor clamped H-bridge based switching control. This switching scheme is known for its popularity because of less number of switching devices as compared to other competent methods. The performance of the standalone scheme has been assessed for 5-level and 7-level inverters.

Keywords: ***Standalone, PV, MPPT, Multilevel inverter, THD, Filter,***

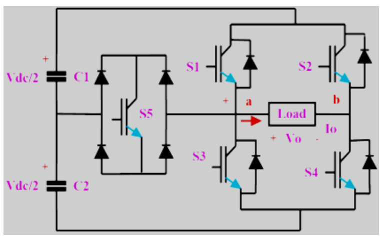
1.1. INTRODUCTION

Due to the rapid rate of rise in population and swift modernization, the electric energy requirement has gone up manifold causing a higher demand to produce electricity from non-conventional sources [1]. Among the non-conventional energy sources, the photo voltaic (PV) modules have been gaining popularity as they provide a pollution free environment [2]. They have an edge over other renewable sources due to fewer maintenance requirements, lower cost of operation and cleanliness [3]. The advent of power electronic converters has added more flexibility to the use of solar energy. The atmospheric conditions like temperature, solar radiation, etc. are highly unpredictable which affects the performance of the solar PV systems. Further, there is a need to track the load variations under the inherently changing solar conditions. Hence, to extract maximum power from the PV arrays at all times of the day under varying conditions of the atmosphere, MPPT algorithms have been developed, because maximum power operation of the PV arrays causes increase in efficiency as well as decrease in outlay of the system [5, 6]. Solar energy is converted to an electrical D.C supply with the help of a PV cell. Hence a standalone PV system requires an inverter to convert D.C into A.C. The main disadvantage of an inverter is its harmonic content at the output. It put impacts on the distribution network i.e. it degrades the quality of supply and increases the losses. Among inverters, a multi-level one is better for PV applications because it has a number of advantages such as (i) less total harmonic distortion (THD) and (ii) low switching losses; still, the levels of inverter affect the harmonic content [7-11]. The transistor clamped H-bridge multi-level inverter is chosen here due to its own advantages of less number of switching devices usage and hence less switching loss out of various familiar multilevel inverters like flying capacitor type, diode clamped, and cascaded H-bridge inverters. The transistor clamped MLI needs equal number of power devices as the inverter level or less [12-21]. Hence the usage of power devices is reduced to nearly half of the power devices required by other topologies. An analysis is made on the performance of a grid connected PV system fed from 5-level and 7-level inverter and the efficiency of the system has been assessed [22]. In this paper, a detailed analysis has been presented to decide the better one between the single-phase 5-level and 7-level TCHBMLIs for standalone PV system on the basis of lower total harmonic distortion (THD) and filter size requirements. The multi reference switching scheme has been used here for generation of the switching pulses to the power devices being used for transistor clamped multilevel inverter.

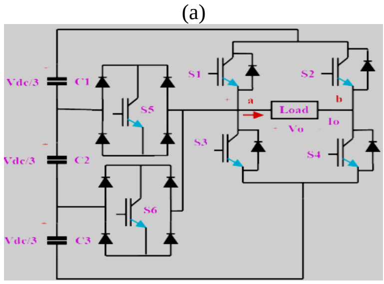
1.2. MULTI-REFERENCE BASED TRANSISTOR CLAMPED H-BRIDGE INVERTER

1.2.1. 5-level and 7-level TCHBMLI

The TCHB inverter has its own advantages as compared to other multilevel inverters. The number of power devices i.e., IGBT switches required is five for the 5-level TCHBMLI, whereas for the 7-level TCHBMLI is six. This indicates that the required number of power devices does not rise proportionately as the number of levels rise.For the 5-level TCHBMLI, the configuration is as shown in Fig.1.1 (a). This configuration consists of one transistor clamped H-bridge inverter; a supportive circuit (which includes one IGBT switch and four power diode switches) and two D.C link capacitors for voltage division. The D.C power supply is connected to the load through transistor clamped H-bridge multi-reference inverter. The supportive circuit engenders the input D.C. voltage to a lower level by 50% [7]. This configuration reduces the arrangement complexity comparison to flying-capacitor, diode clamped and hybrid MLI configurations [8, 9]. The working principle of this new configuration is presented in the references [7, 10, 11]. The levels of the output voltage (V_o) of this transistor clamped multi-reference inverter and switch transition states are tabulated in Table 1.1. The operation of the switch in a supportive circuit is directed as per load current direction. Similarly, the 7-level transistor clamped MLI consists of total six IGBT switches as depicted in Fig.1.1. (b).



(a)



(b)

Fig.1.1Configuration of (a) 5-level (b) 7-level TCHBMLI

TABLE 1.1 REFERENCE LEVELS OF VO (OUTPUT VOLTAGE) AND SWITCH TRANSITION STATES OF THE 5-LEVEL TCHBMLI

V_o	S_1	S_2	S_3	S_4	S_5
V_{dc}	on	off	off	off	on
$0.5V_{dc}$	off	off	off	on	on
0	off	off	on	on	off
$-0.5V_{dc}$	off	on	off	off	on
$-V_{dc}$	on	off	off	on	off

TABLE 1.2 THE LEVELS OF VO (OUTPUT VOLTAGE) AND SWITCH TRANSITION STATES OF THE 7-LEVEL TCHBMLI

V_o	S_1	S_2	S_3	S_4	S_5	S_6
V_{dc}	on	off	off	on	off	off
$0.667V_{dc}$	off	off	off	on	on	off
$0.334V_{dc}$	off	off	off	on	off	on
0	off	off	on	on	off	off
$-V_{dc}$	off	on	off	off	on	off
$-0.667V_{dc}$	off	on	off	off	off	on
$-0.334V_{dc}$	off	on	on	off	off	off

The 7-level TCHBMLI configuration consists of a one phase TCHB inverter, two supportive circuits (each includes one IGBT switch and four power diode switches) and three D.C link capacitors for voltage division. This new configuration has a number of advantages over other configurations i.e. lesser number of switches and capacitors compared to same level configurations [12]. Seven levels of output voltage is obtained by proper switching of the inverter. Reference levels of the output voltage (V_o) of this TCHBMLI and switch transition states are tabulated in Table 1.2.

1.2.2. Multi-reference switching scheme

The multi-reference switching scheme is a sinusoidal pulse width modulation (SPWM) technique. Multi-reference switching scheme is meritorious because of a simplistic controller of smaller size and easier implementation. Multi-reference switching scheme is used here in this 5-level TCHBMLI configuration to generate gate pulses for five numbers of IGBT switches. Out of multicarrier (phase shifted and level shifted) and multi reference sinusoidal pulse width modulation, here the multi reference is used for switching pulse generation. In this configuration, a carrier signal i.e. triangular (V_c) is being compared with two sinusoidal reference signals (V_{ref1}, V_{ref2}) for the generation of gate pulses. Here V_{ref1} and V_{ref2} are of the same phase and frequency but differ by an offset of amplitude V_c as in Fig.1.2 (a) [13]. This configuration has four modes in one cycle of operation. These modes are as given below [7].

Mode A: $[0 < \theta \leq \alpha 1 \,\&\alpha 2 < \theta \leq \pi]$, Mode B: $[\alpha 1 < \theta \leq \alpha 2]$, Mode C: $[\pi < \theta \leq \alpha 3 \,\&\alpha 4 < \theta \leq 2\pi]$, Mode D: $[\alpha 3 < \theta \leq \alpha 4]$

Modulation index (M) affects the phase angle (θ) and hence the modulation index of this multi-reference inverter is as given below [14].

$$M = A_m/2A_c \qquad (1)$$

Where A_m = maximum amplitude of V_{ref1} and V_{ref2} and A_c = Maximum amplitude of V_c. In conventional PWM techniques, several carrier signals are compared with only one reference to create gate pulses [15]-[16]. But in this 7-level inverter configuration, three reference signals i.e.V_{ref1}, V_{ref2}, V_{ref3} are being compared with only one carrier V_c to generate gate pulses for six numbers of IGBT switches. The V_{ref1}, V_{ref2}, $V_{ref3}$are of the same phase and frequency but differ by an offset of amplitude V_c as in Fig.1.2 (b). Comparison of (V_{ref1},V_{ref2},Vr_{ef3}) and (V_c) are done as per the following steps:

(i) If V_{ref1} goes beyond the maximum amplitude of V_c then, V_{ref2} is compared with V_c till maximum amplitude of V_c is reached.
(ii) When V_{ref2} goes beyond the maximum amplitude of V_c then V_{ref3} is compared with V_c till it reaches zero.
(iii) When V_{ref3} reaches zero then V_{ref2} is being compared with V_c till it goes to zero.
(iv) As soon as V_{ref2} goes to zero, V_{ref1} is compared with V_c and the procedure is continued as depicted in Fig. 1.2.

The modulation index affects the phase angle and hence the modulation index of this multi-reference inverter is as given below [17].

$M = A_m / 3A_c$ (2)

Where A_c = maximum value of V_c and A_m = maximum value of ($V_{ref1}, V_{ref2}, V_{ref3}$)

This configuration has six modes in one cycle of operation. These modes are as given below [17].

Mode A: [$0 < \theta < \beta1 \& \beta4 < \theta < \pi$], Mode B: [$\beta1 < \theta < \beta2 \& \beta3 < \theta < \beta4$], Mode C: [$\beta2 < \theta < \beta3$], Mode D: [$\pi < \theta < \beta5 \& \beta8 < \theta < 2\pi$], Mode E: [$\beta5 < \theta < \beta6 \& \beta7 < \theta < \beta8$], Mode F: [$\beta6 < \theta < \beta7$].

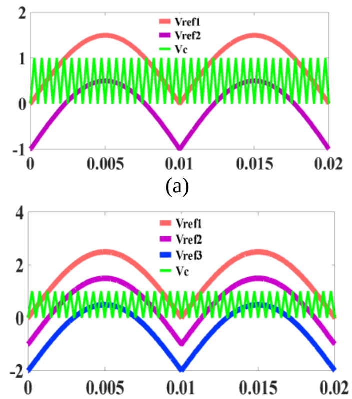


Fig.1.2 Generation of switching pulses for IGBTs of (a) 5-level and (b) 7-levelTCHBMLI

1.3. PHOTO-VOLTAIC MODULE MODELING

Several circuits are in use as equivalent of a PV cell. Out of all such equivalent circuits, the one-diode model is simple and accurate [18, 19], hence it is applied here. The equivalent model is shown in Fig.1.3.

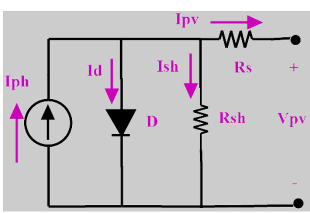


Fig.1.3 Circuit represented as equivalent of a PV cell

The different symbols of the equivalent circuit are defined as: I_{ph} = photo current generated, I_d = current flowing through the shunted diode (D), I_{sh} = current flowing through the shunt resistance (R_{sh}), I_{pv} = output current of PV cell, V_{pv} = output voltage of the PV cell, D = diode parallel to R_{sh}, R_{sh} = shunt resistance, R_s = resistance connected in series with the output.

For modeling of PV cell, following equations were taken from paper [20]

$$I_r = I_{SC,r}\left[1 - k_r^{\frac{V_r + R_s I_r}{V_{OC,r}} - 1}\right] \quad (3)$$

The mentioned parameters of equation (3) under standard test condition (STC) are defined as follows:

I_r = output current of PV module, $I_{SC,r}$ = short circuit current of PV module, V_r = PV module output voltage, $V_{OC,r}$ = PV module open circuit voltage, and k_r = coefficient of I_{SC}/I_0.

$$I_{pv} = I_r \frac{I_{SC}}{I_{SC,r}} \quad (4)$$

$$V_{pv} = V_r + (V_{OC} - V_{OC,r}) + R_s(I_r - I_{pv}) \quad (5)$$

1.3.1. MPPT Algorithm

A number of algorithms are present to run the photo voltaic (PV) array at maximum power. Among all those algorithms, Perturb & Observe (P&O) algorithm is advantageous because of its simplistic structure, low cost and ease of realization. Hence in this paper P&O algorithm is being used. The flow chart of this algorithm is depicted in Fig.1.4.

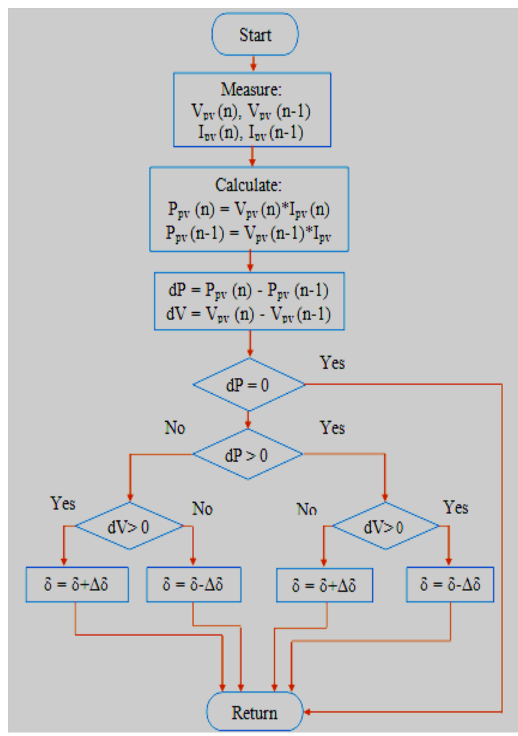


Fig.1.4 The flow chart of the P&O algorithm

1.4. STAND ALONE PV SYSTEM USING TCHBMLI

The implementation block diagram for the standalone PV system using conventional boost converter and TCHBMLI is as shown in Fig.1.5. The block diagram consists of 4x4 PV array, 5-level/7-level TCHBMLI, Boost converter, MPPT controller, filter, and load. The PV array has four strings. Each string consists of four modules i.e. 4x 4 as shown in Fig.1.6.

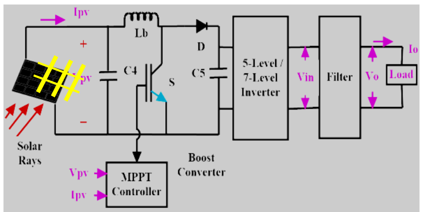


Fig.1.5 Implementation block diagram of standalone PV system using TCHBMLI

Uniform irradiance of S = 1000W/m^2 and uniform temperature of T = 30^{o}C were taken for all the modules to find out V_{pv} and I_{pv} of the 4x4 PV array. To design this PV array following parameters were taken [20]: Power = 50W, S_r = 1000W/m^2, T_r = 25^{o}C, ß = -0.0033/^{o}C, $V_{oc,\ r}$ = 22V, α = 0.0004/^{o}C, $I_{sc,\ r}$ = 3A, $I_{MPP,\ r}$ = 2.77A, $V_{MPP,\ r}$ = 17.98V, R_s = 0.085Ω

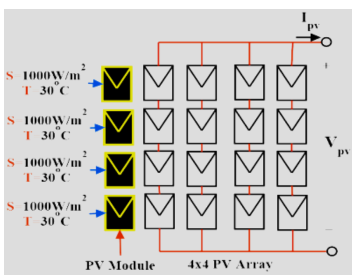


Fig. 1.6Implementation diagram of PV array

1.4.1. Control strategy used for standalone PV system using TCHBMLI

Fig.1.7 and Fig.1.8 represent the control flow diagram for standalone PV system using 5-level TCHBMLI and 7-level TCHBMLI respectively. In the control flow diagram of Fig. 1.8 the output of the MPPT controller (δ) is comparing with a triangular wave V_t and producing gate signal for IGBT switch (S) of the boost converter. For the generation of gate signals of IGBT switches (S_1-S_5) of 5-level TCHBMLI, a triangular signal (V_c) is comparing with V_{ref2} (with a vertical amplitude shifting which is same as the amplitude of V_t) and V_{ref1}.

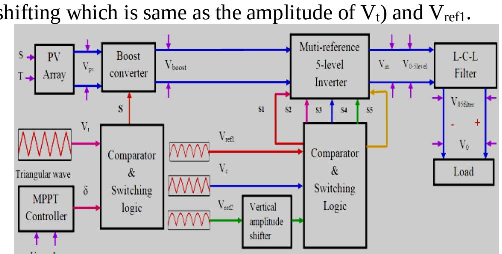


Fig.1.7Control flow diagram for standalone PV system using 5-level TCHBMLI

For standalone PV system using a 7-level TCHBMLI, the procedure of gate pulse generation is the same for IGBT switch S of the boost converter as in Fig.1.8. But for the generation of gate pulses of IGBT switches (S_1-S_6) of 7-level TCHBMLI, three reference signals were taken.

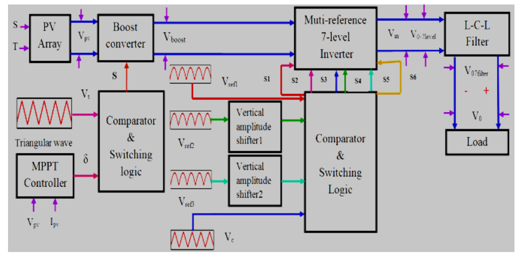


Fig.1.8 Control flow diagrams for standalone PV system using 7-level TCHBMLI

Here triangular signal (V_c) is comparing with V_{ref3} (with a vertical amplitude shifting which is the same as the amplitude of V_t), V_{ref2} (with a vertical amplitude shifting which is the same as the amplitude of(V_t) and V_{ref1}.

1.5. SIMULATIONS RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Fig. 1.9 Shows the P_{pv}-V_{pv} and I_{pv}-V_{pv} characteristics of a 4x4 PV array. For the operation of 4x4 PVarray, uniform irradiance and temperature are taken for all the 16 modules i.e. for all the modules irradiance (S) is 1000W/m^2 and temperature (T) is 30^{o}C. From fig. 2.0 (a) & (b), it is seen that the peak power of the 4x4 array is 773.2W for a voltage of 68.25V and the short circuit current of the array is 12A respectively.

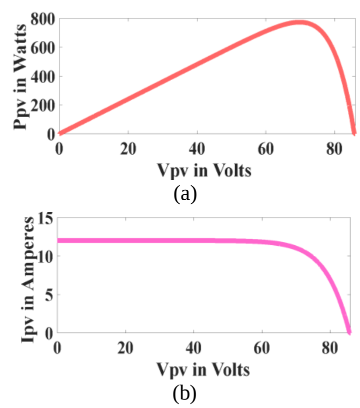
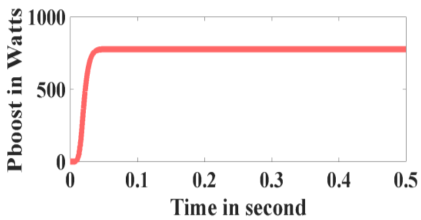
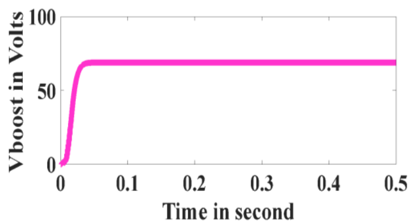


Fig.1.9 Variation of photovoltaic array (a) power (Ppv) vs. voltage (Vpv) and (b) current (Ipv) vs. voltage (Vpv)

To obtain the peak power from the PV array, the P&O algorithm was used for the MPPT controller attached to the boost converter. The parameters of boost converter are as follows: C_4 = 90µF, L_b= 4.2mH, C_5=1100 µF. Fig. 2.0 shows how power output (Pboost) and voltage output (Vboost) of boost converter controlling by MPPT controller changing w.r.t time.



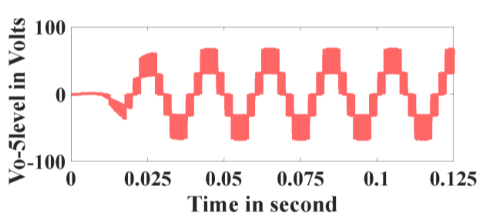
(a)



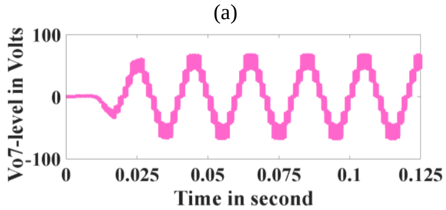
(((b)

Fig.2.0 Variation of boost converter (a) output power (Pboost) (b) voltage (Vboost) vs. time

From the Fig. 2.0 (a) & (b), it was observed that boost converter output power approached the maximum value of PV array i.e. 773.2W at a voltage of 68.25V after an interval of 0.05 sec. Hence this MPPT controller is faster. To achieve this target a step size of 0.002 and Δδ of 0.009 were taken.



(a)

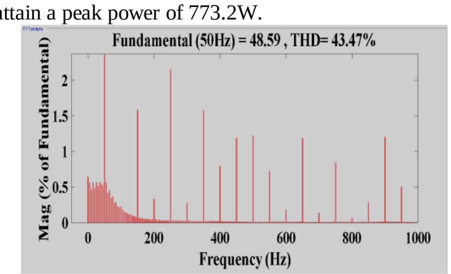


(b)

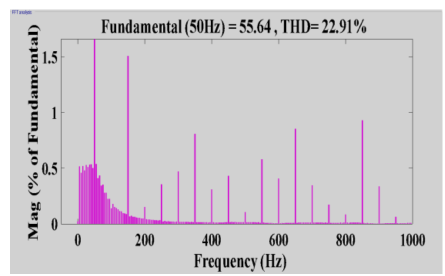
Fig.2.1 Variation of output voltage (a) 5-level inverter (Vo5-level) (b) 7-lever inverter (Vo7-level) vs. time

To generate PWM signals for 5-level and 7- level TCHBMLI, a frequency of 2 KHz was taken for the carrier signal. Fig. 2.1depicts the output voltage of 5-level and 7-level TCHBMLI respectively.

It is observed from the figure that $V_{o5\text{-level}}$ and $V_{o7\text{-level}}$ vary from maximum + ve voltage of 68.25V to maximum – ve voltage of 68.25V which was the Vboost of boost converter to attain a peak power of 773.2W.



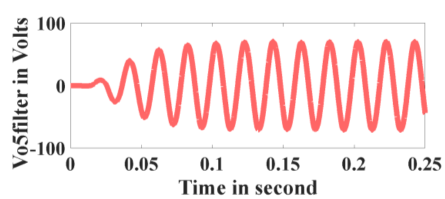
(a)



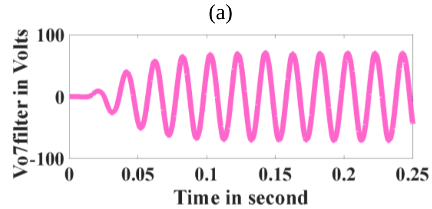
(b)

Fig. 2.2 Harmonic analysis of output voltage Vo (a) 5-level and (b) 7-level

To obtain the required inverter output, following capacitances values are used, for 7-level: C1 = C2 = C3 = 3000 µF and for 5-level C1 = C2 = 3000 µF.



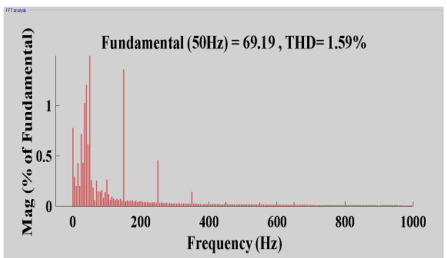
(a)



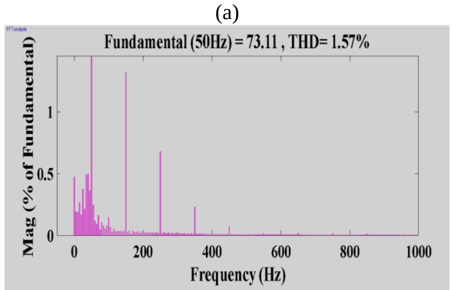
(b)

Fig. 2.3 Variation of (a) Vo5filter and (b) Vo7filter vs. time

Fig.2.2 shows the harmonic analysis of 5-level and 7-level TCHBMLI output voltage respectively. The THD comparison results are enumerated in Table 1.3. The Multilevel output voltages contain harmonics, which is not suitable for loads of standalone systems. Hence to smooth the output voltages filter is required. L-C-L filter is used in this presented system. The parameters used for filter design are as:5-level inverter: L_1 = 7.5 mH, L_2 = 7.5mH, C = 2200 µF and 7-level inverter: L_1 = 6.9 mH, L_2 = 6.9 mH, C = 2200 µF. Fig. 2.3depicts the output voltage of the filter for both the inverters. Nearly single phase sinusoidal voltages of frequency 50Hz were obtained using the above parameters.



(a)



(b)

Fig.2.4 Harmonic analysis of output filter voltage (a) Vo5filter and (b) Vo7filter

Fig.2.4 shows the harmonic analysis of load voltages after using filters. Comparison results are as shown in Table 1.3.

TABLE 1.3 COMPARISON RESULTS WITH THE L-C-L FILTER

Multi-level Inverter	***THD Analysis***	***No. of cycles***	***THD (%)***
5-level Inverter	Inverter output voltage ($V_{o5\text{-}level}$)	10	43.47
7-level Inverter	Inverter output voltage ($V_{o7\text{-}level}$)	10	22.91
Filter	***THD Analysis***	***No. of cycles***	***THD (%)***
5-level (L1=7.5 mH, L2=7.5 mH, C= 2200 µF)	Filter output voltage ($V_{o5filter}$)	10	1.59
7-level (L1=6.9mH, L2=6.9mH,C= 2200 µF)	Filter output voltage ($V_{o7filter}$)	10	1.57

1.6. CONCLUSION

This paper presented a 4x4 PV array linked to a standalone load through a transistor clamped H-bridge multi-reference 5-level/7-level inverter and a boost converter. P&O algorithm has been used to track the maximum power point. The performance of TCHBMLI systems was investigated using the MATLAB/Simulink framework. From the obtained results, it is concluded that transistor clamped 7-level inverter provides less THD in its output voltage i.e. 22.91% in comparison to transistor clamped 5-level inverter that provides THD of 43.47%. Again the size of the filter required to eliminate harmonics is small in transistor clamped 7-level inverter. Hence it is concluded that a 7-level TCHBMLI is a good option for the standalone PV system. Again after filtering by L-C-L filter, the output wave forms THD is well below 5% as per IEEE 519 standard for both 5-level and 7-level transistor clamped inverter, but 7-level output after is really well as 1.57 % THD.

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Track 03: Mechanical Engineering

Effect of the Wind Velocity and Optimal Tip Speed Ratio on Efficiency of Wind Turbines

1st Gaurav Joshi
Department of Mechanical Engineering)
Mandsaur University
Mandsur , India.
email:gaural.joshi@meu.edu.in

***Abstract*—World is facing energy crisis. Although we have made good use of technological advancement in almost all the areas of science, technology and medicine but at the same time we have exploited natural resources to near end. Now we are short of precious natural resources to pass it on to our coming generations. So, it is time again to think and work for fulfilling our energy requirements without bringing any loss to nature. The electrical energy crisis can be overcome by generating electricity from wind energy with the help of wind mills. The study focuses how computer aided mathematical model can help increase the efficiency of wind mills by bringing change in their design of construction.**

***Index Terms*—Wind energy, Wind mills, Electricity, Renewable sources, Wind turbine**

I. Introduction

In the present, we are observing ecological imbalance in nature. There are many problems arising in the form of natural calamities and disasters. Day by day we are facing the problem of shortage of natural resources. Due to the limitation of available natural energy resources, the renewable energy becomes widespread and more popular and found to be competing with gas and oil energy extracting technologies. It has been observed that concerning the renewable energy resources, the most developing technology is the wind energy. Modern wind turbine stations and windmill farms compile the complex system for electricity generation. Research and investigation of such systems is not possible without modern mathematical theory operating on powerful computers and calculation clusters. Usually this problem can be solved by numeric methods in mathematics with the aid of highly developed software operating on high-speed computers. During the development phase involving the construction work in wind energyindustry, aerodynamic and mechanical properties are applied and there begins a demand on improvement of operation control in a wide range of wind speed. Many well-known researchers published their results about windmill operation and windmill speed control in order to improve the efficiency of electric energy generation.

II. NEED FOR TECHNICAL AND ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF A WIND POWER GENERATION SYSTEM FOR RURAL ELECTRIFICATION

In India electrical energy is a burning issue because both the villages and cities are facing shortage of electricity and more often they have to undergo power-cuts. In such situations, running an industry or ploughing agricultural fields becomes very difficult. Only less than half of the total population has access to electrical power supply. This situation, which is a real drawback in the development of the continent, could be improved knowing that wind currents have the real unexploited potential of renewable energies. All over the world and thus particularly in Asia and Africa; in the close environment of everyone residing,

the energy which is freely available and has the potential source of electricity production are water, sun and wind. As for sun and wind energies, even if the development of their exploitation is slow, many projects are taking place in this regard. Both these renewable energy sources play an interesting role in the development of electricity in the Indian sub-continent and constitute a viable solution, especially for the electrification of sites isolated with electrical power supply grid in rural areas. Particularly all these developments taking around renewable energies are sites for providing electricity to the people living in grid un- connected houses of villages and devoid of water supply for agricultural irrigation in a sustainable approach. The present contribution presents the approach and process involved in the development and sizing of a hybrid system dedicated to energy production as well as taking into account the specifies of the geographic location.

III. Objective

A. PROBLEM DESCRIPTION

The effect of pitch angle on the performance parameters of HAWT, NREL Phase VI turbine is studied at incoming wind speeds Vin= 7, 15.1, 25.1 m/s. The wind direction is normal to the plane of rotation of the turbine blades. The corresponding Re range based on the wind velocity and the diameter would be 0.52×107 to 1.86×107. The pitch angles considered for each Vin are summarized. The performance parameters considered are the power developed and the thrust experienced. NREL

Phase VI shown in Fig. 1 is a twin bladed, stall regulated turbine with power rating of 19.8 kW. Its rotor radius is 5.532 m and hub height is 12.192 m. The blade profile is NREL S809 which is twisted along the plan form as shown in Fig.1.

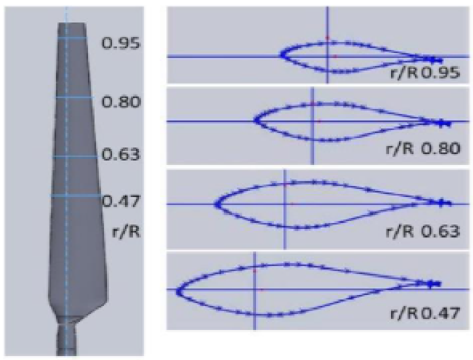

Fig. 1. fig.1: Aerofoil and section twist at different cross section.

B. Aerodynamic Design of Horizontal Axis Wind Turbine Blades

Designing horizontal axis wind turbine (HAWT) blades to achieve satisfactory level of performance starts with the knowledge of aerodynamic forces acting on the blades. In this paper, a design method based on blade element momentum (BEM) theory is explained for HAWT blades. The method is used to optimize the chord and twist distributions of the blades. Applying this method a 1000W HAWT rotor is designed. A user interface computer program is written on VISUALBASIC to estimate the aerodynamic performance of the existing HAWT blades and used for the performance analysis of the designed 1000W HAWT rotor.

- Wind Turbine Model

The power contained in the wind is given by P = 1/2 3 and the electric power generated by the wind turbine is given by Pm = C p(,)1/2 3 The power coefficient is a function of pitch angle and tip speed ratio.

- Angle of Attack

With the rising cost of fossil fuels, both monetarily and ecologically, the uses of wind turbines, such as the one shown in Fig 2 are becoming more common. One of the major challenges with the construction of wind turbines is maximizing the return on investment; thereby efficiently converting wind to electricity. To achieve more efficient energy production, research has been carried out to identify the most efficient blade profile. The issue with any profile is that its performance is a function of wind speed. A profile that maximizes performance at low wind speeds may perform poorly with increased wind speed. To minimize the losses in performance, the angle of attack of the blade, as depicted in Fig.2 is controlled by rotating the blade about its axis. The amount of angle the blade is rotated about its axis is referred to as the pitch angle.

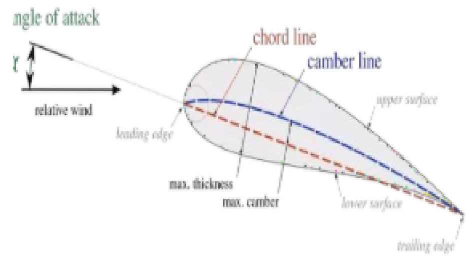

Fig. 2. fig.2: Angle of attack of the blade

This will also help calculate the size of a wind turbine at maximum efficiency with certain given parameters and determine the optimum outlet velocity as a function of wind speed so as to maximize the mechanical energy produced. These equations are derived by using concepts from physics and calculus, which result in determining the optimal efficiency of an ideal turbine to be 59.26 %, this is referred to as the Betz Limit. It is seen that the pitch angle has effect on the turbine performance and for a given wind speed and rotor speed there is an optimum pitch angle which gives maximum power. The objective of the current work is to study the effect of a pitch angle on performance of a HAWT at different wind velocities. This study can provide information to the designer to design more aerodynamically optimal blades and to the operator, the optimal pitch angle of the operation for maximum power or torque The response for power coefficient and power generated at different velocities is given in Table 1 Experimental Details Table1: Pitch angle v/s power generated (watt) at 9 m/s

Pitch angle	Power generated in watts
0	142541.52
3	142948.49
6	143151.97
9	143355.46
12	143355.46
15	143151.97
18	142745.00
21	142032.80
24	141117.12
27	139794.46
30	138970.07
33	136640.44
36	134707.33
39	132672.47
42	130637.62
45	128501.02
48	126466.17

Fig. 3. table1

IV. Conclusion

The above study shows that it is possible to derive successfully the maximum efficiency of a wind turbine, as well as, the optimal relationship between the outlet velocity and wind speed can be drawn after calculating the results. We must now look at the more practical applications of wind turbines. There are many factors that prevent wind turbines from reaching the theoretical Betz limit such as blade number losses, whirlpool losses, end losses and the airfoil profile losses. These losses prevent kinetic energy from being converted into mechanical energy. A conclusive recommendation would be to explore ways to reduce those losses and increase the efficiency of the practical wind turbine. Literature review deals with previous research work on the effect of blade angle on horizontal axis wind turbine theory and application background. Also, focus was given on blade material and its theory background. This helps researchers to develop good horizontal axis wind turbine. After review of various research papers, it was found that in majority HAWT (Horizontal Axis Wind Turbine), three bladed was suitable for commercial applications. The simulation has been done for pitch angles (degree) from 0 to 48 in the multiples of 3 for wind speeds of 3,5,7,9,11 and 14 m/s. We have different optimum torque or power at respective wind velocities.

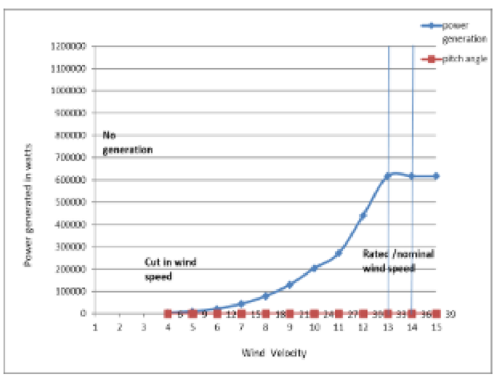

Fig. 4. table1

Thus, it is seen that the blade pitch angle has effect on the turbine performance and for a given wind speed; there is an optimum pitch angle which gives maximum power. Using mathematical model [Heier. S. 1998] to fit the numerical data, the optimal pitch angle for which the power output is constant were found to be 6 degree for wind speeds of 3,5,7,9,11 and 14 m/s. The corresponding maximum power were found to be 9.91, 45.89, 125.94, 267.68, 634.45 and 10007.58 kw. The objective of the current work is to study the effect of a pitch angle on performance of a un- twisted blade HAWT at different wind velocities. This study can provide information to the designer to design more aerodynamically optimal blades and to the operator, the optimal pitch angles of operation for maximum power. It is also found that cp= 0.2631, TSR=5 at pitch= 6 degree is most preferred.

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Enhancing Building Energy Efficiency through Phase Change Materials: A Review of Thermal Energy Storage Technologies

1st Sanjeev Singh Chauhan
Mechanical Engineering,
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, 458001, India
sanjeev.chauhan@meu.edu.in

2ndK Raja Rao
Mechanical Engineering)
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, 458001, India
krajarao218@gmail.com

3rd Himanshu Sharma
Mechanical Engineering)
Mandsaur University
Mandsaur, 458001, India
sharmahimanshu2604@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Buildings contribute significantly to worldwide energy use and carbon emissions. Reducing energy demand in buildings has become a key concern for sustainable development. Phase Change Materials (PCMs) have emerged as one of the most promising thermal energy storage (TES) technologies for enhancing building energy efficiency. PCMs possess the capability to absorb and release significant amounts of latent heat during phase transitions, maintaining thermal comfort and reducing heating and cooling demands. This paper presents a comprehensive analysis of phase change materials concerning their role in enhancing building energy efficiency. It elaborates on the classification, properties, integration techniques, challenges, and recent advancements of PCMs in various building components, including walls, roofs, glazing, HVAC systems, and photovoltaic panels. Additionally, case studies, limitations, and future research directions for PCM applications are discussed to offer a comprehensive perspective for researchers and practitioners aiming to implement PCMs in energy-efficient building designs. Keywords: Phase Change Materials (PCMs), Thermal Energy Storage (TES), Building Energy Efficiency, Sustainable Building Design**

***Index Terms*—**

I. Introduction

The building sector is one of the largest energy- consuming sectors globally, accounting for a substantial portion of final energy use and greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. It is estimated that residential and commercial buildings contribute to nearly 30–40demand, with a significant portion attributed to heating, ventilation, and air conditioning (HVAC) systems designed to maintain indoor thermal comfort [1]. As global energy consumption continues to rise and the impacts of climate change intensify, enhancing the energy efficiency of buildings has emerged as a critical strategy to achieve environmental sustainability and meet decarbonization goals.

Among various energy-saving solutions, thermal energy storage (TES) has gained attention for its ability to store surplus energy for later use, reduce peak load demands, and enable greater integration of renewable energy sources. TES systems are particularly beneficial in buildings, where they can be utilized to stabilize indoor temperatures and improve overall energy performance. Thermal energy storage (TES) techniques are typically divided into three main types: sensible heat storage, latent heat storage, and thermochemical storage. Among these, latent heat thermal energy storage (LHTES) stands out for its ability to store a high amount of energy and maintain an almost constant temperature during the phase change process. [2]. Phase change materials (PCMs) form the basis of LHTES systems. These materials can absorb or release a significant amount of latent heat during a phase transition—typically from solid to liquid and vice versa—without experiencing a substantial change in temperature. When incorporated into the building envelope or integrated with HVAC systems, Phase change materials contribute to passive indoor temperature regulation by absorbing surplus heat during high-temperature periods and releasing it when the surrounding temperature decreases. This thermal buffering capacity results in reduced heating and cooling loads, thereby improving energy efficiency and occupant comfort [3], [4]. The application of PCMs in building components has seen significant research and development over the past two decades. PCMs can be embedded in construction materials such as wallboards, floors, and ceilings or integrated into building systems to improve their thermal inertia. These integrations can be passive—where PCMs are incorporated into static building elements—or active, as in thermal storage tanks and dynamic HVAC subsystems. The selection of an appropriate PCM depends on several factors including phase change temperature, thermal conductivity, latent heat capacity, chemical stability, and cost [5].

Organic phase change materials, including paraffins and fatty acids, are commonly utilized in building applications because of their stable chemical properties, low toxicity, and non- corrosive behavior. In contrast, inorganic PCMs like salt hydrates offer higher thermal conductivity and energy storage density but may suffer from issues such as supercooling, phase separation, and corrosion [6]. To overcome these limitations, hybrid or composite PCMs have been developed by combining different materials or incorporating thermal conductivity enhancers such as graphite or metal nanoparticles [7]. Encapsulation techniques, including microencapsulation and microencapsulation, have also been employed to improve thermal stability, containment, and ease of integration with building materials [8]. Despite the promising attributes of PCMs, several challenges persist that hinder their large-scale application in the building sector. These include relatively low thermal conductivity, degradation of thermal properties over time, leakage during the liquid phase, and high material and installation costs. Additionally, ensuring compatibility between PCMs and traditional building materials, and developing reliable modelling tools for performance prediction, remain active areas of research [9]. Recent studies have focused on integrating PCMs into building-integrated TES systems, validating their performance through simulation tools like Energy Plus and TRNSYS, and conducting experimental evaluations under real-world conditions. Smart and adaptive PCM systems that respond dynamically to environmental stimuli are also being explored as next-generation solutions to improve building responsiveness to external thermal loads [10], [11]. This review aims to consolidate the existing body of research on PCM-based TES systems for enhancing energy efficiency in buildings. It begins with an overview of TES technologies, with a focus on LHTES and PCM classification. The thermal properties, performance parameters, and material selection criteria of PCMs are then discussed. Subsequent sections explore integration methods, encapsulation techniques, numerical modelling, and case studies illustrating PCM applications in both residential and commercial settings. Finally, the review highlights key technical challenges, future research directions, and the role of policy in promoting PCM deployment. By synthesizing the current knowledge landscape, this paper intends to serve as a resource for researchers, architects, engineers, and policymakers aiming to promote low-energy and sustainable building designs. The successful integration of PCMs into buildings represents a viable pathway toward achieving energy-efficient, thermally stable, and environmentally responsible infrastructure.

II. Energy Consumption in Buildings and Need for Energy Efficiency

Buildings consume energy for a wide range of functions, including but not limited to lighting, heating, cooling, ventilation, water heating, and powering appliances. Among these, space heating and cooling typically represent the most energy- intensive operations, often accounting for over 50of a building's total energy demand [12]. This substantial energy use is largely due to the thermal exchanges between indoor and outdoor environments, which are influenced by climatic conditions, building envelope design, insulation quality, and occupant behavior. In temperate and extreme climates, the demand for space conditioning increases significantly, resulting in high energy consumption and operating costs. Consequently, reducing the thermal loads on HVAC systems by improving the building envelope has become a major priority in modern energy-efficient construction practices. Improving the thermal performance of the building envelope—comprising walls, roofs, floors, and windows—is among the most efficient strategies for enhancing energy efficiency in buildings. The envelope acts as a barrier between the interior conditioned space and the external environment, and any improvements to its insulation properties can reduce both thermal losses in winter and thermal gains in summer. Enhancements such as multi-layered insulation systems, airtight construction, reflective coatings, and high- performance glazing can significantly lower heat transfer and contribute to better indoor thermal comfort [13]. Besides reducing unwanted heat loss or gain, incorporating renewable energy solutions like photovoltaic (PV) panels and solar thermal collectors allows buildings to produce clean energy locally, helping to lower overall energy consumption. However, solar energy's variability and the misalignment between energy production and usage times present significant challenges. Thermal energy storage (TES) systems play a crucial role in addressing these issues. TES systems allow surplus thermal energy, often from solar or waste heat sources, to be stored during off-peak periods and released when needed. By shifting energy usage to non-peak times, TES not only enhances energy utilization efficiency but also reduces stress on the grid [14]. Latent heat thermal energy storage (TES) systems, especially those using phase change materials (PCMs), have become increasingly popular because of their high energy storage capacity and consistent operating temperature. PCMs are capable of absorbing, storing, and releasing substantial thermal energy during phase changes, usually between solid and liquid states. When incorporated

into building components like plasterboards, wall panels, ceilings, or flooring, they significantly improve the thermal inertia of the structure. This increased thermal mass helps to buffer indoor temperature fluctuations, reduce peak heating and cooling loads, and improve occupant comfort without active energy input [15]. The integration of PCMs aligns with the growing movement toward nearly zero-energy buildings (NZEB) and sustainable architecture. NZEBs aim to minimize energy consumption and rely significantly on on-site renewable energy generation to meet their residual demand. Achieving NZEB status necessitates a holistic approach combining advanced insulation, efficient systems, renewable energy integration, and intelligent control strategies. In this context, PCMs serve as a promising component in the building design toolkit, enabling a passive and adaptive approach to thermal management [16]. Moreover, the role of PCMs extends beyond energy savings; their application contributes to climate resilience by improving indoor thermal stability during power outages or extreme temperature events. As the building industry faces increasing pressure to meet stringent energy codes and carbon reduction targets, the deployment of PCMs offers a scalable and cost-effective method to bridge the gap between energy efficiency and occupant well- being. Ongoing research continues to explore innovative PCM formulations, encapsulation techniques, and composite systems tailored for diverse building applications and climate zones [17].

III. Thermal Energy Storage (TES)

Thermal Energy Storage (TES) Overview

systems play a vital role in enhancing the energy efficiency and flexibility of buildings by storing excess thermal energy for later use. These systems function by absorbing, storing, and discharging heat or cold during different periods of the day, thereby helping to bridge the gap between energy supply and demand. TES systems can effectively reduce peak energy consumption, lower electricity costs, and decrease the environmental impact associated with energy generation. By shifting the load from high-demand periods to off-peak hours, TES systems contribute to improved grid stability and facilitate the integration of renewable energy sources, which are inherently intermittent in nature [18]. TES systems can be broadly categorized into three main types based on the mode of energy storage: Sensible Heat Storage (SHS), Latent Heat Storage (LHS), and Thermochemical Storage (TCS) [19].

- Sensible Heat Storage (SHS) works by increasing the temperature of a substance without altering its physical state.
  Materials like water, rocks, and molten salts are frequently used for this type of storage. The energy retained is determined by the material's specific heat capacity, its mass, and the temperature change between the starting and ending points. Although SHS systems are generally straightforward and economical, they offer lower energy storage density than other thermal energy storage options, making them less suitable for applications where space is limited [20].
- Latent Heat Storage (LHS) captures energy during a material's phase change, most commonly between solid and liquid states. A primary benefit of LHS systems is their capacity to store substantial energy at nearly constant temperatures, which is particularly advantageous for sustaining indoor thermal comfort. Central to LHS systems are phase change materials (PCMs), which absorb heat as they melt and release it when they solidify. When integrated into building elements such as walls, ceilings, floors, or HVAC systems, PCMs can greatly decrease reliance on mechanical heating and cooling, leading to reduced energy usage and lower operational expenses.
- Thermochemical Storage (TCS) stores energy through reversible chemical reactions. These systems offer the highest energy density among TES technologies and allow long-term storage without thermal losses. However, they are still largely at the research and development stage due to their complexity, high costs, and challenges in material stability and reaction reversibility [22].

Among the three categories, Latent Heat Storage using PCMs has emerged as one of the most promising options for building applications. This is primarily due to the high energy density and isothermal behavior of PCMs during phase transitions. Unlike SHS systems, which experience temperature fluctuations, LHS systems with PCMs maintain a nearly constant temperature during energy exchange, enhancing indoor thermal comfort without frequent HVAC operation [23]. Furthermore, PCMs can be tailored to activate within specific temperature ranges suitable for residential or commercial environments, making them highly adaptable across various climate zones. Recent advancements in PCM technology—including the development of composite PCMs, improved encapsulation methods, and thermal conductivity enhancers—have significantly enhanced their performance and applicability in the built

environment. These innovations aim to address limitations such as low thermal conductivity, leakage, and phase segregation, which have historically hindered widespread adoption [24]. In summary, TES systems represent a critical component in the future of sustainable buildings. Among them, LHS using PCMs stands out for its energy efficiency, thermal stability, and compatibility with modern architectural and engineering solutions. As demand grows for low- carbon and energy-resilient infrastructure, the integration of PCM-based TES systems in building design will play a central role in achieving long- term energy and environmental objectives.

IV. Phase Change Materials (PCMs) for Building Applications

Phase Change Materials (PCMs) have emerged as a vital component in thermal energy storage (TES) systems, particularly in the context of building energy efficiency. Their ability to absorb, store, and release significant amounts of latent heat during phase transitions—typically between solid and liquid states—makes them ideal for passive thermal regulation in buildings. When integrated into the building envelope or HVAC systems, PCMs can help flatten indoor temperature fluctuations, reduce peak heating and cooling demands, and ultimately contribute to lower energy consumption [25].

A. Classification of PCMs

PCMs used in building-integrated TES systems are broadly categorized into organic, inorganic, and eutectic types, each possessing unique thermophysical and chemical characteristics suitable for specific applications [26]. Organic PCMs Organic PCMs are primarily composed of paraffin waxes and fatty acids. Paraffins, derived from petroleum, are a family of straight-chain alkanes that offer advantages such as congruent melting, high chemical stability, and non-corrosive behavior. Fatty acids, which are biodegradable and renewable, exhibit similar thermal properties and are generally less flammable than paraffins. The advantages of organic PCMs include:

- Chemically stable and non-reactive.
- Undergo congruent phase change with minimal degradation over cycles.
- Non-corrosive to storage containers or building materials. However, these materials have limitations that hinder their broader application:
- Low thermal conductivity, which restricts the rate of heat exchange.
- High flammability, especially in paraffinic compounds.
- Relatively low latent heat values compared to inorganic counterparts [27].

B. Inorganic PCMs

Inorganic PCMs mainly consist of salt hydrates, metallics, and some molten salts. Salt hydrates are hydrated inorganic salts capable of undergoing phase change by releasing their water of crystallization. Their benefits include:

- High latent heat capacity, enabling compact storage.
- Better thermal conductivity than most organic PCMs.
- Sharper melting points which improve thermal control. Despite these advantages, inorganic PCMs present several technical challenges:
- Supercooling, where the material remains in a liquid state below its freezing point.
- Phase segregation, where components separate upon repeated cycling.
- Corrosive nature, which necessitates special containment materials and protective coatings [28].

C. Eutectic PCMs

Eutectic PCMs are mixtures of two or more components—organic-organic, inorganic- inorganic, or organic-inorganic—that melt and solidify at a single, sharp temperature. Eutectics can be engineered to match specific thermal requirements in buildings. Their strengths include:

- Well-defined melting points, enhancing thermal reliability.
- Stable and repeatable phase change behavior over numerous cycles. However, eutectic systems often involve:
- Higher production and development costs.
- Complex formulations, requiring precise composition control to prevent phase separation or undesirable thermal behavior [29].

V. Selection Criteria for PCMs

Choosing a suitable PCM for a building application is a multi-dimensional decision that requires balancing performance, safety, and cost. The following criteria are essential when selecting PCMs for thermal storage in buildings [30]:

- Melting Temperature: The phase transition temperature should fall within the human comfort range, typically between 18°C and 26°C, to optimize indoor environmental quality without active HVAC usage.
- Latent Heat of Fusion: Higher values are preferred to ensure greater energy storage within a compact material volume.
- Thermal Conductivity: Adequate heat transfer is essential to ensure timely energy absorption and release. Enhancements such as metallic foams, expanded graphite, or carbon-based nanomaterials are often introduced to improve conductivity.
- Chemical Stability: PCMs should retain their performance characteristics across thousands of thermal cycles without significant degradation.
- Environmental and Health Safety: Materials should be non-toxic, biodegradable, and non-flammable where possible, especially for use in occupied spaces.
- Cost-effectiveness: Affordability of both raw materials and encapsulation methods plays a crucial role in determining feasibility for large-scale building applications.

VI. Thermophysical Properties of PCMs

The effectiveness of a PCM in building energy applications largely depends on its thermophysical properties, which govern how it stores and transfers heat. The most critical parameters include [31]:

- Specific Heat Capacity: Determines the sensible heat storage ability in addition to latent heat.
- Thermal Conductivity: Affects the rate of energy absorption and release; low conductivity is a common drawback of many PCMs.
- Latent Heat of Fusion: Indicates the amount of heat stored during the phase change process and is a primary performance metric.
- Density: Affects material volume and weight; high-density PCMs allow compact storage but may pose structural challenges.
- Supercooling Tendency: Affects the consistency and reliability of energy release during solidification. Materials with minimal supercooling are preferred for stable thermal regulation.
- Volume Change: Expansion or contraction during phase transitions can cause stress on encapsulation structures or leaks; thus, minimal volume variation is ideal.

Improving the thermal conductivity of PCMs is an ongoing research focus. Additives such as expanded graphite, carbon nanotubes, and metal nanoparticles have shown promise in enhancing heat transfer performance without significantly compromising the latent heat storage capacity [32].

VII. Applications of PCMs in Buildings

Incorporating Phase Change Materials into building components and systems offers considerable potential for boosting energy efficiency,

minimizing peak energy loads, and enhancing indoor thermal comfort. Utilizing the latent heat storage capabilities of PCMs allows buildings to manage internal temperatures passively, thereby decreasing the dependency on conventional heating and cooling mechanisms. These materials can be integrated into multiple elements of a building, such as walls, internal partitions, glazing, HVAC systems, and even photovoltaic (PV) installations. The application strategy often depends on the specific thermal load profile, climatic conditions, and building design.

A. PCM in Walls, Roofs, and Floors

One of the most common strategies for applying PCMs in buildings involves their integration into structural components such as walls, roofs, and floors. Since these building components are continually subjected to external temperature fluctuations, integrating them with PCMs can substantially improve the structure's thermal mass. This enhancement enables the building to absorb surplus heat during the day and gradually release it as temperatures decline at night. Direct incorporation of PCMs into conventional building materials such as concrete, plaster, or gypsum boards is a practical method for creating thermally active surfaces. This can be achieved through blending PCMs into the material matrix during the manufacturing stage. Alternatively, micro-encapsulation techniques involve encasing PCM particles in protective polymer shells, which are then dispersed uniformly into construction materials, ensuring homogeneity and preventing leakage during phase transitions. Macro-encapsulation, on the other hand, uses larger PCM containers—such as pouches, panels, or tubes—that are embedded into walls or ceilings in a modular fashion. This approach allows for easier replacement and better control over PCM quantity and positioning. Key benefits of using PCMs in building envelopes include:

- Minimization of indoor temperature swings, resulting in improved occupant thermal comfort.
- Time-shifting of heat gain or loss, effectively delaying the transfer of heat from the external environment to the building interior.
- Peak load reduction, which contributes to lower HVAC energy consumption during extreme temperature periods.

B. PCM in Windows and Glazing Systems

The incorporation of PCMs into window and glazing systems has gained attention due to its potential for balancing solar heat gain and indoor temperature regulation. Glazing integrated with PCMs can absorb excess solar energy during the day and release it at night, thereby maintaining indoor temperatures within comfortable limits.

PCMs can be embedded into double or triple- glazing units, either in the form of transparent/translucent panels or as thin films and coatings applied to glass surfaces. These configurations allow PCMs to function without compromising daylight availability—a critical factor for occupant well-being and reduced lighting loads. In climates with high solar radiation, PCM glazing systems can contribute to:

- Improved thermal insulation by reducing unwanted solar heat gains.
- Balanced day-night temperature profiles, reducing reliance on mechanical cooling.
- Enhanced thermal comfort, particularly in sun-facing spaces.

C. PCM in HVAC Systems

PCMs also play an essential role in Heating, Ventilation, and Air Conditioning (HVAC) systems by improving their operational efficiency and enabling thermal load levelling. PCMs can be used in various HVAC subsystems such as:

- Thermal storage tanks, where they store cooling or heating energy during off-peak hours for use during peak periods.
- Air distribution ducts, to absorb excess thermal energy during air transport.
- Radiant heating and cooling panels, providing passive thermal regulation by releasing or absorbing heat as needed. These applications result in:
- Lower peak energy demand, reducing stress on grid infrastructure.
- Reduced HVAC equipment size, lowering capital and operating costs.
- Improved system performance, especially in demand-response programs.

The adoption of PCMs in HVAC systems also facilitates better alignment with renewable energy sources, enabling storage of solar thermal energy for nighttime use or during cloudy conditions. 5.4 PCM in Photovoltaic (PV) Systems Photovoltaic panels often suffer from efficiency losses due to elevated surface temperatures under direct solar exposure. Incorporating PCMs into PV modules—either as back layers or in surrounding structures—has been demonstrated to regulate temperature, thereby enhancing electrical performance. In PV-PCM hybrid systems, the PCM absorbs excess thermal energy, maintaining the operating temperature of PV panels within optimal limits (typically below 40°C). This leads to:

- Increased energy conversion efficiency of PV cells, especially during peak sun hours.
- Extended service life of PV modules, as temperature-induced degradation is minimized.
- Dual-purpose utility, as the heat absorbed by the PCM can be reused in domestic hot water systems or space heating—effectively transforming the system into a PV-thermal energy storage (PV-TES) unit.

In climates with high solar irradiance, PV-TES systems with PCMs offer a promising pathway to maximize the overall energy yield of solar installations while maintaining system reliability.

VIII. Conclusion

PCMs offer immense potential in transforming building energy efficiency strategies. Their capacity to absorb and discharge latent heat during phase changes contributes to maintaining stable indoor temperatures, lowering the demand on HVAC systems, and enhancing the efficiency of renewable energy technologies such as photovoltaic systems. Although certain technical and economic challenges persist, continuous advancements in material science, encapsulation, and hybrid systems are poised to overcome these barriers. Future buildings will increasingly rely on PCMs, integrated with smart control systems and sustainable energy practices, to achieve low-energy or net-zero energy targets.

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Surface Engineering Enhancement: A Comprehensive Analysis of Tungsten Inert Gas Cladding Methods for Improved Material Function

1[st]Abdul Rahman Mansuri
Depa. of Mechanical Engineering
Research Scholar
Mewar University Gangrar
Chittorgahr, 312901, India
armansuri96@gmail.com

2[nd] Dr.Dinesh Kumar
Depa. of Mechanical Engineering
Assistant Professor
Mewar University Gangrar
Chittorgahr, 312901, India
dinesh23100@gmail.com

3[rd] Dr. Gaurav Jatav
Depa. of Mechanical Engineering
Assistant Professor
Mewar University Gangrar
Chittorgahr, 312901, India
gauravsjp693@gmail.com

***Abstract*—Components utilized in industrial sectors such as electricity generation, petrochemical processing, and automotive manufacturing frequently endure severe operational environments characterized by extreme temperature fluctuations, corrosion, and mechanical degradation. These conditions significantly reduce component lifespan and reliability. Surface enhancement technologies, particularly Tungsten Inert Gas (TIG) cladding, have emerged as economically viable solutions for improving surface characteristics without compromising the base material's mechanical integrity. This comprehensive examination explores the fundamental aspects, processing parameters, and applications of TIG cladding technology. The paper systematically investigates how various operational parameters including current intensity, scanning velocity, and protective gas flow influence the quality and performance characteristics of the deposited layer. Furthermore, this analysis evaluates the effectiveness of different coating materials such as tungsten carbide (WC), titanium carbide (TiC), silicon carbide (SiC), and various nickel-based alloys for enhancing surface hardness and wear resistance across different substrate materials including various steel classifications, titanium alloys, and aluminum alloys. Research results demonstrate that appropriate implementation of TIG cladding techniques can enhance surface hardness by 2-5 times and improve wear resistance by up to 50 times when compared with untreated substrates. The review concludes by highlighting current technological challenges and potential research directions in TIG cladding technology.**

***Index Terms*—TIG cladding, surface engineering, coating application, micro-hardness enhancement, wear resistance improvement, ceramic reinforcement, metallic composite structures**

I. Introduction

Surface engineering represents a systematic methodology for enhancing the surface properties of materials utilized in engineering, agricultural, and industrial applications. Components deployed in sectors such as power generation, petrochemical processing, and automotive manufacturing frequently encounter harsh operating conditions characterized by elevated temperatures, corrosive atmospheres, and mechanical wear mechanisms. These demanding operational circumstances significantly compromise component longevity and reliability, necessitating enhancement of surface material properties while maintaining the inherent mechanical characteristics of the underlying substrate (Singh et al., 2020). Surface engineering encompasses two principal categories: surface treatment methods and surface coating applications. Surface treatment techniques include processes such as cyaniding, nitriding, carburizing, laser peening, and shot peening, which modify the existing surface structure without adding new material. Conversely, surface coating applications introduce additional material onto a substrate surface to impart desirable properties. Among coating techniques, those based on thermal processing—particularly cladding—have gained substantial industrial attention due to their ability to create metallurgically bonded layers with superior properties. Cladding represents a particularly valuable surface engineering approach, characterized by the application of a coating material onto a substrate with subsequent fusion to form a metallurgical bond. Various techniques have been developed for cladding, including laser cladding, chemical vapor deposition (CVD), physical vapor deposition (PVD), thermal spraying, and arc-based processes.

II. Ease of Use

A. TIG Cladding Process

Tungsten Inert Gas (TIG) cladding represents an arc-based surface modification technique that employs heat generated from an electric arc to melt both the coating material and substrate surface, facilitating the formation of a metallurgical bond structure. The process utilizes an inert gas atmosphere, typically argon, to prevent oxidation and contamination during the welding operation (Naghiyan et al., 2018). The fundamental advantage of TIG cladding lies in its capability to develop a coating layer consisting of both the coating material and substrate material, creating a strong metallurgical bond that significantly enhances surface properties while maintaining the core characteristics of the base material. The TIG cladding process can be implemented through two primary methods: powder pre-placement and wire feeding techniques, as illustrated in Figure 1. Both approaches have distinct operational characteristics, advantages, limitations that influence their application in specific industrial contexts. Powder Pre-placement Technique The powder pre-placement method represents a straightforward and versatile approach for developing metallurgical bonds and molten pool structures. In this technique, the coating material in powder form is mixed with binders such as polyvinyl acetate and polyvinyl alcohol to create a paste-like solution. This mixture is then pre-placed on the substrate surface before heat application. The binder in this coating material ensures proper adhesion between the green coating material and substrate, though it may require curing to develop adequate strength (Madadi et al., 2011). Research has demonstrated that excessive binder usage can lead to porosity due to gas evolution during the curing process. When the arc heat source moves over the pre-placed powder, both the coating powder and substrate surface melt, resulting in surface fusion with desirable properties. This technique offers significant advantages, including operational flexibility and the ability to process a wide range of materials (Tijo and Masanta, 2019).

1) Wire Feed Technique: The wire feed technique employs a reel system that delivers filler material directly through a nozzle onto the substrate surface. In this method, melting of the filler material occurs simultaneously with the substrate through applied heat. The wire feed

approach offers several advantages over powder-based methods, including improved material usage efficiency, higher deposition rates, and reduced preparation time (Milani et al., 2016). Successful implementation of this technique requires careful control of various processing parameters, including including wire angle, feed rate, technique direction, and traverse speed. Research by Milani et al. (2016) established optimal feed conditions for obtaining favorable mechanical and metallurgical properties. Excessive feed rates can lead to decreased tensile strength in joints, while at optimal heat input, the melt shape quality is significantly influenced by wire feed rates (Tijo et al., 2006).

2) Influence of Process Parameters on TIG Cladding: The quality and performance characteristics of TIG clad layers depend significantly on multiple processing parameters. Understanding and controlling these parameters is essential for developing coatings with optimal properties.

3) Current: In TIG cladding operations, current represents the most influential parameter affecting heat input during the process. Research has established that cladding characteristics including height, width, and dilution directly proportionality with current level (Madadi et al., 2011). When appropriate current power is applied, the cladding process produces adequate dilution and proper metallurgical bonding between the coating and substrate materials. At higher current settings, increased heat input during TIG cladding enhances dilution and material penetration. Conversely, at lower current settings, insufficient bonding between coating and substrate may occur due to inadequate heat penetration (Singh et al., 2020). The level of dilution—defined as the ratio of penetration depth to build-up height—significantly influences the microstructure and properties of the clad layer. Madadi et al. (2013) utilized Response Surface Methodology to establish correlations between process parameters like current and scan speed. Their findings indicated that welding current represents one of the most significant processing parameters affecting heat input. Singh et al. (2020) demonstrated that among various TIG cladding parameters, current exerts the maximum impact on hardness and wear resistance. During TIG cladding of WC-10Co-4Cr on 304 stainless steel, researchers observed that lower current settings produced superior micro-hardness compared to coatings developed at higher current values (Figure 2). This phenomenon occurs because current input is proportional to heat input during TIG cladding. At low heat inputs, dissolution of WC carbide particles is minimized, preserving the hard carbide structure. Conversely, increased current leads to greater heat input, resulting in more WC grains dissolving into the steel matrix, thereby reducing the hardness of the cladding layer (Singh et al., 2015).

4) Scanning Speed: The scanning speed or traversing speed of the TIG torch significantly influences heat input and material interaction time during the cladding process. Lower scanning speeds result in extended interaction times between the heat source and materials, generating higher heat input and promoting deeper penetration and mixing of coating materials with the substrate (Tijo et al., 2016). At reduced scanning speeds, the heat input is sufficient for proper bonding of coating and substrate surfaces. Research indicates that appropriate bonding depends significantly on scanning speed, with higher dilution from lower scanning speeds contributing to poor metallurgical bonding between substrate and coating, potentially creating interfacial gaps (Sahoo and Masanta, 2017).

5) Shielding Gas and Stand-off Distance: TIG cladding processes typically employ inert gas shielding, primarily argon, to prevent oxidation of coating and substrate materials during the process. However, research has demonstrated that shielding gas flow rate significantly affects coating quality, with excessive flow rates potentially introducing defects like porosity (Singh et al., 2015). Studies have shown that higher argon gas flow rates diminish the reaction between tungsten carbide particles and atmospheric oxygen, thereby enhancing the hardness of the clad layer. Additionally, higher argon flow rates assist in cooling the welding torch. Figure 3 illustrates the relationship between micro-hardness, stand-off distance, and argon flow rate. The stand-off distance—the gap between the heat source and substrate—also significantly influences heat input during the cladding process. Research indicates that increased stand-off distances result in minimal heat supply, while shorter distances provide maximum heat. This parameter affects the dilution of carbide particles, with lower dilution at greater stand-off distances producing enhanced hardness and wear resistance. Conversely, reduced stand-off distances supply higher heat, inducing coarser microstructures with diminished performance characteristics (Singh et al., 2015).

B. Effect of Coating Materials on Surface Properties

The selection of appropriate coating materials is crucial for achieving desired surface properties in TIG cladding applications. Various materials have been investigated for their potential to enhance hardness, wear resistance, and corrosion resistance properties of different substrate materials.

III. Titanium Carbide (TiC) Based Coatings

Titanium carbide (TiC) ceramic represents one of the preferred coating materials due to its exceptional properties, including high hardness, elevated melting point, low density, and outstanding chemical stability. These characteristics particularly attract applications requiring enhanced wear resistance (Peng and Kang, 2015). Research by Mridha et al. (2012) demonstrated that TiC reinforcement in steel substrates significantly improved surface hardness, achieving values up to 1100 HV compared to the base substrate hardness of 300 HV. This substantial improvement results from the implantation of hard TiC particles in the steel matrix and the associated variation in hardness distribution due to differences in TiC concentration. When applied to stainless steel substrates, TiC coatings developed through the TIG process exhibited hardness improvements of 2.5-3.5 times compared to untreated substrates (Mridha and Baker, 2015). Studies further demonstrated that the first pass of TiC coating provided maximum hardness (approximately 1000 HV) due to the presence of partially melted TiC particles, while subsequent passes showed reduced hardness due to increased dissolution of TiC particles. Investigations into TiC-based metal matrix composites (MMCs) as coating materials have also yielded promising results. Saroj et al. (2017) examined TiC-Inconel 825 composite coatings on AISI 304 steel, observing microhardness improvements from 462 HV to 770 HV. Their findings indicated that increasing TiC particle concentration in the coating enhanced hardness, with optimal results achieved at 60Similarly, Wang et al. (2012) reported that TiC-TiB ceramic particulates increased the microhardness of Q235 steel steels to 900 HV, representing a fourfold improvement over the uncoated substrate. The enhanced hardness was attributed to the formation of hard boride particles and TiB phases in the coating structure.

A. Titanium Nitride (TiN) Coatings

Titanium nitride (TiN) ceramic possesses properties similar to TiC, including high melting point, excellent thermal expansion characteristics, chemical stability, and compatibility with various substrate materials. These characteristics make TiN an ideal coating material for improving hardness and corrosion resistance properties. Mridha and Dyuti (2011) produced insitu TiN layers on pure Ti substrates using TIG melting in a nitrogen atmosphere, achieving surface hardness values exceeding 2000 HV—approximately ten times harder than the base substrate. The researchers observed that increasing energy density enhanced the reaction between Ti and N, resulting in greater TiN dendrite formation and consequently higher hardness. Further investigations by Mridha et al. (2016) revealed that TiN coatings produced on Ti-6Al-4V alloy surfaces enhanced hardness beyond 2000 HV at optimal heat input levels. The study demonstrated that the concentration of nitrogen dendrites significantly influenced the hardness of the coated surface, with the concentration of TiN dendrites directly proportional to the energy density applied during melting. Research by Wahgmare et al. (2018) on Ni-Ti coatings applied to Ti-6Al-4V specimens using TIG cladding showed the formation of NiTi and NiTi intermetallic compounds, which improved surface hardness to values between 500-800 HV compared to the base material's hardness of 320 HV. XRD analysis confirmed the presence of these hard phases in the clad layer, with the development of NiTi particularly beneficial for enhancing hardness properties.

B. Silicon Carbide (SiC) Coatings

Silicon carbide (SiC) represents another valuable coating material for TIG cladding applications, offering excellent corrosion resistance properties compared to silicon nitride. These characteristics make SiC particularly suitable for applications requiring sustained performance at elevated temperatures (Reddy et al., 2014). Investigations by Ulutan et al. (2006) demonstrated that TIG cladding with SiC/C powders on steel substrates produced wear- resistant layers with hardness values three times greater than untreated steel. The researchers attributed this improvement to the presence of hard carbide particles like FeC, FeC, and MC in the coated layer, which significantly enhanced wear resistance properties. Kumar et al. (2019) developed metal matrix composite (MMC) coatings using Ti-SiC on AISI 304 stainless steel substrates, achieving maximum microhardness values of 575 HV. and 639 HV. with 20% and 30 %SiC constituents respectively.

Their research indicated that the uniform distribution of ceramic particles in Ti-20 %SiC resulted in consistent microhardness values (Figure 7), whereas microstructural inconsistencies observed with higher SiC content resulted in variable hardness measurements. Studies by Sharma et al. (2019) reported that microalloyed steel surfaces treated with SiC reinforcement through TIG arcing exhibited hardness improvements of approximately 2.9 times compared to the substrate material. This enhancement was attributed to the dispersion of MC carbides in the eutectic matrix. X-ray diffraction analysis contributed to the improved hardness properties (Figure 6).

C. Tungsten Carbide (WC) Coatings

Tungsten carbide offers specific desirable properties including high hardness, good plasticity, heat stability, and excellent wettability with molten metals. These characteristics make WC particularly valuable for applications requiring enhanced hardness and wear resistance in industrial environments (Buytoz et al., 2006). Research by ToSun (2012) demonstrated that increasing WC content in Ni-WC coatings significantly improved microhardness values. The study identified that the formation of various hard phases in WC-Ni structures—including widmanstätten-type ferrite, acicular ferrite, and WC carbides in dendritic structures—contributed substantially to enhanced hardness properties. These microstructural developments were particularly pronounced with increased coating thickness and current settings (Figure 8). Kumar et al. (2022) investigated the application of rare earth oxides (CeO+LaO) with WC-Ni coatings on titanium alloy substrates, observing an approximate 16 %improvement in surface hardness compared to standard WC-Ni coatings. This improvement was attributed to enhanced WC-Ni coatings and the beneficial effects of rare earth oxides in promoting refined microstructures and improved bonding characteristics. Singh et al. (2015) reported that WC-10Co-4Cr coatings on 304 stainless steel substrates achieved maximum wear resistance at 90A current settings. The researchers attributed this performance to the development of dense, uniform WC structures with minimal heat input (Figure 10), which effectively resisted abrasive wear through a plowing barrier mechanism.

D. Stellite-6 Coatings

Stellite-6 represents a widely used cobalt-based alloy characterized by high hardness, excellent temperature resistance, wear resistance, and corrosion resistance properties. The exceptional hardness of cobalt-based alloys primarily results from the development of intermetallic compounds during solidification or the formation of hard carbides (Shahroozi et al., 2018). Investigations by Shahroozi et al. (2018) demonstrated that Stellite-6 coatings applied to ASTM A105 steel substrates improved surface hardness from approximately 200 HV to 400 HV. Further enhancements were achieved through TiC reinforcement particles, which increased hardness values to approximately 700 HV. Madadi et al. (2011) employed pulsed mode TIG arcing for applying Stellite-6 alloy coatings on carbon steel substrates, observing significant improvements in dilution characteristics and penetration depth. Their research indicated that pulsed current techniques enhanced the dilution of coating materials with the substrate, contributing to improved bonding and performance properties.

E. Nickel-based Alloys as Coating Materials

Nickel-based alloys have gained attention for their exceptional toughness, wear resistance, and corrosion resistance properties at elevated temperatures. Chen et al. (2011) demonstrated that Ni-based alloy coatings on 316 stainless steel significantly improved erosion resistance when exposed to molten fluoride salts. Research by Chen et al. (2003) indicated that NiTi coatings applied to 316 stainless steel enhanced erosion resistance due to partial retention of superelasticity and high hardness characteristics. The study highlighted the potential of NiTi alloys for improving both hardness and corrosion resistance properties of austenitic stainless steel substrates.
IMPROVEMENT IN SURFACE PROPERTIES THROUGH TIG CLADDING

F. Enhancement of Hardness Properties

One of the primary objectives of surface engineering is to improve hardness characteristics, which directly influence component performance in wear-resistant applications. TIG cladding has demonstrated significant potential for enhancing surface hardness across various substrate materials.

G. TiC Ceramic Coatings

TiC ceramic coatings have shown remarkable effectiveness in improving surface hardness properties. Research by Mridha et al. (2012) demonstrated that TiC reinforced coatings on AISI 4340 steel elevated surface hardness values to approximately 1100 HV compared to the base substrate hardness of 300 HV. Studies by Mridha and Baker (2015) revealed that the hardness of TIG heat-treated surfaces varied between 523-800 HV depending on the concentration of TiC particles implanted in the steel matrix. This variation was attributed to disparities in TiC concentration throughout the coated surface. Investigations into TiC-reinforced metal matrix composites have yielded similarly impressive results. Saroj et al. (2017) reported that TiC-Inconel825 composite coatings on AISI 304 steel increased microhardness from 462 HV to 770 HV, with performance largely dependent on TiC percentage and processing conditions.

H. TiN Ceramic Coatings

Titanium nitride coatings have demonstrated exceptional hardness enhancement capabilities. Mridha and Dyuti (2011) produced TiN layers on pure Ti substrates with hardness values exceeding 2000 HV, representing an approximately tenfold improvement over the base material. Research by Mridha et al. (2016) on TiN coatings applied to Ti-6Al-4V alloy surfaces achieved hardness values beyond 2000 HV at optimal heat input levels. The formation of TiN dendrites significantly contributed to the enhanced hardness properties of the coated surface.

I. TiC-based Metal Matrix Composites

Several investigations have focused on developing TiC-based metal matrix composite coatings to improve surface hardness. Saroj et al. (2017) examined the microstructure and properties of TiC-reinforced composites with varying TiC percentages (20-60%). Their findings indicated that while 20% TiC content formed suitable interfacial bonding, higher concentrations (40-60%) resulted in diminished interfacial bonding, affecting overall hardness distribution. Wang et al. (2012) reported that TiC-TiB ceramic particulates increased the microhardness of Q235 steel to approximately 900 HV, representing a fourfold improvement over the uncoated substrate. The enhanced hardness was attributed to the formation of hard boride particles and TiB phases in the coating structure.

J. SiC Ceramic Coatings

Silicon carbide coatings have demonstrated significant potential for hardness enhancement. Kumar et al. (2019) developed Ti- SiC metal matrix composite coatings on AISI 304 SS, achieving maximum microhardness values of 575 HV. and 639 HV. with 20% and 30 %SiC constituents, respectively. Research by Sharma et al. (2019) indicated that microalloyed steel surfaces treated with SiC reinforcement exhibited hardness improvements approximately 2.9 times greater than the substrate material. This enhancement was attributed to the dispersion of MC carbides in the eutectic matrix.

K. WC Ceramic Coatings

Tungsten carbide coatings have shown exceptional effectiveness in improving surface hardness properties. ToSun (2012) demonstrated that Ni-WC coatings significantly enhanced microhardness values due to the formation of various hard phases, including widmanstatten-type ferrite, acicular ferrite, and WC carbides in dendritic structures. Kumar et al. (2022) reported that the addition of rare earth oxides (CeO+LaO) to WC-Ni coatings improved surface hardness by approximately 16% compared to standard WC-Ni coatings. This enhancement was attributed to the beneficial effects of rare earth oxides in promoting refined microstructures.

L. Improvement in Wear Resistance

Wear resistance represents another critical aspect of material performance in manufacturing and industrial applications. TIG cladding with appropriate coating materials has demonstrated significant improvements in wear resistance properties across various substrate materials.

M. TiC Ceramic Coatings

TiC ceramic coatings have shown exceptional wear resistance enhancements when applied to various substrates. Peng and Kang (2015) observed that the uniform distribution of hard TiC particles in coated surfaces significantly improved wear resistance while reducing friction coefficients. Research by Wang et al. (2012) demonstrated that multi-layer composite coatings with TiC-Fe based materials enhanced wear resistance by approximately four times compared to untreated substrates. The composite coating39;s ability to resist plastic deformation and scoring contributed significantly to this improvement. Saroj et al. (2017) reported that TiC-reinforced Inconel 825 coatings substantially enhanced abrasive wear resistance of AISI 304 steel substrates. The researchers attributed this improvement to the uniform distribution of partially melted TiC particles within the Inconel matrix, which effectively resisted abrasive wear during testing.

N. SiC Ceramic Coatings

Silicon carbide coatings have demonstrated significant potential for improving wear resistance properties. Ulutan et al. (2006) reported that TIG cladding with SiC/C powders produced wear-resistant layers with performance three times superior to untreated steel substrates. Kumar et al. (2019) found that Ti-SiC MMC coatings improved the abrasive wear resistance of 304 steel alloys by factors of 2.3-3.4, depending on SiC content. The researchers noted that micro-alloyed silicon carbide particles displayed friction coefficients but exhibited minimal wear rates compared to larger silicon carbide particles.

O. WC Ceramic Coatings

Tungsten carbide coatings have demonstrated exceptional effectiveness in enhancing wear resistance. Buytoz et al. (2006) reported that WC deposits on AISI 4340 steel showed minimal wear rates under high feed rates, heat input, and low process speeds. Research by Singh et al. (2015) indicated that WC-10Co-4Cr coatings on 304 SS provided maximum wear resistance at 90A current settings due to the development of dense, uniform WC structures with minimal heat input. The uniform distribution of WC particles effectively resisted abrasive wear through a plowing barrier mechanism. Kumar et al. (2022) demonstrated that rare earth oxide additions (CeO+LaO) to WC-Ni coatings reduced friction coefficients by up to 22% while improving wear resistance by approximately 16 %compared to standard WC-Ni coatings.

P. Ni-based Alloy Coatings

Nickel-based alloy coatings have shown promising results in improving wear resistance properties. Saroj et al. (2017) reported that Inconel 825 coatings on AISI 304 steel exhibited superior wear resistance compared to untreated samples when subjected to hardened steel in sliding wear tests. Research by Chen et al. (2011) demonstrated that NiTi coatings on 316 stainless steel significantly enhanced erosion resistance when exposed to molten fluoride salts. The enhanced performance was attributed to the partial retention of superelasticity and high hardness characteristics of the NiTi alloy.

IV. Conclusions and Future Perspectives

This comprehensive review has systematically examined the TIG cladding process, including its underlying principles, processing methodologies, parameter influences, and effects on surface properties. Based on the extensive literature analysis, several key conclusions can be drawn: The performance of TIG cladding depends significantly on process parameters such as current, scan speed, gas flow rate, and stand-off distance, which collectively govern the heat input during the cladding process. Current has been identified as the most influential parameter, directly affecting the metallurgical bond between the clad layer and substrate material. Surface properties, including hardness and wear resistance, can be substantially improved through TIG cladding with appropriate coating materials. Research has demonstrated hardness improvements of 2-5 times and wear resistance enhancements of up to 50 times compared to untreated substrates. Various coating materials, including TiC, SiC, WC, TiN, Stellite-6, and Ni-based alloys, have shown significant potential for enhancing surface properties. The selection of appropriate coating materials depends on specific application requirements and operating conditions. The TIG cladding method represents a cost-effective and versatile technique for improving the surface properties of various engineering materials, including low-grade steels, stainless steels, and non-ferrous alloys. This technology extends the application range of these materials in demanding industrial environments. Despite the significant advancements in TIG cladding technology, several challenges remain to be addressed in future research: Surface defects including porosity and cracks frequently appear in the clad zone due to improper selection of process parameters or environmental effects. Further research is needed to develop defect-free clad layers with optimal properties. Limited investigation has been conducted on enhancing corrosion resistance properties through TIG cladding. Additional research is warranted to explore the potential of this technique for improving corrosion resistance in aggressive environments. The effect of stand-off distance and shielding gas flow rate on coating morphology, hardness, and wear resistance requires more comprehensive investigation to establish optimal processing parameters for specific material combinations. Exploring the potential of multi-element cladding and composite coatings could yield further improvements in surface properties and performance characteristics. In conclusion, TIG cladding represents a highly promising surface engineering technique for enhancing the performance and lifespan of engineering components in demanding industrial applications. Continued research and development in this field will further expand its applicability and effectiveness across various industries.

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Advanced Aluminum-based Metal Matrix Composites via Stir Casting: Comprehensive Analysis and Applications

1st Suhel Khan
Mechanical Engineering
Research Scholar Mewar University Gangrar
Chittorgahr, 312901, India
ksohel368@gmail.com

2nd Dr.Dinesh Kumar
Mechanical Engineering
Assistant Professor
Mewar University Gangrar
email address or ORCID

3rd Dr. Gaurav Jatav
Mechanical Engineering
Assistant Professor
Mewar University, Gangrar
email address or ORCID

***Abstract*—This study investigates the potential of aluminum-based metal matrix composites (MMCs) as next- generation engineering materials. The research commences with establishing essential material requirements, subsequently exploring aluminum39;s inherent advantages and manufacturability limitations. MMCs emerge as credible aluminum substitutes with variable properties determined by multiple factors including interface characteristics, reinforcement material composition, and distribution patterns. The document presents an extensive literature review examining critical variables affecting composite performance such as reinforcement type, volume fraction percentage, interfacial bonding quality, and manufacturing processes. Special emphasis is placed on stir casting techniques as an economically viable fabrication method for advanced composite materials with aerospace and automotive applications.**

***Index Terms*—component, formatting, style, styling, insert**

I. Introduction

The evolution of composite materials represents one of the most significant breakthroughs in contemporary materials engineering. Metal Matrix Composites (MMCs), particularly aluminum-based variants, have gained prominence as sophisticated materials with applications spanning aerospace, automotive, defense, marine, and general engineering sectors. These innovative materials leverage aluminum's lightweight characteristics while enhancing mechanical, thermal, and tribological properties through strategic reinforcement incorporation. This comprehensive assessment examines the current state of knowledge regarding aluminum-based MMCs fabricated through stir casting techniques. Initially, the review identifies critical properties required for materials intended for aerospace and high-performance applications. Subsequently, it evaluates pure aluminum's industrial significance alongside its inherent limitations, demonstrating how MMCs effectively address these shortcomings while preserving aluminum's beneficial characteristics. As documented by various researchers, MMCs can be engineered to possess superior attributes including enhanced strength, improved thermal stability, and superior fatigue resistance compared to conventional monolithic alloys. Their capability to withstand elevated temperatures, excellent transverse mechanical properties, and exceptional electrical and thermal conductivities make them particularly valuable for demanding industrial applications.

II. Material Requirements for Aerospace Applications

Since this work primarily focuses on applications within the aviation industry, it is appropriate to consider the specific properties necessary for materials used in such contexts. According to contemporary engineering standards, weight represents the most critical factor for aerospace materials. Lighter materials require less energy and consequently consume less fuel during operation. Research indicates that reducing an aircraft's weight by 1,000 kg could potentially decrease its fuel consumption by 1-1.5Beyond weight considerations, properties such as corrosion resistance, high strength, fatigue behavior, creep characteristics, machinability, fabrication capability, fracture toughness, and high modulus play crucial roles in material selection. While no single material possesses the ideal combination of all these properties, the precise requirements significantly depend on specific component designs and operational environments.

III. Aluminum and Its Fundamental Characteristics

Aircraft construction utilizes various elements, with aluminum being perhaps the most significant. Selecting appropriate alloys requires evaluation of tensile strength, density, ductility, formability, workability, weldability, and corrosion resistance. Aluminum alloys incorporate alloying elements such as copper, magnesium, manganese, silicon, and zinc to enhance specific properties. According to established classification systems, aluminum alloys are categorized into two primary classes based on manufacturing methods:

A. *Wrought aluminum alloys*

1) Cast aluminum alloys: Aluminum's widespread use stems from its low density—approximately one-third that of copper or steel alloys—while maintaining a specific gravity of 2.72. Despite its relatively lightweight nature, aluminum demonstrates high strength, excellent thermal and electrical conductivity. Although its electrical conductivity reaches only about 62 % of copper, aluminum's lightweight nature makes it preferable for numerous industrial applications. Additionally, aluminum exhibits exceptional machinability and workability. It can be cast, rolled, stamped, drawn, forged, hammered, and extruded into virtually any shape, facilitating the manufacture of intricate components required in aerospace engineering. Its excellent corrosion resistance, attributed to the formation of a dense and robust aluminum oxide (Al_2O_3) protective layer on exposed surfaces, represents another significant advantage. However, aluminum usage is constrained by strength and hardness limitations (necessitating its use only in lightly loaded structures) and low melting point (approximately 658°C). Furthermore, the material demonstrates poor stiffness and tribological properties. These limitations have motivated the development of aluminum MMCs as an effective solution.

2) Metal Matrix Composites: Fundamentals and Classification Composite materials combine two phases with robust interfaces between them. Typically, they comprise a continuous phase (matrix) and a discontinuous phase in the form of fibers, whiskers, or particles (reinforcement). Composite materials have gained widespread acceptance due to their favorable characteristic profiles, particularly their advantageous strength-to-weight ratio. Composite materials feature high stiffness, elevated strength, low density, excellent thermal stability, good electrical and thermal conductivity, adjustable coefficient of thermal expansion, corrosion resistance, and improved wear resistance. The matrix holds the reinforcement to form the desired shape, while the reinforcement enhances the overall mechanical properties. When properly designed, the combined material exhibits superior strength compared to its individual constituents.

3) Silicon Carbide-Aluminium MMC: A prominent example of MMCs is aluminum matrix composites reinforced with silicon carbide (Al-SiC). The most significant property of aluminum-silicon carbide in aerospace applications is its strength-to-weight ratio, which is three times greater than mild steel. Additionally, composites containing SiC (reinforcing material) and Al (matrix) demonstrate high modulus, superior strength values, wear resistance, enhanced thermal stability, reduced weight, and more effective load-carrying capacity compared to many alternative materials. These composites also exhibit favorable corrosion/oxidation properties since silicon carbide forms a protective silicon oxide coating at 1,200°C, and aluminum displays a similar reaction. In Al-SiC composites, the primary reaction at the interface is: 4Al + 3SiC $\rightarrow$ AlC + 3Si The resulting AlC (brittle in nature) is insoluble and therefore forms either as a separate precipitate or as a continuous layer around SiC particles. However, silicon enters the aluminum matrix to form an Al-Si binary alloy. The AlC layer at the interface improves the average offset yield strength, ultimate tensile strength, and work hardening rate with only a slight reduction in ductility.

4) Hybrid Metal Matrix Composites: Hybrid metal matrix composites (HMMCs) containing up to 15 fly ash and SiC particles can be easily fabricated through stir casting. Research demonstrates that fluidity and density of HMMCs decrease with increasing percentages of SiC and fly ash, while hardness, tensile strength, compression strength, and impact strength improve with higher reinforcement content percentages. Similarly, dry sliding wear resistance increases with higher composite particulate content.

5) Fly Ash-Aluminium MMC: Continuing research in metallurgical fields explores various reinforcement materials, including fly ash residues from mineral substances present in coal combustion. Fly ash consists primarily of aluminosilicate-based ceramic spheres with small quantities of iron-rich spheres. Cenosphere fly ash, consisting of empty particles, can be used to synthesize ultra-light composite materials due to its considerably low density. The incorporation of fly ash as either a precipitator or solid fly ash can improve various properties of selected matrix materials, including stiffness, wear resistance, strength, and reduced density. Mineralogically, fly ash contains aluminosilicate glasses with quartz, mullite, hematite, magnetite, ferrite, spinel, anhydrite, and alumina. Incorporating fly ash particles enhances wear resistance, damping properties, hardness, and stiffness while reducing aluminum alloy density. Aluminum-fly ash composites demonstrate potential applications as covers, pans, shrouds, casings, pulleys, manifolds, valve covers, brake rotors, and engine blocks in automotive, small engine, and electromechanical industry sectors.

6) Albite-Aluminium MMC: Albite is a common feldspathic ceramic, an aluminosilicate mineral occurring broadly in acid igneous rocks such as granites. It consists primarily of silicates and is available in various colors from white to dark grey to black. Albite exhibits excellent wear resistance with a Mohs hardness of approximately 6.5, similar to SiC but exceeding that of alumina. Albite does not react with matrix material even at elevated temperatures and features a low coefficient of thermal expansion (2.3×10 $°C^1$). It also demonstrates low thermal conductivity (2.8 $W{\cdot}m^1{\cdot}°C^1$) and specific gravity (2.6 g/cm^3), which is lower than both SiC (3.1 g/cm^3) and alumina (4.0 g/cm^3).

7) AlO-Aluminium MMC: AlO-aluminum composites with favorable mechanical and tribological properties find applications in crankshaft bearings and engine blocks to enhance wear resistance. Aluminum's soft oxide phase provides very low wear resistance when machining engine parts. Using AlO as a hard-phase reinforcement imparts hardness and wear resistance to aluminum or its alloys.

8) AlN-Aluminium MMC: Al-AlN composites find widespread use in microelectronic devices, although AlN's thermal conductivity (175 $W{\cdot}m^1{\cdot}K^1$) is less than SiC. AlN demonstrates significantly greater chemical stability than SiC. It exhibits excellent compatibility with aluminum alloys, strong interfacial adherence without interfacial reaction, high thermal conductivity, high electrical resistivity, low dielectric constant, high specific strength and stiffness, and tailorable coefficient of thermal expansion. Consequently, Al-AlN composites represent ideal nominee materials for electronic packaging applications in advanced electronics.

Research has confirmed that AlN peaks are distinctly visible and increase with higher AlN content, while AA6061 peaks decrease. X-Ray Diffraction analysis confirms that AlN is thermodynamically stable at fabrication temperatures of 1,000°C. Microstructure analysis shows homogeneous distribution of AlN in the aluminum alloy matrix without porosity evidence or cracks in the castings.

9) CNT-Aluminium MMC: In recent years, nano-sized particles have attracted significant attention as reinforcements in MMCs due to their superior properties such as high strength, elastic modulus, flexibility, and exclusive conductivity. Carbon nanotubes (CNTs) and other attractive properties have led to their use in various nano-composite materials. However, small-sized particles demonstrate a high affinity for agglomeration at different processing stages, which represents a major obstacle for uniform CNT distribution in the melt due to their large specific surface area and high interfacial energy.

10) SiC and AlO Hybrid MMC: Applications of SiC and AlO reinforced aluminum alloy composites have increased in aerospace and automotive industries, particularly for piston cylinders. AlO and SiC help resist surface deformation under sliding wear conditions. SiC functions as a harder phase than AlO, with SiC hardness reaching 2,800 kg/mm² compared to AlO's 1,440 kg/mm². AlO costs less than SiC, making investigation of hybrid composites economically viable for automotive and aerospace applications. Researchers hypothesize that aluminum MMCs with AlO and SiC particle reinforcements could reliably replace conventional gray cast iron in automobile industries.

IV. Processing Techniques for MMCs

MMC fabrication methods fall into two primary categories:

- solid-phase and liquid-phase processes
- Solid Phase Methods

Solid-phase methods include:

- Diffusion bonding (such as cold isostatic pressing)
- Rolling
- Extrusion
- Hot isostatic pressing (HIP)
- Liquid Phase Techniques

Liquid phase techniques involve processing molten metals through

- Squeeze casting
- Stir casting
- Rheo casting
- Various infiltration processes

V. Various infiltration processes

Stir casting of MMCs was initiated in 1968 when alumina particles were introduced into aluminum alloys containing ceramic powders. In this technique, the term refers to the method of stirring molten metal and immediately pouring it into a metal or sand mold, allowing it to solidify. During this process, reinforcing phases (typically in powder form) are distributed into molten aluminum through mechanical stirring. The cast composites are sometimes further extruded to reduce porosity, refine microstructure, and homogenize particle distribution. A primary concern with stir casting is the segregation of reinforcing particles caused by different melting temperatures and settling during melting processes. The final particle distribution depends on material properties and process parameters such as wetting conditions, relative density, mixing strength, solidification rate, and particle geometry in the molten matrix.

VI. Factors Affecting AI-Based MMC Properties

Several factors contribute to variations in AI-based MMC properties: Poor wettability between the matrix and reinforcement materials Chemical reaction between reinforcement material and matrix alloy

VII. Several factors contribute to variations in AI-based MMC properties

Poor wettability between the matrix and reinforcement materials Chemical reaction between reinforcement material and matrix alloy.

VIII. Wettability Challenges

Wettability represents a significant challenge when producing cast MMCs. It is defined as a liquid's ability to extend on a solid surface and can be described by the wettability angle: a. = 0°: perfect wettability b. = 180°: no wetting c. 0° lt ¡ lt ¡ 180°: partial wetting A low contact angle indicates good wettability. To ensure effective wetting, contamination or formation of aluminum oxides on ceramic surfaces should be minimized during composite manufacturing. Generally, particle surfaces are typically enclosed with gas layers, preventing molten matrix contact with particle surfaces. When particle concentration in the melt reaches critical levels, these gas layers can form bridges, leading to total particle rejection from the melt. Therefore, removing gases from particle surfaces prior to composite synthesis is essential. Several approaches promote wetting of reinforcement particles with molten matrix alloys:

A. Adding alloying elements to molten matrix alloy

- Coating particles
- Treating particles

The fundamental principles involve increasing solid surface energy, decreasing liquid matrix alloy surface tension, and decreasing solid-liquid interfacial energy at the particle- matrix interface. Adding magnesium, calcium, titanium, or zirconium to the melt may promote wetting by reducing surface tension, decreasing solid-liquid interfacial energy, or enhancing wettability through chemical bonding.

B. Chemical reactions at the interface:

Interface properties significantly influence overall composite performance. Load transfer across the interface determines strength and stiffness; ductility is affected by relaxation of peak stress near the interface, and toughness is undermined by interface reactions. Understanding reactions at the interface is essential when considering any MMC. During MMC processing, chemical reactions occur at the interface between the matrix and reinforcement in certain systems. The reaction's extent strongly influences physical and mechanical composite properties. Reaction products formed during processing may continue forming during service, resulting in either regular improvement or deterioration of properties.

IX. Reinforcement Distribution Challenges

A common challenge in MMC processing is reinforcement particle settling during melt holding or casting. This occurs due to density differences between reinforcement particles

and matrix alloy melt. Particle reinforcement distribution in matrix alloy is significantly influenced by three main stages: melt preparation, mold solidification, and continuous control to homogenize particle distribution.

X. Reinforcement distribution is influenced by several stages including

A. *Distribution in liquid as a result of mixing*

Distribution in liquid after mixing but before solidification Redistribution as a result of solidification The mechanical stirrer (usually used during melt preparation or holding), melt temperature, and the type, amount, and nature of particles represent key factors when investigating these phenomena. The vortex method represents one better- known approach for creating and maintaining good reinforcement distribution in matrix alloy. Porosity Formation in Composite Casting Porosity may result from improper reinforcement filling, causing gas occlusions, insufficient metal saturation, inappropriate filling of all reinforcement capillaries, and improper solidification processes. Composite structure porosity increases during formation but must not exceed the volume losses from cooling and solidifying the matrix. Therefore, maximum composite material porosity occurs in regions where composite matrix metal solidified last. Porosity levels must be minimized as this defect type can harm corrosion resistance. Generally, porosity arises from three causes:

- Gas entrapment during mixing
- Hydrogen evolution
- Shrinkage during solidification

Numerous methods minimize porosity, including:

- Casting under pressure
- Extensive inert gas bubbling through the melt
- Compocasting in vacuum
- Compressing and extruding
- Rolling materials after casting to close pores
- Degassing liquid aluminum alloy
- Effect of Processing Parameters on MMCs Fabricated by
- Stir Casting

For Al-based MMCs fabricated through stir casting, the following process parameters affect particle distribution and MMC properties:

- Processing temperature
- Holding time (stirring time)
- Stirring speed
- Impeller parameters

XI. Effect of Processing Temperature

Processing temperature primarily influences aluminum matrix viscosity and accelerates chemical reactions between components. Viscosity changes affect particle distribution in the aluminum matrix. At higher viscosity with lower temperature (below 800°C), geometric particle contacts are restricted by molten metal vortex, distributing particles uniformly within this range. However, at lower viscosity with higher temperature (above 800°C), particles are captured and restrained by the molten metal vortex. At lower viscosity, particles cluster in liquid matrix due to molten stirrer vortex, trapping gases inside the matrix. Processing temperature generally affects composite properties. Ultimate strength of Al-10increases, reaching maximum as processing temperature increases from 800°C to 900°C due to viscosity reduction, then decreases with further particle clustering at high temperatures.

XII. Effect of Holding Time

Holding time between matrix and reinforcement represents an important factor in composite processing. For Al-SiC(p) composites, holding time serves two purposes: distributing particles in liquid and creating a perfect interface bond. When holding time reaches 10 minutes, particles distribute uniformly in the matrix at the 700°C, 750°C, and 800°C temperature range, while particle velocity remains small. Similar results appear with a 20-minute holding time. With 30 minutes of holding time, liquid matrix has sufficient viscosity at lower temperatures (less than 800°C), but contact time between matrix and reinforcement grows too large. During this period, particles distribute uniformly in liquid matrix regions and unevenly through matrix regions. At higher temperatures (¿800°C), more particles cluster and appear in composite bars.

XIII. Effect of Stirring Speed

Vortex development due to stirring helps transfer particles into matrix melt as pressure differences between inner and outer surfaces draw particles into liquid melt surfaces. However, introducing particles from air to stirred melt sometimes introduces atmospheric air, requiring removal through proper degassing to prevent porosity in cast composites. At low stirrer speeds, vortex formation is minimal due to insufficient mechanical force to overcome melt viscosity. Consequently, particle entrapment in melt is less effective, and more particles become trapped. At higher stirring speeds, vortex formation becomes effective, allowing more SiC to be trapped. Stirring speed and time influence microstructure and composite hardness. Increasing stirring speed and time results in better particle distribution. However, beyond certain stirring speeds, properties degrade because most particles push toward crucible sides due to centrifugal force differences from inner to outer crucible sides.

XIV. Impeller Parameters

For Al MMC synthesis through impeller stirring, reinforcement is added to the vortex created by stirring melt with a mechanical device, most often a rotating impeller causing dispersoids to move along with fluids during mixing. To achieve uniform secondary ceramic particle suspension in liquid matrix metal (prerequisite for obtaining

optimal MMC properties), understanding impeller parameters is essential. In MMC synthesis through impeller stirring, parameters such as type, diameter, position, and width of impeller, as well as angle and number of blades, play crucial roles in reinforcement distribution.

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