



**The Thirds International Conference on
Computational Engineering and Intelligence
Systems- ICCEIS2025
November 21st to 23rd, 2025, Online**

PROCEEDINGS BOOK

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ISBN: 978-9969-9948-2-7

Dépôt légal: 9969-2025

Optimisation of the Photovoltaic System Performance Integrated with the Grid by Artificial Intelligence

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Abstract: This paper proposes an innovative approach to enhance the performance of grid-connected photovoltaic (PV) systems operating under variable weather conditions. The dynamic nature of atmospheric parameters poses significant challenges for conventional control methods, often reducing the efficiency and reliability of PV systems. To address this issue, we introduce an Adaptive Neuro-Fuzzy Inference System (ANFIS) based maximum power point tracking (MPPT) technique aimed at improving both PV system performance and overall system operation. Simulation results conducted in MATLAB/Simulink demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed MPPT in enhancing system performance. The method achieves superior tracking efficiency, with a convergence time of 0.02 s, an efficiency of 99.6%, and reduced oscillations compared to classical methods. A comparative analysis with other MPPT techniques further highlights the advantages of the proposed approach, including higher tracking accuracy and faster response times. According to IEEE standards for low-voltage grids, the obtained total harmonic distortion (THD) values are excellent, with the proposed method achieving only 2.35%. Comparative evaluations with conventional MPPT techniques confirm the superior performance of the hybrid approach in terms of tracking efficiency, stability, and rapid adaptation to dynamic changes.

Keywords: photovoltaic systems , MPPT, ANFIS , Grid, Optimisation.

1. INTRODUCTION

The decline of fossil fuel reserves, together with incidents in nuclear power plants, has heightened global concerns, particularly in developed nations. These factors have intensified environmental pollution and accelerated climate change, largely driven by the increase in carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gas emissions, primarily originating from fossil fuel combustion. In response to these ecological and energy-related challenges, attention has shifted toward renewable energy sources (RES) such as solar, wind, geothermal, tidal, and biomass energy [1-3].

PV systems provide clean and efficient energy and are widely used in grid connections. They are classified into single-stage and two-stage structures. In single-stage systems, the inverter manages both MPPT and power control, while in two-stage systems the DC–DC converter handles MPPT independently, allowing flexible PV configurations. This setup improves grid integration, simplifies control, and reduces system cost by minimizing the need for low-frequency transformers [4-5].

Several MPPT strategies have been studied, chosen for their simplicity, accuracy, cost, and computational effort. The most common are P&O-MPPT and Incremental Conductance INC-MPPT. In [6] compares the combination of PSO and FS-MPC with P&O method, highlighting faster convergence and fewer oscillations. The study also introduces a metaheuristic-based optimization of a fuzzy MPPT controller for standalone PV systems, showing superior performance under varying irradiance conditions and enhanced response time. In [7] The authors propose an enhanced P&O-PI MPPT controller based on a genetic algorithm (GA) for both fixed and dual-axis tracking grid-connected PV systems. Simulation results indicate improved performance, demonstrating the method's ability to rapidly boost energy extraction and overall efficiency. In [8], GA is used to optimize MPPT controllers for grid-connected PV systems. Results show that the fuzzy-PI controller outperforms the P&O-PI approach.

This research makes significant progress in enhancing the performance of photovoltaic (PV) systems and their grid integration through advanced control strategies. The proposed approach improves power quality and the overall performance of the grid-connected PV system by reducing oscillations, improving response time, and minimizing the THD.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the studied system and the proposed techniques, while Section 3 discusses the obtained results. Finally, the conclusion is presented in Section 4.

2. SYSTEM AND METHODS DESCRIPTION

The grid-connected photovoltaic system consists of a solar array that generates DC power, which is regulated through a Boost Converter with MPPT control. The output is then fed to a three-phase inverter that converts the DC into AC synchronized with the grid. To enhance power quality and minimize harmonics, filters are employed before the system is directly connected to the utility grid [9]. The parameters of this system are presented in Table 1.

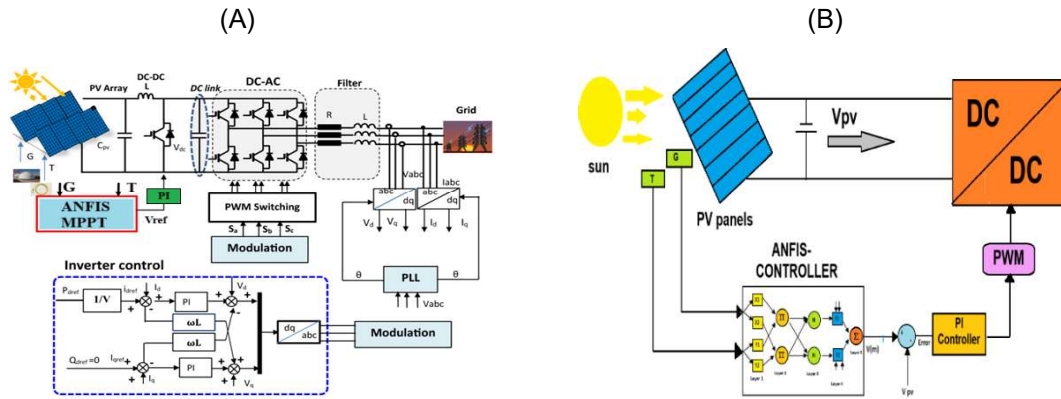


Fig. 1 Structer descreption of the system, (A) system studied ,(B) proposed MPPT.

ANFIS MPPT proposed

The proposed ANFIS-MPPT approach employs a zero-order Sugeno fuzzy model, selected for its computational efficiency in training while reducing complexity and execution time. The system takes solar irradiance and temperature as inputs, with the maximum voltage (V_m) serving as the output reference signal. A PI controller compares this reference with the actual PV voltage (V_{pv}), generating the control signal for the boost converter. ANFIS was trained using 1000 datasets derived from I–V and P–V characteristics of CS5C80M solar modules under varying conditions, based on simulations from real Canadian Solar measurements. Figure 1(B) illustrate the proposed MPPT structure.

3. SIMULATION RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To validate and evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed technique, simulations are carried out using MATLAB/Simulink under varying solar irradiance conditions. For performance assessment, the proposed approach is compared with other existing MPPT technique. Figure 2 (A) presents the solar irradiance profile adopted in this study.

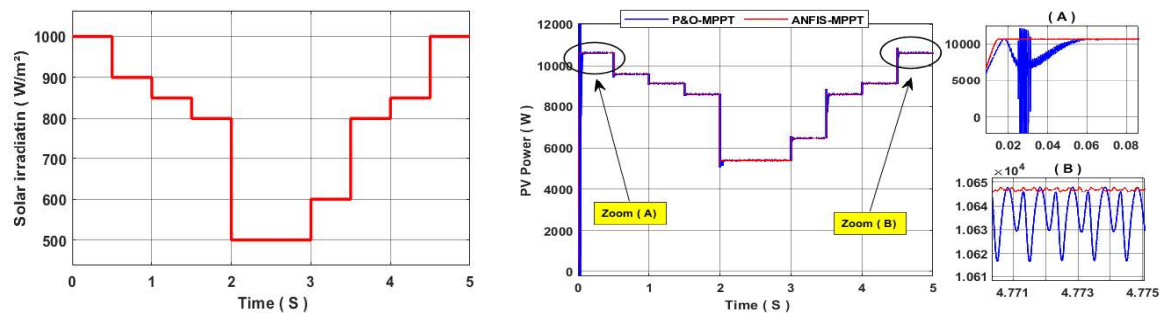


Fig. 2 Simulation results, (A) solar irradiation profil,(B) PV power proected.

Figure 2.(B) presents the simulation results of the photovoltaic (PV) system, where the system is operated under variable solar irradiance while maintaining a constant temperature of 25 °C. The P&O method is employed to enable a dynamic comparison with the proposed approach. As observed from the simulation outcomes, the P&O technique exhibits pronounced oscillations around the maximum power point (MPP) and demonstrates a relatively slow response time of 0.06 s with an overshoot of about 10%. In terms of efficiency, this method achieves a satisfactory performance of approximately 98%. In contrast, the proposed approach significantly enhances the system's performance by reducing the response time to less than 0.02 s, eliminating overshoot, and minimizing oscillations to the greatest extent. Furthermore, the energy conversion efficiency of the proposed method is estimated at around 99.6%. These findings clearly demonstrate that the proposed approach directly improves the performance of the PV system and enhances the quality of the generated power.

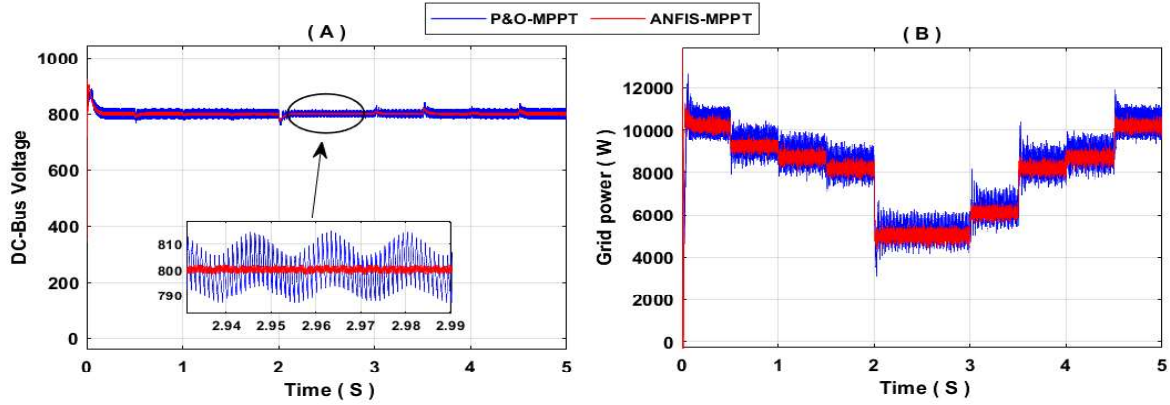


Fig. 1 Simulation results (A) DC-bus voltage, (B) Grid power .

Figure 3 illustrates the simulation results of the DC bus voltage and the power injected into the grid. The results clearly show that the proposed approach effectively reduces the oscillations in both the DC bus voltage and the injected power, in contrast to the behavior observed with the P&O technique. Moreover, the proposed method successfully decreases the overshoot and improves the voltage stability around the reference value of 800 V. These outcomes highlight the significant contribution of the proposed approach in enhancing the overall performance of the system.

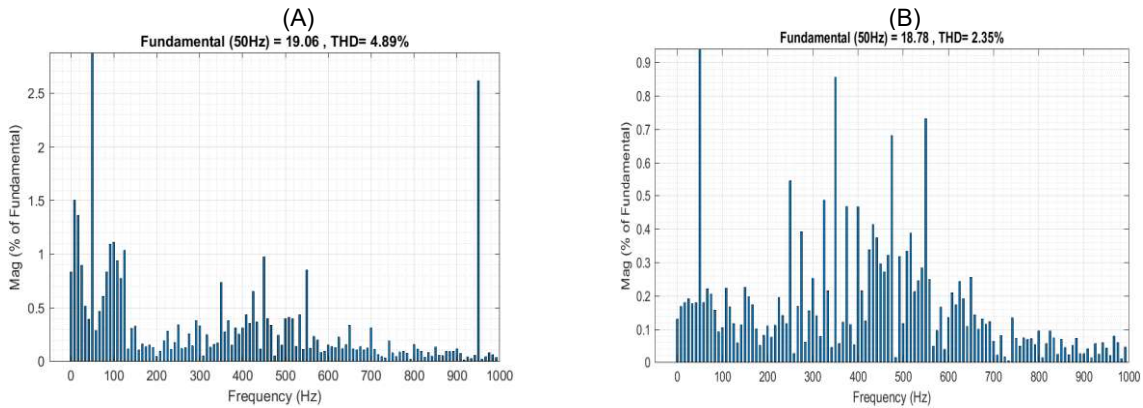


Fig. 4 Total harmonic distortion (THD) of the Current applying, (A) P&O-MPPT, (B) ANFIS proposed MPPT.

Figures 4(a) and 14(b) compare the harmonic performance of the proposed ANFIS-MPPT method with the conventional P&O algorithm. The ANFIS-MPPT achieves a very low THD of 2.35%, with a smooth sinusoidal waveform and minimal higher-order harmonics, ensuring superior power quality for grid-connected PV systems. In contrast, the P&O algorithm records a much higher THD of 4.89%, with significant distortion. Compared to recent studies reporting 2.54% THD, the proposed method demonstrates a substantial improvement, confirming its effectiveness in reducing harmonic distortion and enhancing overall system performance.

Table 1 The grid and PVS parameters

PV panel		Grid and DC-Link	
Parameter	Value	Parameter	Value
Maximum Power W	250.92	Boost inductance (L)	1.850 m F
Open circuit voltage Voc (V)	37.4	DC-link capacitor (Cdc)	0.000975 H
Short-circuit current Isc (A)	8.7	Grid resistance (Rg)	0.01Ω
Voltage at maximum power point Vmp(V)	30.6	Grid inductance (Lg)	0.001H
Current at maximum power point Imp (A)	8.2	Grid frequency	50 HZ

4. Conclusions

The proposed ANFIS-based MPPT technique offers a promising and innovative solution to enhance the overall performance of grid-connected photovoltaic systems operating under variable weather conditions. By leveraging intelligent control on the grid side, the system is dynamically optimized to achieve the best possible operating gains. Simulations were conducted using the MATLAB/Simulink environment. The results demonstrate that the proposed controller delivers superior performance in terms of tracking speed, accuracy, and efficiency, confirming its effectiveness. Specifically, the method achieves a significant improvement with a tracking efficiency of 99.6%, a response time of 0.02 s, and reduced oscillations compared to previous approaches. According to IEEE standards for low-voltage grids, the obtained THD is considerably low at 2.35%. Comparative analysis with conventional MPPT methods highlights the superior performance of the proposed approach, consistently showing enhanced tracking efficiency, faster response times, and improved stability under varying weather conditions. These findings emphasize the potential of the proposed technique to substantially increase the energy yield and reliability of PV systems, making it a viable and attractive solution for real-world renewable energy applications.

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Towards a Synergistic Paradigm: Engineering the Future with Integrated Computational Models, and Intelligent Systems

Synthesizing Computational Engineering and Intelligence Systems: The AI "ABCDE" Framework for Ecosystems Solutions

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Abstract: The Computational Engineering and Intelligent Systems have become foundational pillars of modern multidisciplinary engineering, achieving remarkable advancements over the past decade. These domains are transforming industries by improving efficiency, enabling predictive capabilities, and unlocking new opportunities across healthcare, biomedical sciences, finance, e-commerce, transportation, education, cybersecurity, robotics, renewable energy, and smart cities. Their integration signals a paradigm shift toward engineering solutions that are adaptive, autonomous, and data-driven.

Computational Engineering has advanced significantly through High-Performance Computing (HPC), parallel and distributed computing, advanced numerical algorithms, multiscale and multiphysics modeling, digital twin technology, and data-driven simulation frameworks. These developments provide the computational backbone for tackling large-scale and complex engineering challenges. To further consolidate this progress, this paper introduces the Engineering AI "ABCDE" framework, which outlines essential components for a unified systematic AI ecosystem. The framework highlights the role of Deep Learning (DL) as a transformative methodology, supported by models such as Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), Transformers, Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs), and Large Language Models (LLMs).

Prominent LLMs—including the GPT series, Google's Gemini, and Microsoft's Copilot—demonstrate groundbreaking capabilities in natural language understanding and generation. In addition, emerging paradigms such as Reinforcement Learning (RL), Computer Vision (CV), Natural Language Processing (NLP), Automated Machine Learning (AutoML), Explainable AI (XAI), and Edge AI are broadening both the scope and accessibility of engineering intelligence. In parallel, Intelligent systems integrate sensing, actuation, communication, and computational capabilities to interact autonomously with their environments. Recent innovations include Internet of Things (IoT) devices, advanced sensors and actuators, next-generation wireless communication (5G, Wi-Fi 6/7), cloud-edge integration, embedded AI/ML, wearable technologies, virtual assistants, and Cyber-Physical Systems (CPS). Together, these converging technologies are driving a new era of engineering innovation, where computation, intelligence, and system design work in synergy to create scalable, sustainable, and human-centered solutions that will define the technological and societal landscape of the future.

Keywords: *Artificial Intelligence, AI"ABCDE", High-Performance Computing (HPC), Deep Learning (DL), Machine Learning (ML), Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), Natural Language Processing (NLP), Large Language Models (LLMs), Automated Machine Learning (AutoML), Internet of Things (IoT), Cyber-Physical System (CPS).*

1. Introduction

The intersection of Computational Engineering and Intelligent Systems is at the forefront of innovation across science and engineering disciplines. In the era of big data, artificial intelligence (AI) and machine learning (ML) solutions are increasingly being applied across diverse engineering fields, such as manufacturing predictive maintenance, energy, transportation, healthcare, design, computer vision (CV), natural language processing (NLP), construction, robotics and automation, agriculture, materials science etc. The application of AI and ML in engineering domains is expected to revolutionize traditional practices, accelerating smarter, more efficient, and greener solutions [1]. However, the complexity and diversity of engineering problems necessitate the development of customized AI solutions to address specific challenges. The Engineering AI has emerged as a systematic discipline, bridging the gap between AI, ML and engineering requirements. The engineering AI("ABCDE") are identified. Beyond these elements, a structured ecosystem framework comprising eight essential layers is proposed to guide practitioners and researchers in developing robust and powerful engineering AI ecosystems with the new invention's applications.

2. The Computational Engineering in Artificial Intelligence and Intelligent Systems

CE is an emerging discipline that deals with the development and application of computational models CEM [2]. It uses advanced computational methods (e.g., simulations, numerical modeling, optimization) to solve engineering problems (e.g., fluid dynamics, structural analysis, materials, science). It's providing the mathematical and algorithmic backbone for simulating physical systems. Enables high-fidelity modeling of real-world phenomena (e.g., crash simulations, climate models). Supplies the "Data Generation" to train AI models where experimental data is scarce. Artificial intelligence is the capability of computational systems to perform tasks typically associated with human intelligence (e.g., machine learning ML, computer vision CV, natural language processing NLP). [3]

Enhances CE: AI accelerates simulations (e.g., using neural networks as surrogate models and optimizes designs), discovers patterns in complex data and provides the cognitive capabilities (e.g., prediction, classification, adaptation) that transform traditional systems into "Intelligent" ones. Intelligent system is a network of physical items connected by software, sensors, and other technologies to reacting quickly the human inputs and the environmental changes (e.g., autonomous vehicles, smart grids, robotic surgery). [4]

Integrate CE and AI and Intelligent System: Use CE for real-time physical modeling (e.g., sensor data fusion) and AI for decision-making (e.g., path planning for robots, drones).

Deploy intelligence: Operate autonomously, learn from data, and optimize performance (e.g., self-tuning industrial controllers) as shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Synergies of Computational Engineering, Artificial Intelligence and Smart Systems

Interaction	Example
CE → AI	Physics-based simulations generate synthetic data to train robust AI models.
AI → CE	AI-driven optimization reduces computation time for complex simulations.
CE + AI → Intelligent Systems	Autonomous drones (CE) + computer vision (AI) for obstacle avoidance.
Intelligent Systems → CE/AI	Real-world data from smart systems refines CE models and retrains AI.

Mathematically, Gradient is at the heart of many optimization algorithms used to train AI models, especially in machine learning ML and Deep Learning DL. In supervised learning, we often minimize a loss/Cost function using Gradient Descent Formula (Core of Many AI Models) θ , where the Nabla operator is the gradient of the loss with respect to model parameters, Equation (1):

$$\nabla_{\theta} L(\theta) = \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta_1}, \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta_2}, \dots, \frac{\partial L}{\partial \theta_n} \right] \quad (1)$$

θ : Model parameters (weights, biases) $L(\theta)$: Loss function, ∇_{θ} : Gradient vector

This gradient is used to update parameters: $\theta \leftarrow \theta - \eta \cdot \nabla_{\theta} L(\theta)$, Where η is the learning rate.

The Nabla symbol ∇ is widely used machine learning, deep learning, and AI, especially in gradient-based optimization in order to obtain the best result for the applications of Smart Systems. Different variants of gradient descent (Batch Gradient Descent BGD, Stochastic Gradient Descent SGD, Mini-Batch Gradient Descent MBGD) use this core principle, but differ in how many data points are used to compute the gradient in each step. [5]

3. The Engineering AI Ecosystem and their Applications

The foundational components of engineering AI can be categorized into the "ABCDE" as shown in Fig 1, where the first three components—Algorithm, Big Data, and Computing Power—form the key elements of AI technology. (A. *Algorithm*) represents advanced AI and ML methods, (B. *Big Data*) involves collection, storage, and processing of engineering-specific data, and (C. *Computing*) refers to state-of-the-art computational infrastructure, including high-performance chips and cloud resources. Together, these elements build the foundation for AI-driven tasks in engineering. Beyond these "ABC" components, the "DE" pairs extend into three key paths: (AI+) Infrastructure, (×AI) Platform, and ((+AI) Product. 1) (AI+) Infrastructure path emphasizes physical and energy systems, with (D.1 Data Center) supporting AI computation and data storage, and (E.1 Electricity) powering AI infrastructure. 2) (×AI) Platform path focuses on industrial domain knowledge (D.2 Domain) and AI-enabled ecosystems (E.2 Ecosystem) development to create AI solutions for different engineering domains. 3) the (+AI) Product path bridges AI-powered devices (D.3 Device) with edge computing environments (E.3 Edge) to enable real-time processing and decision-making near the data source. While the ABC components form the core technological foundation required to develop AI systems, they influence each other dynamically. Advances in algorithms require greater computing power and more diverse data, while computational innovation and large amounts of domain-specific data drive the development of new algorithms. The DE components define where and how AI technologies enabled by ABC components are deployed and utilized. These paths define the practical landscape for engineering AI, where each path contributes a distinct role: enabling computation and energy support (Data Center, Electricity), integrating domain knowledge and ecosystems (Domain, Ecosystem), and deploying intelligent, embedded applications at the edge (Device, Edge). [6]

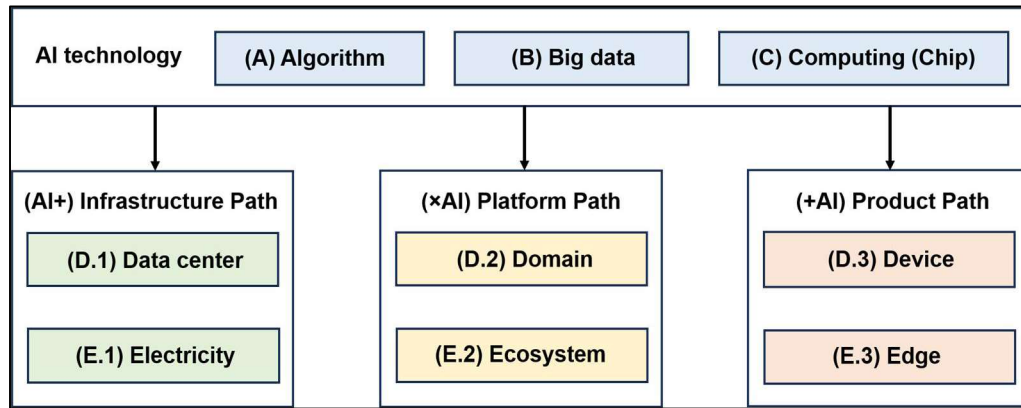


Fig 1: Key Elements in Engineering AI: ABCDE

3.1. Conceptual Framework for Engineering Artificial Intelligence Ecosystem

Conceptual Framework for Engineering Artificial Intelligence Ecosystem Fig 2 shows the proposed Engineering AI Ecosystem, which serves as a comprehensive guideline for designing, deploying, and refining AI solutions across different engineering domains. This framework provides practitioners with a systematic approach to strategizing the development and implementation of engineering AI systems. It comprises eight essential layers: "Problem identification layer", "AI infrastructure layer", "AI model development layer", "Data foundation layer", "Knowledge integration layer", "Explainability & trustworthiness layer", "Evaluation & feedback layer", and "Deployment & integration layers". These layers collectively ensure that future engineering AI systems are autonomous, collaborative, explainable, resilient, and scalable (key attributes), ultimately achieving zero accidents, zero downtime, zero waste, zero pollution, and zero defects. A detailed explanation of each layer is provided below.

3.1.1. Problem identification layer

The problem identification layer is the first step in the engineering AI ecosystem. This layer concentrates on defining the specific engineering problem that the AI system aims to address. It involves: (1) understanding the purpose and scope of the problem; (2) identifying technical constraints, pain points, potential challenges, and desired outcomes; (3) collaborating and conducting a detailed analysis to get insights. Ultimately, practitioners will be confident in using AI and ML techniques to solve the problem through subsequent layers.

3.1.2. AI infrastructure layer

The AI infrastructure layer, acting as the backbone of the conceptual framework, provides necessary hardware, software, and networking resources to support AI development and deployment. On the hardware side, this includes compute resources such as CPUs, GPUs, TPUs, cloud computing services, servers, and IoT devices. It also involves storage solutions, including high-speed storage, distributed file systems, and databases for efficient data storage and management. On the software side, the infrastructure supports various AI frameworks (e.g., TensorFlow, PyTorch), libraries (e.g., Scikit-learn), and development tools (e.g., Jupyter, Google Colab) to facilitate data processing and model development. Additionally, networking resources ensure efficient communication between components and seamless data exchange across systems. Practitioners should select appropriate platforms and resources based on their specific problem requirements to optimize cost, time, and efficiency.

3.1.3. Data foundation layer

The data foundation layer, a necessary prerequisite for the "AI model development layer", involves the entire process of data collection, storage, management, and analysis, resulting in high-quality datasets suitable for AI applications [7].

After data acquisition, which is supported by the "AI infrastructure layer", this layer performs preprocessing tasks such as cleaning, handling missing values, normalization, and other necessary transformations, while ensuring data quality and sufficiency for subsequent stages.

If required, the data is further annotated with domain-specific labels to enhance its applicability to engineering problems. Ultimately, this layer aims to produce useful and usable data that is well-prepared for downstream processes, enabling efficient and accurate AI model development.

3.1.4. Knowledge integration layer

This layer ensures that domain expertise is integrated into AI models and workflows. This requires a systematic exploration and development of storage, retrieval, sharing, and application of knowledge [7].

By embedding engineering principles, rules, and domain-specific knowledge into AI model development, this layer enhances the understanding of complex engineering problems and minimizes potential oversights, thereby improving model accuracy, reliability, and relevance to real-world engineering scenarios. Representative techniques include ontology-based modeling, rule-based reasoning systems, knowledge graph construction, and the use of large language models for information retrieval and summarization.

3.1.5. Explainability & trustworthiness layer

When developing AI models, explainability and trustworthiness are as critical as high model performance in engineering domains. The black-box nature of deep neural networks often raises concerns about how models make predictions, why they make certain decisions, and the reliability of those outcomes.

To address these challenges, this layer focuses on two key areas: developing explainable AI (XAI) techniques such as Local Interpretable Model-agnostic Explanations (LIME), and SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP) values, to clarify model decision-making processes and underlying reasoning, and leveraging uncertainty quantification or probabilistic machine learning methods to handle prediction uncertainties and enhance model reliability [8].

3.1.6. AI model development layer

This layer is the heart of the ecosystem framework, supported by "Data foundation layer", "Knowledge integration layer", and "Explainability & trustworthiness layer", which focus on designing, training, and validating AI models for specific engineering tasks.

It involves: (1) selecting suitable AI and ML techniques; (2) developing and optimizing novel algorithms or architectures; (3) training and validating models using engineering benchmarks or real-world data; and (4) managing the AI model lifecycle, including deployment, monitoring, updating, and retraining [9].

A wide range of ML algorithms can be applied in engineering domains, including traditional machine learning algorithms such as tree-based, clustering-based methods and support vector machine, as well as deep learning architectures including convolutional neural networks (CNNs), recurrent neural networks (RNNs), transformers, and their variants, implemented using platforms like PyTorch and TensorFlow [10].

3.1.7. Evaluation & feedback layer

Before AI solutions are implemented in existing engineering systems, the "Evaluation & feedback layer," as a supplement to the "AI model development layer," focuses on the continuous assessment and refinement of AI solutions [11]. This involves evaluating models using standard performance metrics to identify areas for improvement and, when necessary, developing specialized metrics for specific problems to enhance model accuracy. Additionally, feedback from users and domain experts is collected to further refine AI models.

3.1.8. Evaluation & feedback layer

Before AI solutions are implemented in existing engineering systems, the "Evaluation & feedback layer," as a supplement to the "AI model development layer," focuses on the continuous assessment and refinement of AI solutions [11]. This involves evaluating models using standard performance metrics to identify areas for improvement and, when necessary, developing specialized metrics for specific problems to enhance model accuracy. Additionally, feedback from users and domain experts is collected to further refine AI models.

3.1.9. Deployment & integration layer

The last layer is to deploy AI solutions within existing engineering systems, ensuring seamless integration with current workflows and technologies. It also involves monitoring AI model performance post-deployment, as well as refining and optimizing the models in a timely manner to enhance model performance and operational efficiency [12].

Overall, these layers are interconnected rather than strictly sequential. The process begins with problem identification, along with the foundational support provided by the AI infrastructure layer. At the core of the framework is the AI model development layer, which is directly enabled by the proposed conceptual framework can be applied to diverse engineering fields, including manufacturing, energy, transportation, healthcare, design, computer vision, natural language processing, construction, robotics, mining, agriculture, materials, and bioengineering. data foundation, knowledge integration, and explainability & trustworthiness layers.

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These supporting layers enrich the modeling process with high-quality data, domain expertise, and interpretability mechanisms. Following model development, the evaluation & feedback layer facilitates iterative refinement by monitoring performance and incorporating feedback from both users and real-world deployment results. Finally, the deployment & integration layer ensures that validated AI models are embedded into real-world engineering systems.

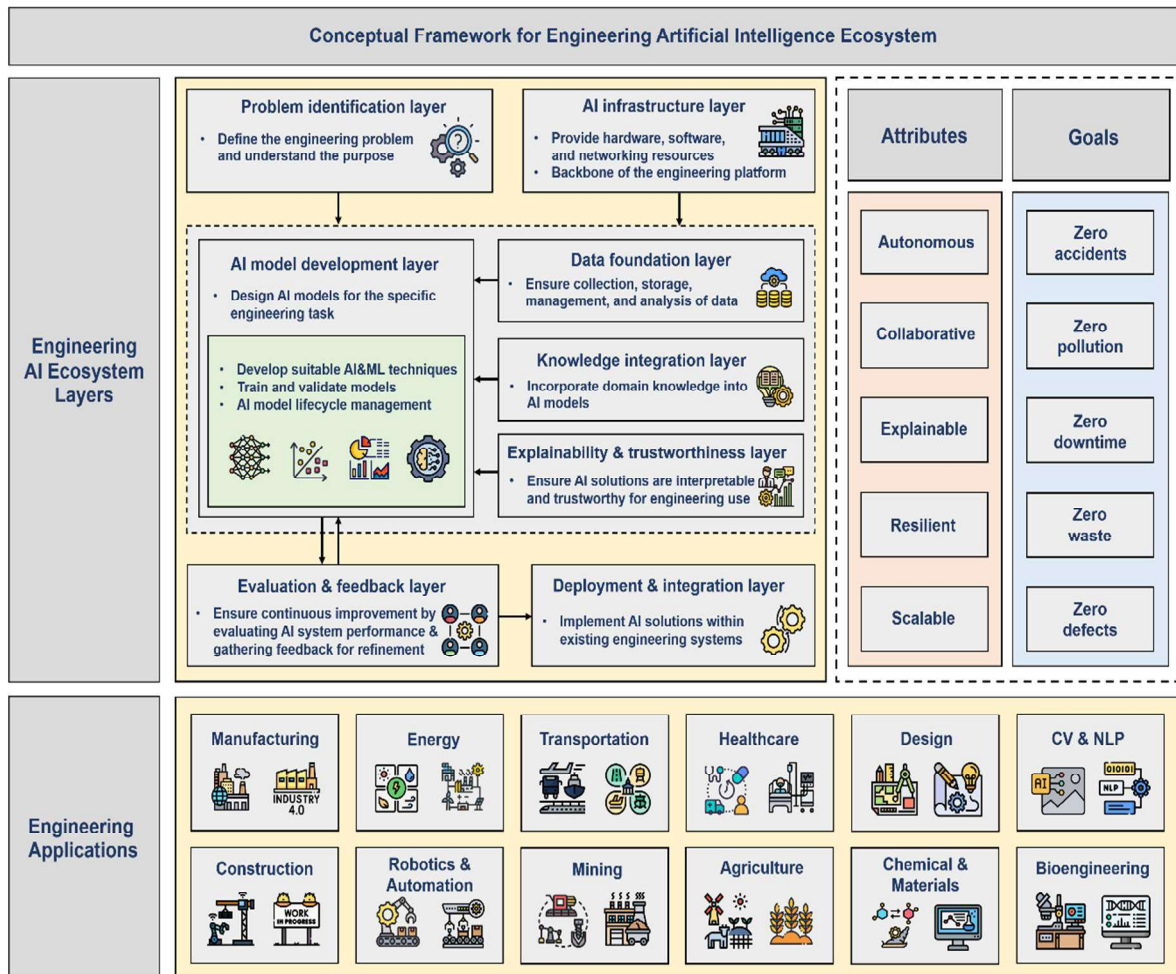


Fig 2: Conceptual Framework for Engineering Artificial Intelligence Ecosystem.

4. Conclusion:

Computational Engineering, Artificial Intelligence, and Intelligent Systems together represent a transformative paradigm in modern engineering. By integrating computer science, applied mathematics, and domain-specific expertise, these fields enable advanced modeling, simulation, and optimization of complex phenomena while fostering innovation across diverse industries. Intelligent systems, driven by AI and adaptive technologies, extend these capabilities by creating responsive, autonomous, and sustainable solutions that can sense, learn, and evolve within their environments.

The multidisciplinary nature of this field ensures a broad spectrum of applications, ranging from medicine, biomedical systems and climate modeling to cybersecurity, robotics, agriculture and renewable energy. Ultimately, the synergy between Computational Engineering and Intelligent Systems will continue to push the boundaries of what is possible, paving the way for future advancements in science, technology, and society. As AI and ML continue to redefine technological boundaries, there is an urgent need to systematically develop AI solutions in various engineering domains to maximize their impact. This paper identifies the foundational "ABCDE" elements of Engineering AI, proposes a comprehensive conceptual framework for the engineering AI ecosystem, discusses key challenges, and highlights future directions.

The use of Advance AI systems and different Chatbot systems developed the platforms of researches that help the humanity in every domain even the science itself.

In conclusion, this work offers a unified and structured pathway for practitioners to implement AI solutions effectively across diverse engineering fields.

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Enhancing EEG-Based Biometric Authentication through Deep Learning and XGBoost-Based Feature Fusion

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Abstract: Electroencephalography (EEG) signals have emerged as a promising biometric modality due to their uniqueness and resistance to spoofing. This work presents an enhanced EEG-based authentication framework that integrates deep learning with handcrafted feature analysis and advanced fusion. We process EEG data obtained from a public dataset recorded by the Swartz Center for Computational Neuroscience at UC San Diego. After filtering and segmentation, we generate subject pairs representing genuine and imposter attempts. Each pair is processed through multiple models: a deep autoencoder, a convolutional and recurrent neural network for raw and wavelet-transformed signals, and a support vector machine for statistical features. The outputs of these base classifiers are combined using an XGBoost meta-classifier, which captures complex interactions between models to improve decision accuracy. The proposed method achieves an authentication accuracy of 98 percent, outperforming individual classifiers and previous fusion strategies. Additional evaluation with Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curves, Equal Error Rate (EER), and False Acceptance and Rejection Rates demonstrates the robustness of the approach. These results confirm the effectiveness of combining diverse EEG feature representations within an advanced ensemble framework for secure identity verification.

Keywords: Electroencephalography, biometric authentication, deep learning, feature fusion, XGBoost, convolutional neural network, wavelet transform, statistical features

1. INTRODUCTION

Biometric authentication systems play a crucial role in securing digital environments and personal devices [1, 3]. Conventional approaches based on fingerprints, facial recognition, or iris scans are widely deployed, but they face limitations such as vulnerability to spoofing and susceptibility to replication attacks [4-6]. These challenges have driven researchers to explore alternative biometric traits that are more secure and inherently resistant to forgery.

Electroencephalography (EEG), which records the electrical activity of the brain, offers a promising solution [7-9]. EEG patterns are unique to each individual and influenced by complex neural processes, making them extremely difficult to imitate [10, 11]. In addition, EEG signals can support continuous authentication, which enhances security in dynamic scenarios [8, 12].

Recent progress in machine learning and signal processing has significantly advanced the development of EEG-based authentication systems. Deep learning models have shown strong capabilities in extracting discriminative features from raw EEG data, while handcrafted statistical descriptors provide complementary information about signal distribution and frequency content [13-16]. However, the challenge lies in effectively combining these heterogeneous feature sets to exploit their full potential. Basic fusion strategies, such as simple averaging or logistic regression, often fail to capture the non-linear interactions between model predictions, which can limit overall system performance.

In this study, we propose an enhanced authentication framework that integrates deep neural representations with handcrafted statistical features and multi-resolution wavelet analysis. The novelty of this work lies in the fusion strategy. Instead of using traditional linear approaches, we adopt an XGBoost-based meta-classifier to combine the outputs of multiple base models. XGBoost, a gradient boosting algorithm, is well-suited for modeling complex decision boundaries and interactions among features. By leveraging this advanced fusion method, our framework achieves higher accuracy and robustness compared to individual models and previous ensemble techniques. The effectiveness of the proposed method is validated on a publicly available EEG

dataset recorded by the Swartz Center for Computational Neuroscience, and its performance is assessed using multiple evaluation metrics, including accuracy, Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) analysis, and Equal Error Rate (EER) [17-19].

2. METHOD

The proposed authentication framework consists of four main stages: EEG signal preprocessing, subject pairing for authentication, feature extraction with base model training, and meta-modeling using XGBoost for decision fusion. The overall workflow is illustrated in Fig. 1.

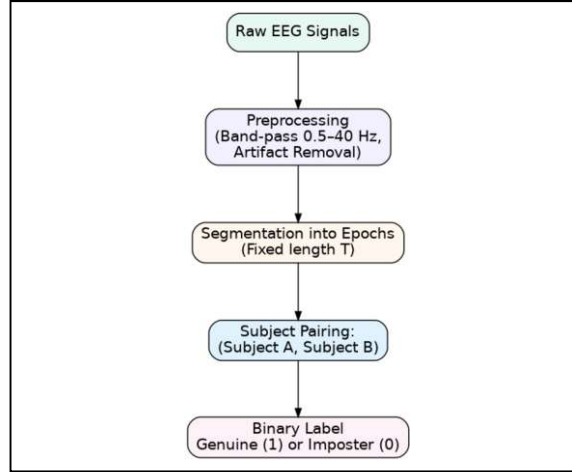


Fig. 1 EEG data preprocessing and pairing workflow.

Preprocessing and Data Segmentation

Raw EEG recordings often contain artifacts and noise originating from eye movements, muscle activity, or external interference. To improve signal quality, a band-pass filter between 0.5 and 40 Hz is applied to each EEG channel, removing baseline drift and high-frequency noise. The filtered signals are then divided into non-overlapping epochs of fixed duration T seconds, producing uniform time windows suitable for analysis. The dataset is randomly partitioned into training (80%), validation for fusion (10%), and testing (10%) sets to ensure balanced evaluation.

Subject Pairing for Binary Classification

To transform the authentication task into a binary decision problem, we generate pairs of EEG segments. Each pair consists of data from two different subjects: one representing the genuine user and the other acting as an imposter. For each pair, a binary label is assigned: 1 if the first subject is genuine and 0 otherwise. This pairing strategy captures intra-subject and inter-subject variability, which is essential for robust authentication.

Feature Extraction and Base Models

Different feature representations are derived from each subject pair to exploit complementary signal characteristics:

- **Deep Autoencoder Embeddings:** A neural autoencoder is trained to learn compact representations of EEG signals by minimizing the reconstruction error between the input and its decoded output. The encoded feature vector captures latent structures and temporal dependencies in the data.
- **CNN-LSTM on Raw and Wavelet-Transformed Signals:** For sequential modeling, a combined convolutional and recurrent neural network processes both raw EEG epochs and their multi-resolution wavelet decompositions. Wavelet transforms provide localized frequency information, which is crucial for identifying subject-specific patterns across different frequency bands.
- **Handcrafted Statistical Features:** To complement deep features, we compute descriptive statistics from EEG epochs, including mean, variance, skewness, kurtosis, power spectral density, inter-hemispheric power differences, and correlations. These features are classified using a support vector machine.

Each of these models produces a probability score indicating whether the input pair corresponds to a genuine authentication attempt. Fig. 2 illustrates the feature extraction pipeline and the base model architectures.

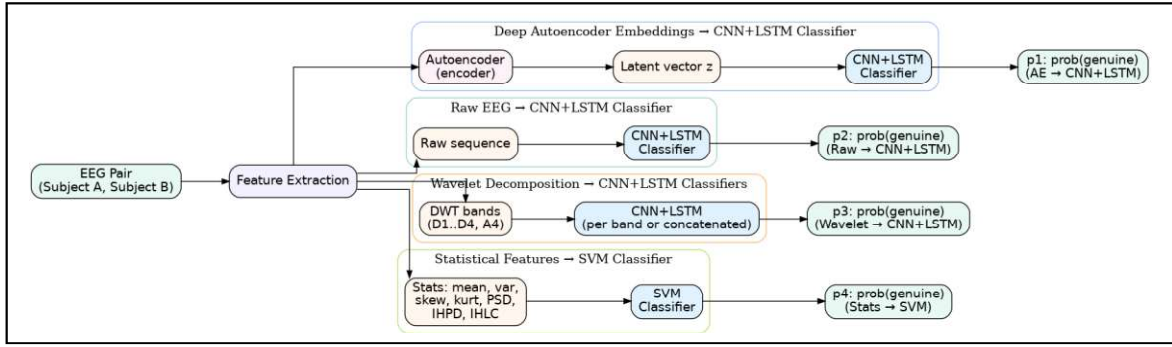


Fig. 2 Feature extraction and base classifiers.

XGBoost-Based Meta-Modeling

The final decision is made by fusing the outputs of all base models using an XGBoost meta-classifier. Each base classifier generates a prediction probability, and these probabilities are concatenated into a feature vector representing the combined evidence from all models. XGBoost then constructs an ensemble of decision trees through gradient boosting, iteratively minimizing the classification error by correcting residuals at each step. This approach captures complex non-linear relationships between base model outputs, enabling the meta-classifier to leverage complementary strengths and reduce individual weaknesses.

The training of the meta-model is performed on the validation subset to prevent overfitting. During inference, the base models produce their outputs for an unseen pair, which are then fed to the XGBoost model for the final authentication decision. The complete meta-modeling process is depicted in Fig. 3.

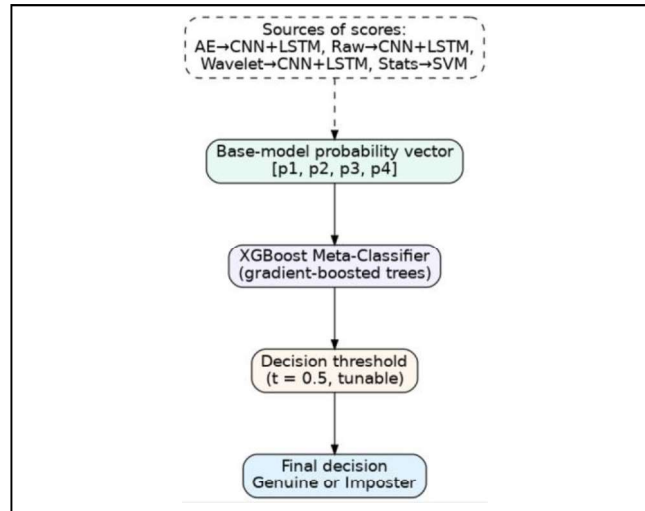


Fig. 3 XGBoost meta-fusion.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The proposed framework was evaluated on a publicly available EEG dataset from the Swartz Center for Computational Neuroscience. The dataset includes multiple subjects performing various tasks, and signals were recorded using standard EEG channels. After preprocessing and segmentation (Fig. 1), the data were divided into training, validation, and test sets as described in Section 2. To ensure fairness, subject identities in the test set were not used during training or meta-model tuning.

Performance of Base Models

We first assessed the performance of individual base classifiers described in Fig. 2. The CNN-LSTM model applied to raw EEG segments achieved an accuracy of 88.1 percent, while the same architecture applied to wavelet-decomposed signals provided better results, reaching 94.5 percent on high-frequency bands. The autoencoder embeddings followed by CNN-LSTM reached 77.3 percent, showing that while dimensionality reduction captures structural

information, it benefits from feature injection for better discrimination. The SVM trained on handcrafted statistical descriptors achieved 92.2 percent accuracy, confirming that statistical characteristics of EEG signals remain highly informative for user authentication.

Effectiveness of XGBoost-Based Fusion

The outputs of all base models were combined using the XGBoost meta-classifier shown in Fig. 3. This advanced fusion method significantly improved classification accuracy compared to any individual model and also outperformed the previous logistic regression approach. The proposed fusion strategy achieved an overall accuracy of 98 percent on the test set.

Fig. 3 illustrates how the probability scores from different models are aggregated into a feature vector and processed by gradient-boosted trees, allowing the system to capture non-linear dependencies among base classifiers. This flexibility provides a substantial advantage over linear fusion, where such interactions are ignored.

Additional Evaluation Metrics

Beyond accuracy, we evaluated the system using metrics commonly adopted in biometric authentication, including Equal Error Rate (EER), False Acceptance Rate (FAR), and False Rejection Rate (FRR). The proposed method achieved an EER of 1.7 percent, a FAR of 1.3 percent, and an FRR of 2.1 percent. These values indicate strong robustness against both genuine rejection and imposter acceptance. The Receiver Operating Characteristic (ROC) curve, shown in Fig. 4, demonstrates a high Area Under Curve (AUC) value of 0.98, confirming the discriminative capability of the proposed model.

Discussion

The results suggest that combining multiple feature representations within an advanced ensemble framework significantly enhances authentication reliability. Classical statistical descriptors provided a strong baseline, but integrating deep-learning-based temporal models and wavelet-domain features captured complementary aspects of EEG dynamics. The XGBoost meta-classifier further improved performance by modeling complex decision boundaries, reducing the limitations of linear fusion strategies.

However, the approach has computational demands due to multiple deep learning models operating in parallel. While this is acceptable for server-side authentication, further work is needed to optimize execution for embedded and low-power systems. Future research should also address inter-session variability and explore privacy-preserving techniques such as secure feature encryption.

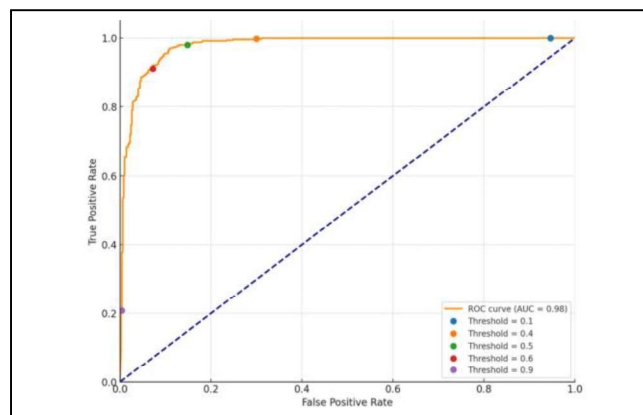


Fig. 4 ROC Curve for EEG Authentication System.

4. CONCLUSION

This paper presented an enhanced EEG-based biometric authentication framework that integrates deep learning, handcrafted statistical features, and multi-resolution wavelet analysis within an ensemble strategy. The novelty of this work lies in the use of an XGBoost meta-classifier to fuse the outputs of multiple base models, replacing the conventional linear fusion used in earlier approaches. The experimental evaluation showed that while individual models capture different aspects of EEG dynamics, their combination through XGBoost provided a significant improvement, achieving an overall accuracy of 98 percent with an Equal Error Rate of 1.7 percent and an AUC of 0.98.

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The results demonstrate that EEG signals contain highly discriminative patterns that can be effectively exploited for secure and robust authentication. By combining deep neural representations with classical statistical descriptors and wavelet-based features, the system benefits from complementary information sources that strengthen its reliability against imposters.

Despite these promising outcomes, the computational complexity of running several deep learning models in parallel remains a challenge for real-time deployment on lightweight devices. Future work will focus on optimizing the framework for embedded platforms, exploring privacy-preserving mechanisms for EEG data protection, and extending the study to cross-session scenarios where EEG patterns may vary over time. These directions will be crucial for moving from laboratory evaluation toward practical, secure brain-based authentication systems.

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Polar Frequency Analysis Features Studies Based ICA-Faces Biometrics Authentication Systems

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Abstract—Face recognition has long been a goal of computer vision, but only in recent years reliable automated face recognition has become a realistic target of biometrics research. In this paper the contribution of classifier analysis to the Face Biometrics Verification performance is examined. It refers to the paradigm that in classification tasks, the use of multiple observations and their judicious fusion at the data, hence the decision fusions at different levels improve the correct decision performance. The fusion tasks reported in this work were carried through fusion of two well-known face recognizers, ICA I and ICA II. It incorporates the decision at matching score level, a novel fusion strategy is employed; the Likelihood Ratio Fusion within scores. This strategy increases the accuracy of the face recognition system and at the same time reduces the limitations of individual recognizer. The performances of the analysis studies were tested based Indian face database (IFD2002) and the simulation results are showed significant performance achievements.

Keywords—Classifier; Fusion; Biometrics; Face Verification; PCA; LDA; ICA; Polar Frequency Analysis; Likelihood Parameter Estimate.

I. INTRODUCTION

BIO-METRIC: A stemming composite word synthesis of bio and metric, a body measurements and calculations related to human characteristics and features, the science of biometrics is concerned with the accurate measurement of unique biological characteristics of an individual in order to securely identify them to a computer or other electronic system. Biological characteristics measured usually include fingerprints, voice patterns, retinal and iris scans, face patterns, and even the chemical composition of an individual's DNA. Biometric Authentication (BA) is generally acknowledged as providing a high-level of protection because it is hard to steal or transfer biological material or features from one user to another. Biometrics authentication (*Am I whom I claim I am?*) involves confirming or denying a person's *claimed identity* based on his/her physiological or behavioral characteristics. BA is becoming an important alternative to traditional authentication methods such as keys ("something one has", i.e., by possession) or PIN numbers ("something one knows", i.e., by knowledge) because it is essentially "who one is", i.e., by biometric information. Therefore, it is not susceptible to misplacement or forgetfulness [1][2][3].

These biometric systems for personal authentication and identification are based upon physiological or behavioral features which are typically distinctive, although time varying, such as fingerprints, hand geometry, face, voice, lip movement, gait, and iris patterns. Multi-biometric systems, which consolidate information from multiple biometric sources, are gaining popularity because they are able to overcome limitations such as non-universality, noisy

sensor data, large intra-user variations and susceptibility to spoof attacks that are commonly encountered in mono-biometric systems.

The ultimate goal of designing pattern recognition systems is to achieve the best possible classification performance for the task at hand. This objective traditionally led to the development of different classification schemes for any pattern recognition problem to be solved. The results of an experimental assessment of the different designs would then be the basis for choosing one of the classifiers as a final solution to the problem. It had been observed in such design studies, that although one of the designs would yield the best performance, the sets of patterns misclassified by the different classifiers would not necessarily overlap. This suggested that different classifier designs potentially offered complementary information about the patterns to be classified which could be harnessed to improve the performance of the selected classifier.

On the other hand, the appearance-based approach, such as PCA, LDA and ICA based methods, has been significantly advanced face recognition techniques. Such an approach generally operates directly on an image-based representation. It extracts features into a subspace derived from training images. In addition those linear methods can be extended using nonlinear kernel techniques to deal with nonlinearity in face recognition. Although the kernel methods may achieve good performance on the training data, it may not be so for unseen data owing this to their higher flexibility than linear methods and a possibility of over fitting therefore.

This paper proposes a system which analyses face biometrics verification systems using ICA I and ICA II recognizers, based Indian face database (IFD2002). These two recognizers are capable of considering the problem of dimensionality by eliminating redundant features and reducing the feature space. The system can handle variations (illumination, pose, etc.) up to a significant level. The integrated system can overcome the drawbacks of individual recognizers.

II. BIOMETRICS FACE RECOGNITION

Face recognition, authentication and identification are often confused. Face recognition is a general topic that includes both face identification and face authentication (also called verification). On one hand, face authentication is concerned with validating a claimed identity based on the image of a face, and either accepting or rejecting the identity claim (one-to-one matching). On the other hand, the goal of face identification is to identify a person based on the image of a face. This face image has to be compared with all the registered persons (one-to-many matching). Thus, the key issue in face recognition is to extract the meaningful features that characterize a human face. Hence there are two major tasks for that: Face detection and face verification.

II.1 Face Detection

Face detection is concerned with finding whether or not there are any faces in a given image (usually in gray scale) and, if present, return the image location and content of each face. This is the first step of any fully automatic system that analyzes the information contained in faces (e.g., identity, gender, expression, age, race and pose). While earlier work dealt mainly with upright frontal faces, several systems have been developed that are able to detect faces fairly accurately with in-plane or out-of-plane rotations in real time. For biometric systems that use faces as non-intrusive input modules, it is imperative to locate faces in a scene before any recognition algorithm can be applied. An intelligent vision based user interface should be able to tell the attention focus of the user (i.e., where the user is looking at) in order to respond accordingly. To detect facial features accurately for applications such as digital cosmetics, faces need to be located and registered first to facilitate further processing. It is evident that face detection plays an important and critical role for the success of any face processing systems.

On the results presented on this paper only size normalization of the extracted faces was used. All face images were resized to 130x150 pixels, applying a bi-cubic interpolation. After this stage, it is also developed a position correction algorithm based on detecting the eyes into the face and applying a rotation and resize to align the eyes of all pictures in the same coordinates. The face detection and segmentation tasks presented in this paper was performed based on 'Face analysis in Polar Frequency Domain' proposed by Yossi Z. et al. [5]. First it extracts the Fourier-Bessel (FB) coefficients from the images. Next, it computes the Cartesian distance between all the Fourier-Bessel transformation (FBT) representations and re-defines each object by its distance to all other objects. Images were transformed by a FBT up to the 30th Bessel order and 6th root with angular resolution of 3°, thus obtaining to 372 coefficients. These coefficients correspond to a frequency range of up to 30 and 3 cycles/image of angular and radial frequency, respectively.

Polar Frequency Analysis:

The FB series is useful to describe the radial and angular components in images [5]. FBT analysis starts by converting the coordinates of a region of interest from Cartesian (x, y) to polar (r, θ). The $f(r, \theta)$ function is represented by the two-dimensional FB series, defined as:

$$f(r, \theta) = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} A_{n,i} J_n(\alpha_{n,i} r) \cos(n\theta) + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} B_{n,i} J_n(\alpha_{n,i} r) \sin(n\theta) \quad (1)$$

Where J_n is the Bessel function of order n , $f(R, \theta) = 0$ and $0 \leq r \leq R$. $\alpha_{n,i}$ is the i^{th} root of the J_n function, i.e. the zero crossing value satisfying $J_n(\alpha_{n,i}) = 0$ is the radial distance to the edge of the image. The orthogonal coefficients $A_{n,i}$ and $B_{n,i}$ are given by:

$$A_{0,i} = \frac{1}{\pi R^2 J_1^2(\alpha_{0,i})} \int_{\theta=0}^{\theta=2\pi} \int_{r=0}^{r=R} f(r, \theta) r J_0\left(\frac{\alpha_{0,i} r}{R}\right) dr d\theta \quad (2)$$

$$\text{if } B_{0,i} = 0 \text{ and } n = 0;$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} A_{n,i} \\ B_{n,i} \end{bmatrix} = \frac{2}{\pi R^2 J_{n+1}^2(\alpha_{n,i})} \int_{\theta=0}^{\theta=2\pi} \int_{r=0}^{r=R} f(r, \theta) r J_n\left(\frac{\alpha_{n,i} r}{R}\right) \begin{bmatrix} \cos(n\theta) \\ \sin(n\theta) \end{bmatrix} dr d\theta \quad (3)$$

$$\text{if } n > 0.$$

An alternative method to polar frequency analysis is to represent images by polar Fourier transform descriptors. The polar Fourier transform is a well-known mathematical operation where, after converting the image coordinates from Cartesian to polar, as described above; a conventional Fourier transformation is applied. These descriptors are directly related to radial and angular components, but are not identical to the coefficients extracted by the FBT.

II.2 Face Verification

Feature Extraction

Independent Component Analysis (ICA)

Independent component analysis (ICA) [6][7][8][9] is a statistical method for linear transforming an observed multidimensional random vector X into a random vector Y whose components are stochastically as independent from each other as possible. Several procedures to find such transformations have been recently developed in the signal processing literature relying either on Comon's [10] information-theoretic approach or Hyvärinen's maximum negentropy approach [11]. The basic goal of ICA is to find a representation $Y = MX$ (M not necessarily a square matrix) in which the transformed components Y_i are the least statistically dependent. ICA leads to meaningful results whenever the probability distribution of X is far from Gaussian and this is the case that we are interested in this paper. For the face recognition task were proposed two different architectures: Architecture I - has statistically independent basis images (ICA I) and Architecture II assumes that the sources are independent coefficients (ICA II). These coefficients give the factorial code representation. The Architecture I provide a more localized representation for faces, while ICA Architecture II, like PCA in a sense, provides a more holistic representation. ICA I produces spatially localized features that are only influenced by small parts of an image, thus isolating particular parts of faces. For this reason ICA I is optimal for recognizing facial actions and suboptimal for recognizing temporal changes in faces or images taken under different conditions. Preprocessing steps of the methods ICA involves a PCA process by vertically centering (for ICA I), and whitened PCA process by horizontally centering (for ICA II). ICA Architecture I include a PCA by vertically centering (PCA I):

$$P_v = X_v V^T \Lambda^{-1/2} \quad (4)$$

Where X_v is the vertically-centered training image column data matrix. Symbols $\wedge$ and $\vee$ correspond to largest eigenvalues and eigenvectors of S_T matrix respectively:

$$S_T = \sum_{i=1}^M (x_i - \mu_v) \cdot (x_i - \mu_v)^T, \quad \mu_v = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^N x_i \quad (5)$$

In contrast to standard PCA, PCA I removes the mean of each image while standard PCA removes the mean image of all training samples. ICA Architecture II includes a whitened PCA by horizontally centering (PCA II):

$$P_w = P_h \cdot \left(\frac{1}{M} \wedge\right)^{-1/2} = \sqrt{M} X_h \wedge \vee^{-1}, \quad (6)$$

Where P_h is the projection matrix of standard PCA method.

$$P_h = X_h \wedge \vee^{-1/2}. \quad (7)$$

Matrix X_h contains in rows horizontally-centered training images. PCA II is actually the whiten version of standard PCA.

III. MULTIMODAL BIOMETRIC FUSION DECISION

The process of biometric user authentication can be outlined by the following steps [12]: a) acquisition of raw data, b) extraction of features from these raw data, c) computing a score for the similarity or dissimilarity between these features and a previously given set of reference features and d) classification with respect to the score, using a threshold. The results of the decision processing steps are *true* or *false* (or *accept/reject*) for verification purposes or the user identity for identification scenarios.

The fusion of different signals can be performed 1) at the raw data or the feature level, 2) at the score level or 3) at the decision level. These different approaches have advantages and disadvantages. For *raw data* or *feature level* fusion, the basis data have to be compatible for all modalities and a common matching algorithm (processing step c) must be used. If these conditions are met, the separate feature vectors of the modalities easily could be concatenated into a single new vector. This level of fusion has the advantage that only one algorithm for further processing steps is necessary instead of one for each modality. Another advantage of fusing at this early stage of processing is that no information is lost by previous processing steps. The main disadvantage is the demand of compatibility of the different raw data of features. The fusion at *score level* is performed by computing a similarity or dissimilarity (distance) score for each single modality. For joining of these different scores, normalization should be done. The straightforward and most rigid approach for fusion is the decision level. Here, each biometric modality results in its own decision; in case of a verification scenario this is a set of *true's* and *false's*. From this set a kind of voting (majority decision) or a logical *AND* or *OR* decision can be computed. This level of fusion is the least powerful, due to the absence of much information. On the other hand, the advantage of this fusion strategy is the easiness and the guaranteed availability of all single modality decision results. In practice, score level fusion is the best-researched approach, which appears to result in better improvements of recognition accuracy as compared to the other strategies.

A. Theoretical Analysis for Decision Level Fusion

The fusion scheme using these two modalities is denoted by S . Verification system based only on modality one is denoted by S_1 , while on modality two by S_2 [13]. If Γ is an algorithm, then the task is to find which acts on independent sources so that the output is maximized. It can be written as:

$$\hat{\Gamma} = \max_{\Gamma \in \Omega} \Gamma(S_1, S_2). \quad (8)$$

The performance indices in biometrics authentication system are false acceptance rate denoted FAR which means wrongly identifying an impostor to be an enrollee, and false rejection rate denoted by FRR which means wrongly identifying an enrollee as an impostor.

$$FAR(t) = P(\hat{w}_1|w_0) = \int_{R_1} p(X|w_0) dX = 1 - \int_{R_0} p(X|w_0) dX, \quad (9)$$

$$FRR(t) = P(\hat{w}_0|w_1) = \int_{R_0} p(X|w_1) dX \quad (10)$$

Where w_1 denotes the genuine user while w_0 denotes the impostor one. R_0 and R_1 are two exclusive sets in real axis. Both FAR and FRR are desirable to be as low as possible in authentication system. For any biometrics authentication system, whatever classifier takes, there exists a great risk of error. From the viewpoint of Bayesian decision theory, this is represented by the following equations for a two class problem,

$$E(t) = C_r \times FRR(t) + C_a \times FAR(t), \quad (11)$$

$$E_i(t_i) = C_r^i \times FRR^i(t_i) + C_a^i \times FAR^i(t_i), \text{ for } i = 1, \dots, N \quad (12)$$

Where, N is the total modalities number, C_r denotes the loss function pertinent to the false rejection, and C_a denotes the loss function for the false acceptance. For simplicity, it assume that $C_a = C_a^i$ and $C_r = C_r^i$.

B. Decision Level Fusion

The integrated system is denoted by Ψ . The outputs by individual systems Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 , are called scores, which stand for the probability of claimant to be a genuine or an impostor. For any fusion strategies, an error is expressed as (11) and (19). If it assumes that $E_1(t_1) \leq E_2(t_2) \leq \dots \leq E_N(t_N)$, then it is easily known it is sufficient to prove that $E(t) \leq E_1(t_1)$. For a two-modality and Bayesian rule Fusion:

$$\text{Decide } w_0, \text{ if } (X_1, X_2) \in R \quad (13)$$

$$\text{Decide } w_1, \text{ otherwise}$$

Where $R = \{ (X_1, X_2) | C_r p(X_1, X_2|w_0) \geq C_a p(X_1, X_2|w_1) \}$. Since Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 are independent, it have:

$$p(X_1, X_2|w_0) = p_1(X_1|w_0)p_2(X_2|w_0), \quad (14)$$

$$p(X_1, X_2|w_1) = p_1(X_1|w_1)p_2(X_2|w_1), \quad (15)$$

Then:

$$\begin{aligned} FAR(t) &= 1 - \int_{R_0} p(X_1, X_2|w_0) dX_1 dX_2 \\ &= 1 - \int_{R_0} p_1(X_1|w_0) dX_1 \int_{R_0} p_2(X_2|w_0) dX_2 \\ &= 1 - (1 - FAR^1(t_1))(1 - FAR^2(t_2)). \end{aligned} \quad (16)$$

&

$$\begin{aligned} FRR(t) &= 1 - \int_{R_0} p(X_1, X_2|w_1) dX_1 dX_2 \\ &= 1 - \int_{R_0} p_1(X_1|w_1) dX_1 \int_{R_0} p_2(X_2|w_1) dX_2 \\ &= FRR^1(t_1)FRR^2(t_2). \end{aligned} \quad (17)$$

From the Equations (23) & (24) it can be obviously seen that: $FAR(t) = FAR^1(t_1) \& \& FAR(t) = FAR^2(t_2)$. Thus the two combined modalities cannot improve the false acceptance rate by the Bayesian decision rule. Otherwise $FRR(t) = FRR^1(t_1)$ and $FRR(t) = FRR^2(t_2)$. Hence the false rejection rate of the combined system is reduced compared to individual sub-classifiers.

C. Maximum Likelihood Parameter Estimation

Given a set of observation data in a matrix X and a set of observation parameters θ the ML parameter estimation aims at maximizing the

likelihood $L(\theta)$ or log likelihood of the observation data $X = \{X_1, \dots, X_n\}$

$$\hat{\theta} = \arg \max_{\theta} L(\theta). \quad (18)$$

Assuming that it has independent, identically distributed data, it can write the above equations as:

$$L(\theta) = p(X|\theta) = p(X_1, \dots, X_n|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n p(X_i|\theta). \quad (19)$$

The maximum for this function can be find by taking the derivative and set it equal to zero, assuming an analytical function.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} L(\theta) = 0. \quad (20)$$

The incomplete-data log-likelihood of the data for the mixture model is given by:

$$L(\theta) = \log(X|\theta) = \sum_{i=1}^N \log(x_i|\theta) \quad (21)$$

Which is difficult to optimize because it contains the log of the sum. If it considers X as incomplete, however, and posits the existence of unobserved data items $Y = \{y_i\}_{i=1}^N$ whose values inform us which component density generated each data item, the likelihood expression is significantly simplified. That is, it assume that $y_i \in \{1 \dots K\}$ for each i , and $y_i = k$ if the i -th sample was generated by the k -th mixture component. If it knows the values of Y , it obtains the complete-data log-likelihood, given by:

$$L(\theta, Y) = \log p(X, Y|\theta) \quad (22)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N \log p(x_i, y_i|\theta) \quad (23)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N \log(p(y_i|\theta)p(x_i|y_i, \theta)) \quad (24)$$

$$= \sum_{i=1}^N (\log p_{y_i} + \log g(x_i|\mu_{y_i}, \Sigma_{y_i})) \quad (25)$$

Which, given a particular form of the component densities, can be optimized using a variety of techniques [14].

IV. EXPERIMENTS AND RESULTS DISCUSSION

The experiments were performed using Indian face database [15]: **INDIAN FACES DATABASE 2002 (IFD2002)** [15] this database contains human face images of 60 subjects (640x480 JPEG files format) with eleven different poses for each individual in which thirty nine are males and twenty two are females, the images were captured in February, 2002 in the campus of [Indian Institute of Technology Kanpur](#). All the images have a bright homogeneous background and the subjects are in an upright, frontal position. For each individual, it have included the following pose for the face: looking front, looking left, looking right, looking up, and looking up towards left, and looking up towards right, looking down. In addition to the variation in pose, images with four emotions - neutral, smile, laughter, sad/disgust - are also included for every individual.

For both Independent Component Analysis Architectures I and II, it employed two novel processing design algorithmic analyses and generates scores using three different similarity measures algorithms (Cosine Similarity, City Block and Square Euclidean Distances Similarity) [16][17], and the performance of the analysis design for the likelihood ratio are based on EER (Equal Error Rate) of the ROC (Receptive Operation Characteristics) plotting evaluation.

For algorithmic processing design one (One Image Processing): at the preprocessing phase each representation of the databases training and testing is normalized (divided on the square root of its power); at the fundamental processing phase, it computing the scores (Similarity Distances Measures) of the testing normalized representation with normalized training representation; for IFD2002 Face Databases in which 60% of the data size are used for training and 40% of the data size are used for testing: that gives $4 \times 6 = 24$ Similarity Distances for each user; Thus $60 \times (4 \times 6) = 1440$ target scores. Thus the target scores, noted (tscores) are built using Normal Law of probability $N(\text{tscores}, \text{tm}, \text{ts}^2)$ of the mean tm and standard deviation ts. Then, computing the scores of Distances Similarity Measures between the normalized representations of the test users with the normalized representation of the training users; Thus, it gives $4 \times 6 \times 59 = 1416$ scores for each user; hence the total non-target scores are $60 \times (4 \times 6 \times 59) = 84960$ for IFD2002. These non-target scores, noted (nscores), are built using Normal Law of probability $N(\text{nscores}, \text{nm}, \text{ns}^2)$ of the mean nm and standard deviation ns.

Than; computing the Logarithmic Ration of the Likelihood for tscores and nscores with:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LR}_{\text{tscores}} &= \log(N(\text{tscores}, \text{tm}, \text{ts}^2)) - \log(N(\text{tscores}, \text{nm}, \text{ns}^2)) \\ &\& \\ \text{LR}_{\text{nscores}} &= \log(N(\text{nscores}, \text{tm}, \text{ts}^2)) \\ &\quad - \log(N(\text{nscores}, \text{nm}, \text{ns}^2)) \end{aligned}$$

Than; Evaluated the ROC and the EER.

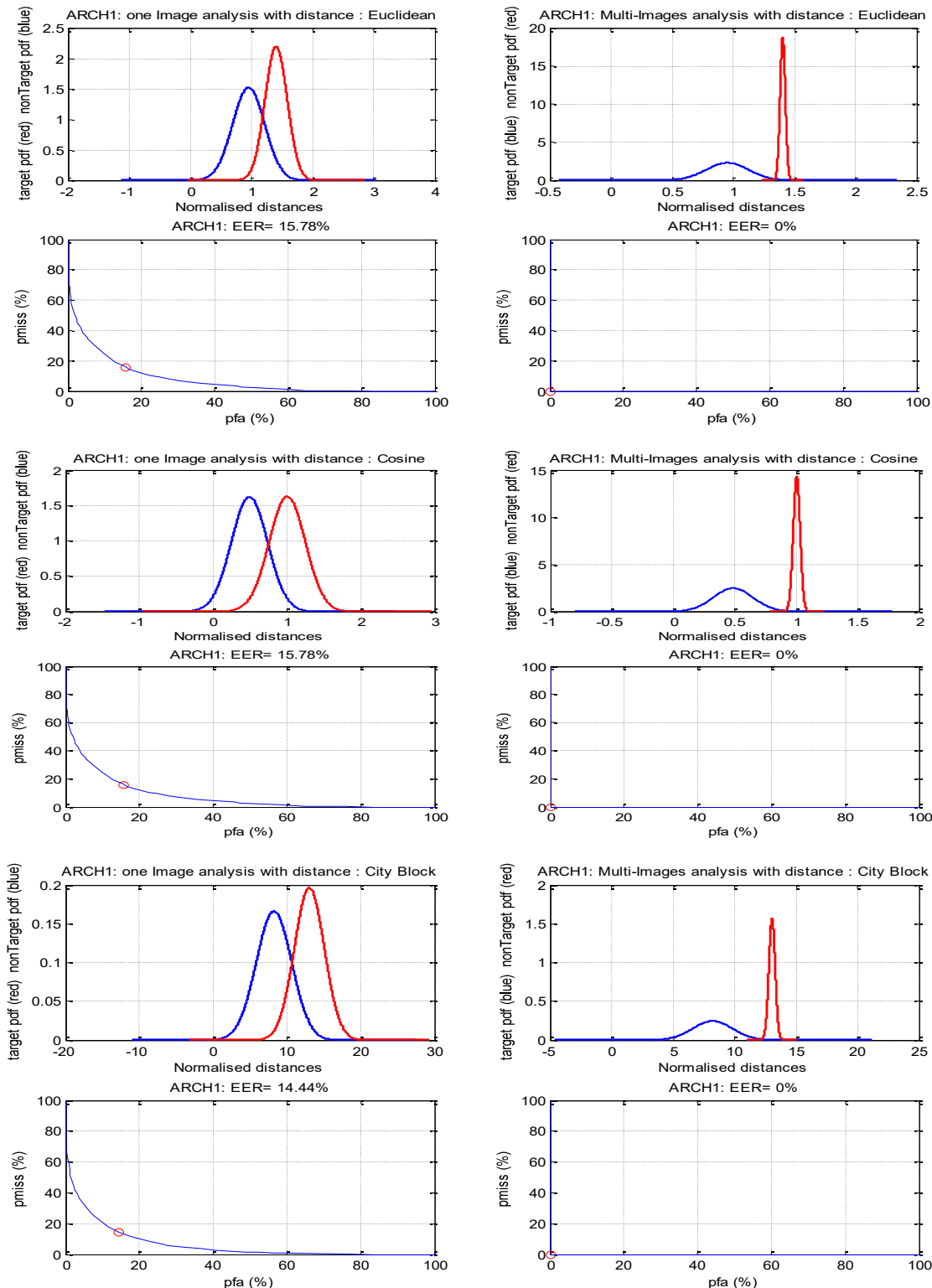
For algorithmic processing designs two (Multi-Image Processing): at the preprocessing phase each representation of the databases training and testing is normalized (divided on the square root of its power); at the fundamental processing phase, it computing the scores (Similarity Distances Measures) of the testing normalized representation with normalized training representation; in which 60% of the data size are used for training and 40% of the data size are used for testing: that gives $4 \times 6 = 24$ Similarity Distances for each user; for its user it computing the mean of its 24 Distances, thus it gives a $24 \times 60 = 1440$ target scores for IFD2002. These target scores, noted (mtscores), are built using Normal Law of probability $N(\text{mtscores}, \text{mtm}, \text{mts}^2)$ of the mean mtm and standard deviation mts. Then, computing the scores of Distances Similarity Measures between the normalized representations of the test users with the normalized representation of the training users; Thus, it gives $60 \times (4 \times 6 \times 59) = 84960$ non-target scores. These non-target scores, noted (mnnscores), are built using Normal Law of probability $N(\text{mnnscores}, \text{mnm}, \text{mns}^2)$ of the mean mnm and standard deviation mns.

Than; computing the Logarithmic Ration of the Likelihood for tscores and nscores with:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{LR}_{\text{tscores}} &= \log(N(\text{mtscores}, \text{tm}, \text{mts}^2)) - \log(N(\text{mtscores}, \text{mnm}, \text{mns}^2)) \\ &\& \\ \text{LR}_{\text{nscores}} &= \log(N(\text{mnnscores}, \text{mtm}, \text{mts}^2)) - \log(N(\text{mnnscores}, \text{mnm}, \text{mns}^2)) \end{aligned}$$

Than; Evaluated the ROC and the EER.

The Fig. 1., show the Verification Analysis Studies using Indian Face databases (IFD2002) for Independent Components Analysis Classifier Fusion of Likelihood Ratio.



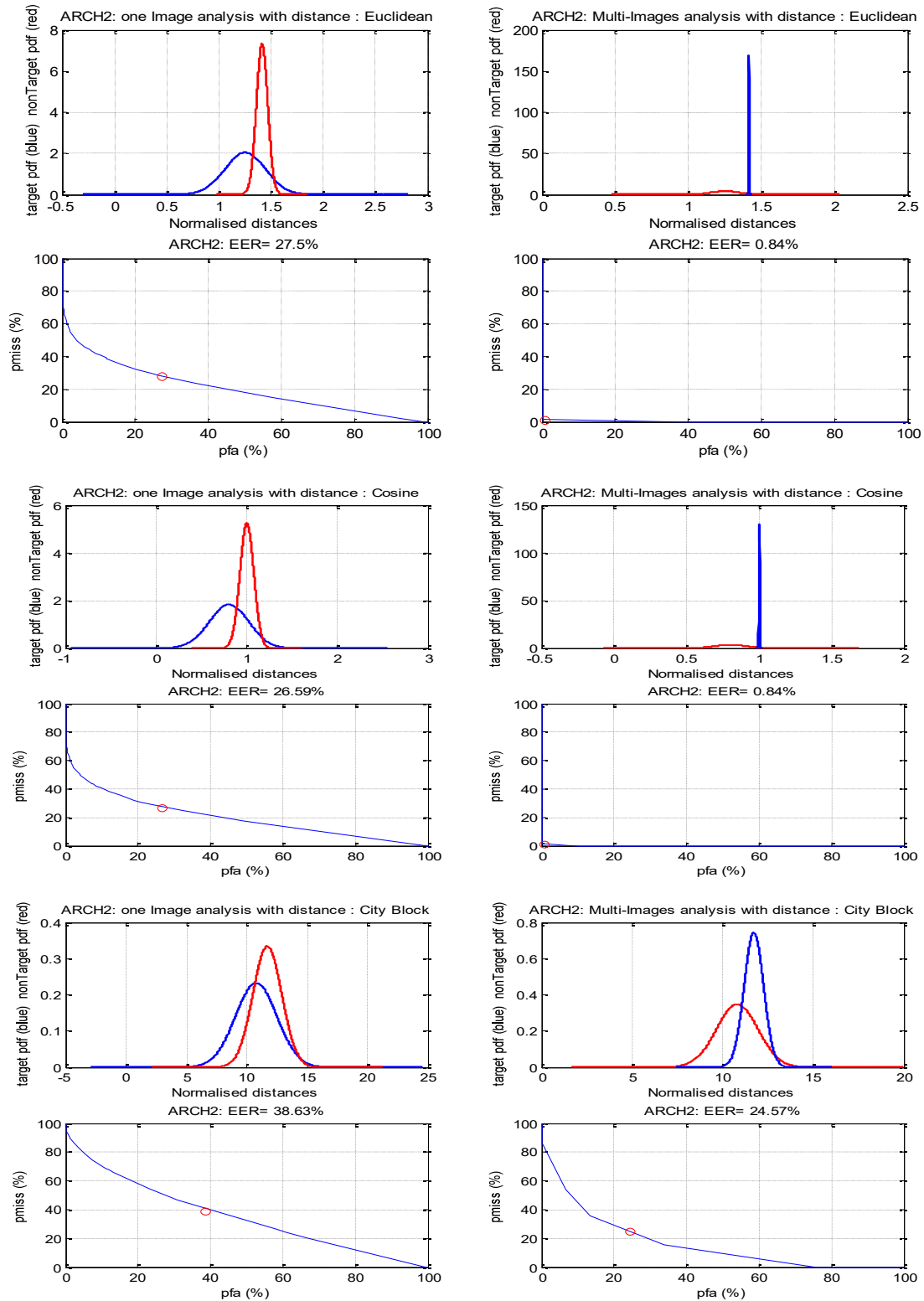


Fig. 1. Verification Analysis Studies using Indian Face databases (IFD2002) for Independent Components Analysis Classifier Fusion of Likelihood Ratio.

V. CONCLUSION

The paper has presented a human authentication method of Biometric face based Independent Component Analysis Architectures I and II; single biometric authentication has the fundamental problems of high FAR and FRR. It has presented a framework for novel fusion strategy within the scores at the score level. The likelihood ratio based fusion rule within the scores of the classifier achieves a significant recognition rates. As a result presented an EER=14.44%. And EER=0.00%. Respectively, for algorithmic design fusion of Likelihood Ratio within scores are achieved based Cosine Measures Similarity. Thus, Based on the experimental results, it has shown that EER can be reduced down significantly.

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A Hybrid Classical-Quantum Framework for EMG-Based Myopathy Diagnosis Using CNN and QSVM

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Abstract: In this study, we explore the potential of quantum machine learning (QML) for classifying electromyography (EMG) signals for myopathy diagnosis. A hybrid classical-quantum model, which combines convolutional neural network (CNN) for feature extraction and quantum support vector machine (QSVM) for quantum feature mapping and classification, is proposed. EMG data from healthy individuals and patients with myopathy were used to train the model and evaluate it using several performance metrics. The results showed an accuracy of 96.7% on training data and 85.1% on separate, unseen testing data. Despite this promising results, QML models may not significantly outperform their classical counterparts, as they still face challenges related to quantum hardware and simulation on classical computers. Nevertheless, the results of this work highlight the promising future prospects of QML techniques in medical applications, especially with the continued advancement of quantum processors.

Keywords: Electromyography (EMG), myopathy, quantum machine learning (QML), QSVM.

1. INTRODUCTION

Over the years, the complexity of computing has increased, requiring more complex solutions and greater computational resources. This has prompted researchers to find new approaches and alternatives to traditional computing to develop more efficient algorithms. Based on the properties of quantum mechanics, quantum computing (QC) has emerged [1]. QC algorithms have proven their ability to deal with many complex problems that classical methods have failed to solve, which pushed further research to develop efficient quantum algorithms in many applications and fields, including artificial intelligence (AI). The combination of quantum computing capabilities and machine learning (ML) algorithms for data processing has led to the emergence of quantum machine learning (QML) (Fig. 1). Despite the shortcomings and limitations of current quantum devices, QML has shown promising potential to improve the efficiency of ML models when analyzing high-dimensional and complex data, calling for continued research to keep pace with developments and design more effective quantum algorithms [2].

As with traditional AI, QML has been used to address key issues in many fields, including healthcare, for early detection, diagnosis, and classification of diseases, and has shown promising and interesting results. For example, researchers in [3] classified heart rhythms using a quantum support vector machine (QSVM) algorithm, achieving an accuracy of 86.96%. In [4], researchers also used quantum random forest (QRF), quantum k-nearest neighbor (QKNN), and quantum decision tree (QDT) to detect heart failure. These algorithms demonstrated their superiority over classical ML algorithms, especially QRF, which achieved an accuracy of 89%. For COVID-19 dataset classification, the QSVM and QRF algorithms proposed in [5], achieved an accuracy of 78% and 75%, respectively. Additionally, in [6], the proposed QSVM classifier for breast cancer detection achieved an accuracy of 93.8%, while the QSVM model outperformed both the classical ML and deep learning (DL) models proposed in [7] for diagnosing prematurity retinopathy with an accuracy of 95.5%.

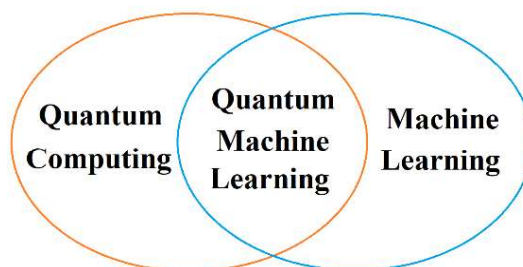


Fig. 1 Quantum machine learning as an intersection between machine learning and quantum computing.

These and other works demonstrate the promising potential of QML in medical diagnosis, offering hope for improved healthcare and diagnostic with the development of more accurate and efficient algorithms. However, a review of the literature reveals that QML applications have been widely used in medical images, while physiological signals have been somewhat neglected, particularly electromyography (EMG) signals. Therefore, in this paper, we explore the potential of QML algorithms in processing and classifying EMG signals for myopathy diagnosis. In this study, we propose a hybrid classical-quantum model that combines a classical convolutional neural network (CNN) to extract deep features from raw EMG signals, and a QSVM with a quantum variational circuit-based kernel to map and classify the features in the quantum space. With the obtained promising classification accuracy of 96.7% using training data and 85.1% using unseen testing data, the potential of quantum methods is demonstrated by integrating quantum computing into future diagnostic procedures, which could lead to improved diagnostic efficiency.

2. METHODOLOGY

Data Aquisition and Preprocessing

The public dataset from EMGLAB.net [8] was used. It includes EMG signals from the biceps brachii muscle from males and females healthy, myopathy, and amyotrophic lateral sclerosis (ALS) groups. In this work, the first two categories were used for binary classification. The healthy group consisted of ten normal individuals aged between 21 and 37 years, while the myopathy group consisted of seven patients aged between 19 and 63 years. To evaluate the generalizability of the proposed model, the volunteers were divided into two groups. The samples extracted from seven healthy individuals and four with myopathy were used to train the model, while the samples from the remaining volunteers (two healthy and two with myopathy) were left unseen for later testing.

A certain number of non-overlapping 1-second samples were extracted from each 12-second EMG signal. Then, after removing samples with missing data, a balanced dataset was obtained, as shown in Table 1, to ensure a fair and reliable model training and avoid bias. To clean up the signals and remove any potential noise or unwanted frequencies, a 50 Hz Notch filter and a Butterworth bandpass filter with a 2 Hz and a 10 kHz lower and upper bands were used.

Table 1 Samples Distribution in Training and Testing Datasets.

		Number of Subjects		Number of samples	
Training Data	Healthy	7	280	556	
	Myopathy	4	276		
Testing Data	Healthy	2	240	544	
	Myopathy	2	304		

Classical CNN-Based Feature Extraction

Feature extraction is a crucial step in signal processing, as representing the data in a feature space that highlights differences between classes directly contributes to model performance. To this end, we leveraged the ability of CNN layers to extract deep features and recognize critical patterns from raw EMG signals. The CNN network, which was designed to extract 35 features, was trained on the EMG data, and the final layer outputs were extracted to be used as inputs for a QSVM classifier. The proposed architecture includes convolutional layers, pooling layers, batch normalization, dropout, flattening layer, and fully connected (or dense) layers with *ReLU* activations, as shown in Fig. 2. The model was built and compiled using the *Adam* optimizer and a *binary cross-entropy* loss function. To prevent overfitting, the learning rate is dynamically adjusted based on the validation loss using the *ReduceLROnPlateau* learning rate scheduler.

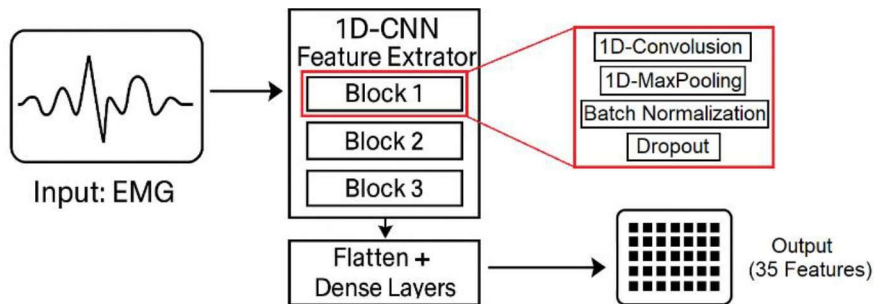


Fig. 2 Overview of the proposed 1D-CNN-based feature extraction pipeline for EMG signals.

QSVM-Based Classification

To classify the EMG signals into myopathy or healthy classes using the quantum features mapping, a quantum kernel-based SVM model was used. After extracting the deep features from raw EMG signals using CNN, the proposed QSVM model was fed with the 35 features extracted using training dataset. This approach involved several methodological steps, from data loading, to designing, building, and optimizing the quantum kernel, all the way to integrating it into the training SVM model. The stages of the framework's training and testing process can be seen in Fig. 3.

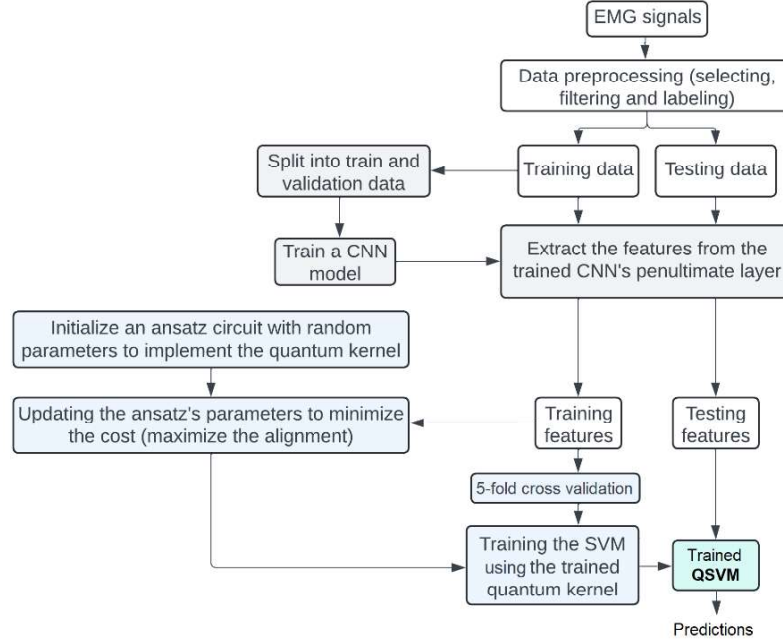


Fig. 3 The proposed classical-quantum approach workflow.

As a first step, classical data are transformed into quantum space using a quantum circuit with a specific structure known as an *ansatz* circuit $U(x)$, which acts as a feature map, implemented as:

$$|\psi(x)\rangle = U(x)|0\rangle \quad (1)$$

Our ansatz is implemented using seven consecutive building blocks called "*layers*". Each layer is composed of quantum gates arranged across five qubits (Fig. 4), including Hadamard, rotational gates (RZ and RY), as well as CRZ (controlled RZ) gates that allow the introduction of quantum entanglement between qubits. The input values of the RZ gates (rotation angles) depend on the features values, while the RY gates controlled by the adjustable parameters (θ) that are updated during training. Kernel Target Alignment (KTA) is then used to optimize the performance of the resulting kernel. KTA measures how well the quantum kernel matrix matches the optimal kernel matrix derived from the data labels, and used as a cost function that is minimized using a gradient descent algorithm, where the parameters of the ansatz function are updated to enhance the kernel's ability to separate classes. This process can be found in more details in [9] and [10].

The optimized kernel is then used within a classical SVM classifier. To ensure generalizability and avoid overfitting, 5-fold cross-validation was applied to the training data before evaluating the model on the unseen testing dataset.

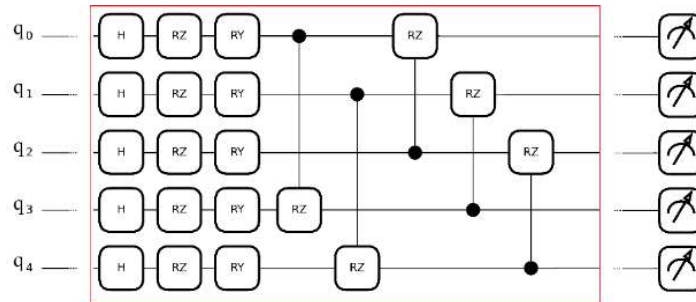


Fig. 4 One-layer architecture of the proposed quantum kernel ansatz circuit.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

After training the proposed QSVM model using a custom quantum kernel, we evaluated it on a separate testing data. To provide a complete picture of the model's ability to diagnose myopathy and differentiate between different classes, several performance metrics were used, including accuracy, precision, recall, and f1-score. Table 2 shows the performance metrics obtained for both the training and testing datasets. Evaluation of the model showed promising results, demonstrating a training accuracy of 96.7%. Applying the same pipeline to the testing data resulted in an accuracy of 85.1%. Fig. 5 shows the confusion matrices of the proposed model, which provide a complete report of the prediction results compared to the actual labels. These results demonstrate a convergence in the performance of the proposed classical-quantum hybrid model with its classical counterparts, indicating great potential for quantum methods.

Table 2 The obtained performance metrics of the proposed approach for both training and testing datasets.

Approach	Metrics	Results	
		Training Data	Testing Data
Quantum SVM with CNN-based deep feature extraction	Accuracy	0.967	0.851
	Precision	0.965	0.809
	Recall	0.971	0.867
	F1-score	0.968	0.837

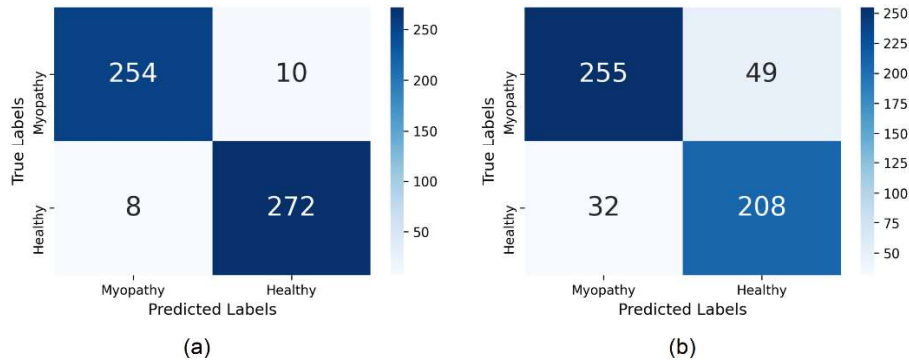


Fig. 5 Confusion matrices of the (a) training and (b) testing data for the proposed approach.

When comparing the performance of the proposed hybrid model with similar works in the literature that adopted classical approaches, it can be argued that the expectations associated with the superiority of QML have not yet been fully realized. Where, for EMG classification, the work of [11] and [12] for example, achieved an accuracy of 85% using artificial neural network, and 98.7% using k-nearest neighbor, respectively. Additionally, in [13] the authors achieved 93.3% accuracy for myopathy and neuropathy diagnosis. This can be justified by the current limitations in simulating quantum algorithms using classical computers. Although quantum superiority remains elusive in light of these challenges, research into developing QSVM models remains promising, especially with the continued advancement of quantum processing technologies. In theory, QSVM models have the potential to speed up computational processes due to quantum parallelism. This is important in medical fields, where data is typically complex and feature-rich, making quantum representations more effective in enhancing class separation. Quantum feature maps also help uncover subtle patterns and nonlinear relationships in high-dimensional feature spaces [14].

However, QSVM models still face several challenges, such as noise and short qubit coherence times, as well as implementation complexity and the need for advanced technical expertise. Relying on classical simulations also significantly increases execution time and limits the number of possible experiments [15]. The results obtained show that QML has not yet reached a level where performance exceeds that of conventional models, nevertheless, QSVM techniques and QML in general still represent significant future directions. Although the results of this work are not revolutionary, they underscore the importance of continuing research in this field to develop efficient quantum algorithms that can be used to accelerate and improve medical diagnosis.

4. CONCLUSION

In this study, a hybrid classical-quantum approach was implemented for EMG signals classification. A CNN-based architecture was used to extract deep features from the raw signals, and then an SVM with variational quantum circuit-based kernel (QSVM) was employed for quantum feature

mapping and classification, showing promising potential for enhancing automatic medical diagnosis and myopathy detection in particular. However, the proposed approach's performance has not clearly outperformed classical models, due to current limitations in quantum algorithm simulations and available hardware. Despite these challenges, the reliance on quantum parallelism and feature maps in quantum Hilbert space makes QML a powerful tool for future development, particularly in processing complex, high-dimensional medical data. The results of this research emphasize the need for continued work in this field to develop more efficient quantum algorithms, which could revolutionize the speed and accuracy of medical diagnosis in the near future.

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A Hybrid Statistical and Numerical Method for Assessing the SARS-CoV-2 Impact in Patients with Chronic Kidney Disease

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Abstract: Patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD), particularly those receiving hemodialysis, are at significant risk of respiratory viral infections due to their physiological compromise. In light of these circumstances, this study investigates the impact of SARS-CoV-2 on a population of chronic kidney disease patients, particularly those undergoing hemodialysis in Algeria. We gather clinical information from four specialized centers. At the same time, we used COMSOL Multiphysics software to run a numerical simulation that modeled blood flow through a nanofiltration membrane. Our initial study indicates that comorbidities such as diabetes and hypertension are significantly correlated with increased risk and adverse outcomes for patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD). Our second study demonstrates that the hypercoagulable state associated with SARS-CoV-2 induces substantial alterations in blood velocity profiles, diminishes membrane permeability, and negatively affects the overall efficacy of dialysis treatment. The integrated analyses encompassing clinical perspectives and numerical modeling underscore the increased susceptibility of CKD patients to SARS-CoV-2, necessitating modifications in clinical care strategies.

Keywords: Chronic Kidney Disease, Hemodialysis, SARS-CoV-2, Nanofiltration Membrane, Dialysis Efficiency.

1. INTRODUCTION

Individuals with advanced renal impairment necessitating dialysis constitute a particularly susceptible population amid the COVID-19 pandemic, exhibiting heightened risks of infection and mortality reported worldwide [1], [2]. With limited resources and organizational problems, these risks are even worse, which leads to more deaths and illnesses in dialysis units. Research globally substantiates that comorbidities such as diabetes and hypertension exacerbate outcomes [3], [4]. Clinical indicators such as leukopenia, lymphopenia, and pulmonary involvement are associated with disease severity, whereas COVID-19 triggers hypercoagulable states that elevate the risk of dialysis circuit thrombosis [5, 6]. In this high-risk population, early initiation of anticoagulation combined with rigorous monitoring is essential to improve survival [6], [7].

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. Section 2 provides a comprehensive methodology for statistical and computational analysis. Section 3 provides focused discussions and analysis of the obtained results. Finally, Section 4 concludes the paper.

2. METHODOLOGY

Clinical Data Collection and Statistical Analysis

The statistical study was performed on data collected from clinical records in dialysis centers, in the three dialysis units located in the city of Oran: first, the University Hospital Center (UHC), second, the University Hospital Establishment (UHE) and third, the El Mohgoun Center, Public Hospital Establishment, finally, and fourth unit, PHE -Frère Rahmani- in Mecheria, in the city of Naama. The clinical records looked at are those of end-stage chronic kidney disease (ESCKD) patients with a PCR-confirmed SARS-CoV-2 infection. Patient demographic characteristics, infection status, and mortality rates by age group and gender are summarized in Table 1.

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Table 1 Summary of hemodialysis patients with COVID-19 across four dialysis centers.

Dialysis Centers	Age group (years)	Female	Male	Infected	Deaths	Total dialyzed patients in the unit	Infection rate	Mortality rate
UHC Oran	10–20	0	2	2	/	38	34%	2.6%
	20–40	2	3	5	/			
	40–60	3	2	5	/			
	60–90	1	1	1	1			
UHE Oran	10–20	1	0	1	0	Unknown		
	20–40	1	1	2	0			
	40–60	2	4	5	1			
	60–90	4	0	2	2			
PHE El Mohyoun (Oran)	10–20	/	/	/	/	8	87.5%	25%
	20–40	0	2	1	1			
	40–60	1	4	4	1			
	60–90	0	2	2	0			
PHE -Frère Rehmani- in Mechria (Naama)	Unknown			60	2	90	66.66%	2.22%

Based on the data, it is apparent that age plays a meaningful role in the severity of complications from COVID-19 that can ultimately produce mortality. The tables from the findings indicate that the highest risk group is patients between the ages of 40 and 60 years old, with a staggering 25% mortality rate. It's also critical to note that the numbers show that between 60%–85% of hemodialysis patients were infected with COVID-19, which coincides with worldwide epidemiology findings showing that hemodialysis patients are particularly vulnerable to SARS CoV-2 infections.

COMSOL-Based Computational Analysis

In all calculations, we consider a semipermeable nanofiltration membrane with biconical nanopore structure, which establishes a parabolic velocity profile, representative of laminar blood flow, and is certainly appropriate. What is particularly significant is that the velocity measures coincides with the fluid layers on the central axis of the vessel. Fig.1 illustrates the mesh structure of biconical geometry, and as clearly shown, the mesh is very much finer at the inlet and outlet regions. This finer mesh results in greater accuracy.

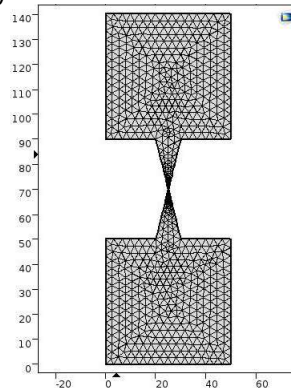


Fig. 1 Mesh of a biconical structure with a length of 40 μm and a thickness of 0.4 μm .

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Fig. 2 demonstrate how blood flow velocity across the nanofiltration membrane changes with COVID-19 contamination levels of 5%, 10%, 15%, 20%, and 30%, respectively. Each figure totemically demonstrates a progressive decline in blood flow velocity in conjunction with progressive contamination rates. For a healthy patient, the peak blood flow velocity is approximately 4.7 $\mu\text{m/s}$, whereas for a patient with a 30% contamination rate, the velocity is reduced to 2.2 $\mu\text{m/s}$. The large decrease in velocity corresponds to the impact of COVID-19 on blood viscosity and membrane permeability, which is summarized in Table 2.

Table 2 Maximum blood velocity values for different COVID-19 contamination rates.

COVID-19 Contamination Rate (%)	0	5	10	15	20	30
V_{max} ($\mu\text{m/s}$)	4.7	3.5	3.4	3.2	2.4	2.2

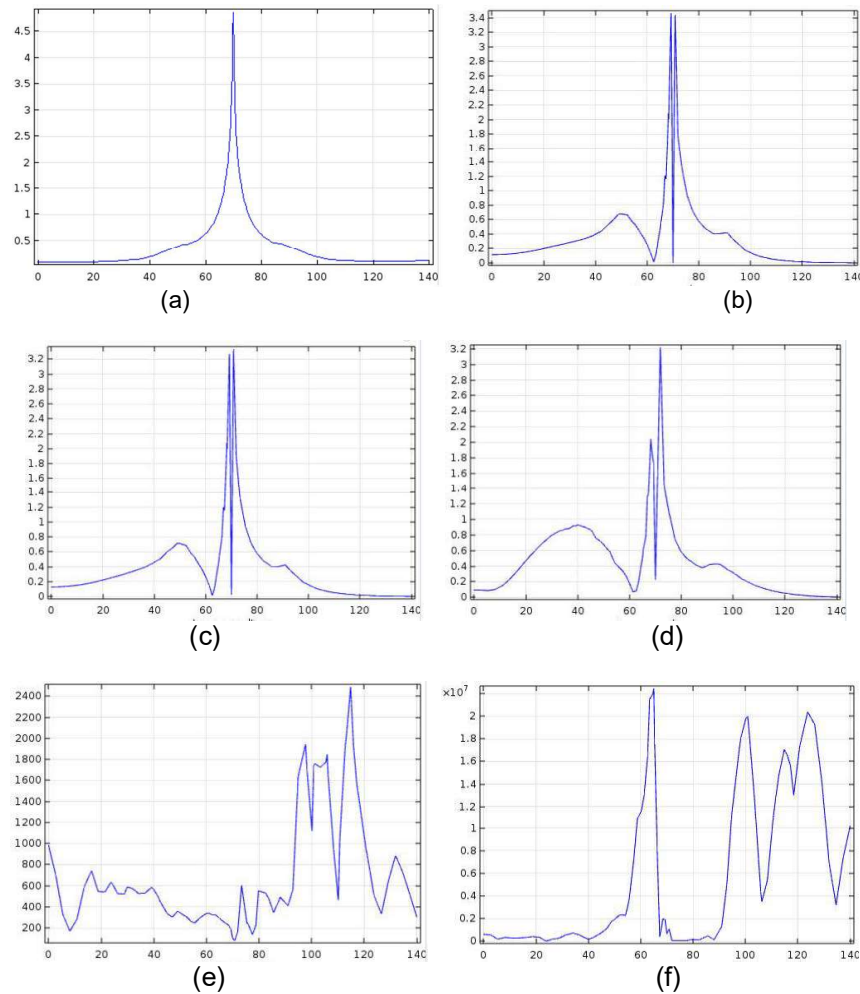


Fig. 2 (a) Velocity distribution for a non-COVID-19 infected patient; (b) Mesh of a biconical structure with a length of 40 μm and a thickness of 0.4 μm ; (c) Velocity variation of a COVID-19 infected patient at a 10% contamination rate; (d) Velocity variation of a COVID-19 infected patient at a 15% contamination rate; (e) Velocity variation of a COVID-19 infected patient at a 20% contamination rate; (f) Velocity variation of a COVID-19 infected patient at a 30% contamination rate.

The data shows a disorderly flow and chaotic velocity profile both upstream (0-50 μm) and downstream (90-140 μm) of the nanopore, attributable to partial clotting of the blood just prior to filtration. The situation was even more aggravated in patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD) who were infected with COVID-19 when there was a systemic, hypercoagulable state predisposing to early clots in the dialysis filter that made dialysis challenges exponentially more problematic and a much greater risk of death.

From a biological perspective, these patients frequently exhibited elevated levels of D-dimers (often $>3 \mu\text{g/mL}$, a number that was deemed far too elevated to treat for salvage) hyperfibrinogenemia ($> 8 \text{ g/L}$), raised levels of factor VIII and often mild levels of thrombocytopenia ($<150 \times 10^9 /\text{L}$) in the context of a COVID-19-associated coagulopathy.

These observations provide some perspective regarding COVID-19-associated coagulopathy (CAC) which has been established as a well-defined, pro-thrombotic clinical state that is anticipated to see the percentage of venous (15-30%) and arterial thrombosis increase in addition to the presence of a low grade coagulopathy with clinical features that may include a vague form of local disseminated intravascular coagulation (DIC). Though hemorrhagic sequelae are uncommon, thrombotic complications involving the extracorporeal dialysis circuit remains a clinical concern.

4. CONCLUSION

Two complementary research studies examined the implications of COVID-19 on patients with chronic kidney disease (CKD). The first study, which was a statistical study, was based on clinical data collected from four hospital centers. In the study, age was the predominant risk factor for patients with CKD infected with SARS-CoV-2. The clinical data revealed that the mortality rate was as high as 25% in patients aged ≥ 65 years, consistent with published international literature identifying high susceptibility and severe illness risk in the CKD population with an impaired immune system.. The second study was a numerical study in which models and simulations produce hemodynamic changes in a biconical pore of a nanofiltration membrane under biomechanical conditions that represented blood from COVID-19 infected individuals. The findings of the hemodynamic study showed that when blood is infected with the virus, it will alter the rheological properties of blood, and specifically decrease plasma viscosity. This is a risk for increased hyperviscosity and a higher tendency for thrombus to form, and also the blockage of the membrane pore, rendering the walls of the membrane impermeable to plasma.

Such an event occurs in real-world clinical examples of early thrombosis of dialysis filters in COVID patients, which occurs commonly in CKD patients due to their hypercoagulability and often is associated with elevated D-dimer and fibrinogen levels. These background screening findings reflect the effects of COVID-19 on dialysis performance, both clinically and technically.

Acknowledgment

The authors would like to extend their heartfelt thanks to the medical and administrative team of the four dialysis centers who contributed to the gathering of clinical data for the study: the University Hospital Center of Oran, the University Hospital Establishment of Oran, the El Mohgoun Dialysis Center in Oran, and the Frère Rahmani Public Hospital in Mecheria, city of Naama. We recognize their invaluable assistance and unwavering commitment in allowing this entire study to be completed with statistical analyses, despite all logistical challenges faced, and given the limited human resources they had available. We truly appreciate their assistance in achieving such a study under such demanding conditions.

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Enhancing Preventive Healthcare:

Developing a Robust ML-Based Model for Diabetes Prediction

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Abstract: Diabetes Mellitus represents a significant global health challenge, with early detection being crucial for mitigating severe complications. This study conducts a rigorous comparative analysis of machine learning models for diabetes prediction, leveraging the Pima Indians Diabetes Dataset. We implemented a rigorous preprocessing protocol to address the dataset's inherent challenges, including the handling of missing data denoted by zero values in key clinical features. Four machine learning algorithms—Support Vector Machine (SVM), Random Forest, Decision Tree, and Naive Bayes—were meticulously optimized and evaluated using stratified 10-fold cross-validation. This method ensures a robust and generalizable assessment of model performance. Our results indicate that the Random Forest classifier outperformed its counterparts, achieving a mean cross-validation accuracy of 84.2%, a precision of 0.80, a recall of 0.82, an F1-score of 0.81, and an AUC of 0.90. The study demonstrates the efficacy of ensemble methods in medical diagnostics and provides

a transparent, reproducible benchmark for future research. This research underscores the potential of ML-based tools to augment traditional diagnostic methods, paving the way for accessible prescreening in diverse clinical environments.

1. INTRODUCTION

The work is distinguished by several key contributions:

- We implement a meticulous preprocessing pipeline specifically designed to handle the well-documented data quality issues of the Pima Indians Diabetes Dataset.
- We conduct a comprehensive evaluation using stratified 10-fold cross-validation to ensure robust and statistically significant performance metrics, moving beyond a simple train-test split.
- We provide a detailed comparison of model performance against recent literature, providing a credible and transparent benchmark.

- We present a critical discussion on the practical implications, limitations, and future directions for integrating such models into real-world healthcare workflows.

	A	B	C	D	E	F	G	H	I
1	Pregnancy	Glucose	BloodPres	SkinThickr	Insulin	BMI	DiabetesP	Age	Outcome
2	1	138	62	35	0	33.6	0.127	47	1
3	0	84	82	31	125	38.2	0.233	23	0
4	0	145	0	0	0	44.2	0.63	31	1
5	0	135	68	42	250	42.3	0.365	24	1
6	1	139	62	41	480	40.7	0.536	21	0
7	0	173	78	32	265	46.5	1.159	58	0
8	4	99	72	17	0	25.6	0.294	28	0
9	8	194	80	0	0	26.1	0.551	67	0
10	2	83	65	28	66	36.8	0.629	24	0
11	2	89	90	30	0	33.5	0.292	42	0
12	4	99	68	38	0	32.8	0.145	33	0

Fig. 1 Pima Indians Diabetes Dataset.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

The escalating global prevalence of Diabetes Mellitus has intensified the demand for robust early prediction tools. Conventional diagnostic techniques, though clinically reliable, are often invasive, resource-intensive, and poorly suited for largescale screening in resource-constrained environments. This critical limitation has prompted a paradigm shift towards data-driven, computational methods. ML has subsequently emerged as a transformative methodology in this field, offering a powerful capability to identify complex, non-linear patterns within clinical and demographic data for effective risk stratification. This section chronicles the evolution of predictive models, from foundational statistical techniques to contemporary advanced learning algorithms, specifically for diabetes prediction.

A. The Role of AI and ML in Modern Medicine : The Integration Of Artificial Intelligence (AI) And Machine Learning (ML) Into Healthcare Is Fundamentally Transforming Diagnostics, Prognostics, And Clinical Decision-Support Systems [1]. As Kavakiotis Et Al. Highlighted In Their Comprehensive Review, ML Algorithms Are Increasingly Applied In Diabetes Research Due To Their Superior Effectiveness In Predictive Modeling And Pattern Recognition Tasks That Overwhelm Traditional Statistical Methods [1]. Whereas Techniques Like Logistic Regression Offer Interpretability But Struggle With Non-Linear Relationships, ML Models Excel At Discerning Latent Patterns Within High-Dimensional Data, Making Them Particularly Suitable For Diabetes Prediction [2]

B. Evolution of Prediction Models : Initial approaches to diabetes prediction relied predominantly on traditional statistical techniques, including logistic regression and discriminant analysis [3]. These methods provide a solid baseline and are interpretable, but their inability to model intricate feature interactions became a significant drawback with the emergence of larger, more complex datasets. The early 2000s marked a decisive transition towards machine learning models, which leveraged growing computational power to extract deeper insights from richer

datasets, enabling more accurate and nuanced risk assessment [4].

C. Supervised Learning for Diabetes Prediction : Among supervised learning paradigms, Support Vector Machines (SVMs) have demonstrated consistent robustness in binary classification tasks. Research by Islam et al. indicated that SVMs utilizing a Radial Basis Function (RBF) kernel outperformed those with linear kernels on the Pima Indian Diabetes Dataset [5]. Decision Trees, while highly interpretable, are notoriously prone to overfitting. This limitation is effectively mitigated by ensemble methods such as Random Forest, which aggregates predictions from multiple decorrelated trees to enhance generalization and stability. Studies such as those by Tigga and Garg have reported Random Forest accuracies between 94–98% on various diabetes datasets [7]; however, such exceptional figures necessitate careful scrutiny of the data preprocessing (e.g., handling of missing values) and evaluation methodologies (e.g., use of a simple train-test split) employed. Gradient boosting techniques, including XGBoost, have further extended performance boundaries [8]. The Naïve Bayes classifier, despite its strong assumption of feature independence, remains a popular benchmark due to its computational efficiency, simplicity, and provision of probabilistic outputs, consistently achieving reported accuracy ranges of 70–85% [1].

D. Advanced and Hybrid Techniques : With increased availability of larger datasets, deep learning architectures have gained considerable traction in diabetes prediction. Rahman et al., for instance, proposed a hybrid ConvLSTM model that achieved a reported accuracy of 97.26% on the Pima dataset [12]. Other sophisticated approaches involve hybrid systems that integrate optimization algorithms such as Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) or Genetic Algorithms (GA) with classifiers to optimize hyperparameters and select salient features, sometimes claiming accuracies exceeding 97% [11]. Although these results are promising, they often entail highly complex architectures that raise

concerns regarding reproducibility, computational overhead, and practical deployability in real-world, low-resource clinical settings.

3. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This research adopts a systematic machine learning approach to develop a reliable diabetes prediction framework. The methodology follows a structured pipeline comprising data preparation, algorithm selection, model training with hyperparameter optimization, and rigorous validation. The study implements four distinct classifiers to conduct a comprehensive comparative analysis, ensuring robust performance evaluation through stratified cross-validation techniques. This systematic approach enables identification of the most effective prediction model for clinical applications..

A. Data Preprocessing and Feature Engineering : A meticulous preprocessing pipeline was implemented to ensure data quality:

- **Handling Missing Values:** Zero values in Glucose, BloodPressure, SkinThickness, Insulin, and BMI were replaced with NaN (Not a Number). These missing values were then imputed using the median value of the corresponding feature, calculated separately for each class (diabetic and non-diabetic) to prevent data leakage and preserve the underlying distribution.
- **Feature Scaling:** To ensure all features existed on a comparable scale, standardization was applied via the StandardScaler function. This process centers the data to a mean of zero and scales it to a unit variance (standard deviation of one), a prerequisite for distance-based algorithms such as Support Vector Machines (SVM)
- **Outlier Handling:** Outliers were identified using the Interquartile Range (IQR) approach. This capping was performed within each fold of the cross-validation to prevent information leakage. Values beyond the 5th and 95th percentiles were capped to mitigate their undue influence on model training.

- **Data Splitting:** The dataset was split into features (X) and target (y). To ensure a statistically valid evaluation, all model performance metrics were derived using stratified 10-fold cross-validation, which preserves the class distribution in each fold.

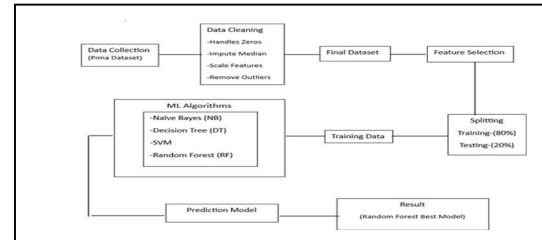


Fig. 2 Proposed System Architecture

B. Machine Learning Algorithms : Four algorithms were selected for their complementary strengths and prevalence in medical informatics:

- **Support Vector Machine (SVM):** For maximizing the margin between the classes, SVM use optimal hyperplane.
- **Random Forest:** Random forest combines results from multiple decision trees trained on bootstrap samples.
- **Decision Tree:** Decision trees split nodes by using split criteria.
- **Naïve Bayes:** It uses Baye's algorithms by assuming the conditional independence.

C. Experimental Setup : A standardized experimental framework was established to ensure all model comparisons remained fair, reproducible, and methodologically sound. The implementation maintained consistent conditions across all algorithms to enable valid performance benchmarking.

- **Computational Environment:** The research utilized Python 3.9.13 as the programming environment with essential scientific computing libraries: scikit-learn version 1.2.2 for machine learning implementations, pandas version 1.5.3 for data handling, numpy version 1.24.3 for numerical computations, and matplotlib version 3.7.1 for generating visualizations.
- **Hyperparameter Optimization:** Model parameters underwent

systematic tuning through Grid Search methodology employing 5-fold cross-validation on training partitions.

- **Evaluation Methodology:** Model performance assessment employed Stratified 10-Fold Cross-Validation across the complete dataset. This approach ensured reliable estimation of generalization capability while addressing challenges related to limited sample size and class distribution imbalance. Final performance metrics represent averaged outcomes across all cross-validation iterations.

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- A. Evaluation Metrics :** To quantify model performance, we employed a standard set of classification metrics based on the confusion matrix: Accuracy, Precision, Recall (Sensitivity), Specificity, F1-Score (the harmonic mean of precision and recall), and the Area Under the Receiver Operating Characteristic Curve (AUCROC).
- B. Experimental Results :** The results from the stratified 10-fold cross-validation are presented in Table I. The Random Forest model demonstrated superior and most balanced performance across all metrics.

Model	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	AUC
SVM (RBF)	0.781	0.72	0.68	0.70	0.83
Random Forest	0.842	0.80	0.82	0.81	0.90
Decision Tree	0.763	0.71	0.70	0.70	0.76
Naive Bayes	0.758	0.70	0.75	0.72	0.82

Fig. 3 Model Performance Comparison (Mean Scores From 10-FOLD CV)

- C. Discussion :** The Random Forest classifier emerged as the most effective model, consistent with its theoretical advantages of being robust to overfitting and capable of modeling complex interactions. Its high recall (0.82) is particularly crucial for a screening tool, as it minimizes false negatives—cases where the disease is present but undetected.

The reported results (e.g., 84.2% accuracy for Random Forest) are more conservative but more credible than the often-cited figures above 95% in literature [5, 7, 10]. This discrepancy is not a shortcoming but a deliberate outcome of our rigorous methodology. It is a direct result of two key design choices: first, the meticulous handling of missing data, which corrected invalid zero values to prevent artificial performance inflation; and second, the use of stratified crossvalidation, which provides a true estimate of generalization error on unseen data. Consequently, this work shifts the focus from pursuing inflated metrics to establishing a transparent, reproducible, and methodologically sound benchmark. We posit that our results provide a more realistic and trustworthy baseline for evaluating models on this challenging dataset, a contribution we believe is vital for advancing reliable research in this field.

Our SVM model performed reasonably well but exhibited a lower recall, suggesting a tendency to be conservative in predicting the positive class. The Decision Tree model's lower performance is likely due to overfitting, a known limitation of individual trees. Naïve Bayes provided a strong baseline performance, demonstrating its utility as a simple and fast algorithm, though its performance ceiling is limited by its inherent assumptions.

5. CONCLUSION

This study presented a rigorous and transparent benchmarking of machine learning models for diabetes prediction using the Pima Indians dataset. By implementing a meticulous preprocessing pipeline to address inherent data quality issues and employing a robust stratified cross-validation method, we provided a credible and statistically significant assessment of model performance. The Random Forest algorithm was identified as the most effective model, achieving a superior AUC of 0.90 and a balanced accuracy of 84.2%. Its high recall is particularly valuable for a screening tool, as it minimizes dangerous false negatives. This work contributes a reliable and reproducible benchmark to the field, demonstrating that rigorous data handling and evaluation are fundamental to

achieving trustworthy and clinically applicable results. The findings underscore the substantial potential of machine learning, particularly ensemble methods, to serve as a foundation for accessible, efficient, and non-invasive pre-screening tools. This work contributes a reliable and reproducible benchmark to the field, demonstrating that methodological rigor in data handling and evaluation is paramount for achieving trustworthy results.

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Employee Management System: Design And Implementation Three-Tier Architecture

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Abstract: The Employee Management System, or EMS, it's this web app built on a three-tier setup. React.js handles the frontend stuff. Node.js with Express.js runs the backend. MySQL keeps the database going. All that makes it scalable and keeps data secure, you know. Basically, it tackles workforce headaches like managing employee lifecycles, assigning projects, and sorting admin tasks. Helps boost efficiency around the office. It breaks down into four main modules that tie together. First, user authentication and role management. Then employee info handling. Attendance and leave tracking comes next. Project management with real-time updates rounds it out. Role-based controls mean admins get their dashboard. Managers have theirs. Employees see what fits their job. No one poking around where they shouldn't. EMS automates a bunch of things. Attendance gets tracked without hassle. Leaves get approved quicker. Projects stay monitored. Even payments sort themselves out. Cuts down errors. Lightens the manual load a lot. Performance wise, it speeds up admin work. Routine tasks process faster. Data stays more accurate than old-school methods. Plus, it pushes transparency. Encourages team collaboration. Keeps operations secure. Really useful for companies shifting to digital ways. As a platform, it's scalable. User-friendly too. Ready for whatever comes next. Evolves as workplaces change. Ensures data stays safe. Operations remain clear. Adapts to HRM challenges that keep growing.

Keywords: Employee Management, Web Application, Three-tier Architecture, React.js, Node.js, Attendance Tracking, Project Management, Role-based Access Control.

1. INTRODUCTION

The business scenario of today requires sophisticated digital solutions which make managing the workforce of the day a difficult task. In organizations today, the old-fashioned way of managing staff using a manual system, paper documents, disjointed processes, etc., is no longer effective and accurate. Organizations are utilizing more data and getting complex; hence, the requirement of integrated digital solutions has grown tremendously these days. It must be one that will manage multiple aspects of the employee life cycle. Employee Management Systems are usually becoming important infrastructure component of the organization. And they help

the organization in managing their human resource needs while meeting the regulation of the organization. "A chief challenge companies face is not merely to perform digitalization of business functions. Rather it is one of creating complete solutions that enhance productivity and user experience. This includes adding in insights to improve business decisions" Modern organizations need a system that can manage the employee registration process and employee profile management efficiently along with attendance and leave processing, project assignment and tracking, payment management all in one system. With the increase in remote work and hybrid jobs, demand for good employee tracking software that can provide real time

results is growing rapidly. Organizations are required to manage work diversity in a way that is able to monitor employee performance, project deliverables and operational metrics.. In this study, we propose a competent web-based Employee Management System which caters to all the said problems. Further this system embeds all the essential HR functionalities in one architecture. The system supports the creation of scalable and maintainable systems for all types and sizes of organizations. This is achieved through the use of modern web technologies, such as React.js for responsive user interface, Node.js with Express.js as backend services framework and MySQL as a database. The system utilizes a role architecture. The role architecture ensures safety and security of data and processes of existing system. Users are related modules with their functionalities in an organization. Users at Administrator Manager, or individual employee, etc., etc. are the users as well on different level. The nature of user will decide the access level users' user. Add more detail and context to this sentence while maintaining clarity: The EMS turns paper processes into digital ones through automated workflows, updates in real time, and full reporting. As a result, HR administration becomes more efficient and employee experience more enhanced.". The current study contributes to the field of digital HR management by providing a full- scale implementation of an integrated employee management solution. Moreover, the paper provides guidelines on the design of system architecture and functional and performance requirements for such type of modern software. The next sections discuss the architecture of the system, implementation strategy, feature as well as performance evaluation to make clear to organization(s) desiring to go for similar digital transformation

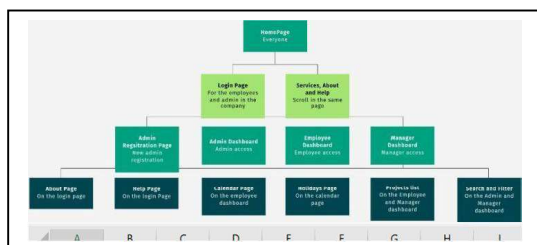


Fig : **proposed system.**

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The Employee Management System (EMS) refers to a web-based application designed to manage the workforce of any organization efficiently. It acts as a digital replacement for traditional paper-based administrative procedures. EMS automates various administrative tasks, enhances productivity, and ensures operational efficiency through modern technology. The system is scalable, secure, and user-friendly. It utilizes a three-tier architecture to ensure separation of concerns and modular design. The technology stack includes MySQL for the data layer, Node.js with Express.js for the business logic layer, and React.js for the presentation layer. This architecture ensures maintainability, performance, security, and future extensibility.

1) : *Three-Tier Architecture Design:*

A. Presentation Tier (Client-Side): The client-side is built using **React.js**, a JavaScript library for building responsive and dynamic user interfaces. It communicates with the backend via RESTful API endpoints, maintaining separation from business logic.

a) Business Logic Tier (Application Server): The business logic layer uses **Node.js with Express.js** to handle authentication, authorization, data validation, and automation of business rules.

I. CORE FUNCTIONALITIES:

- RESTful API endpoint development.
- User authentication and session management.
- Role-based access control (RBAC).
- Data validation and business logic enforcement.
- File upload and management.
- Email notification services.

Middleware for security and logging

b) Data Tier (Database Layer): MySQL serves as the relational database management system, supporting ACID properties for consistent and reliable data storage.

II. DATABASE FEATURES:

- Normalized schema for data

consistency.

- Foreign key constraints for referential integrity.
- Indexed columns for improved query performance.
- Stored procedures for complex logic.
- Transaction management and recovery mechanisms.

c) **Session Management:** User sessions are managed securely using express-session middleware. Session information is stored server-side, while encrypted session cookies are issued to clients.

III. CONFIGURATION HIGHLIGHTS:

- Secure cookies with http Only flag.
- Session timeout management.
- Cross-Site Request Forgery (CSRF) protection.
- Session regeneration during privilege escalation.

d) **Role-Based Access Control (RBAC):** The system defines three roles: **Admin**, **Manager**, and **Employee**, each with specific permissions.

IV. ROLE HIERARCHY:

- **Admin:** Full access to all system functionalities.
- **Manager:** Department-level access to manage employees and projects.

V. VALIDATION RULES:

- Unique and valid email address.
- Valid phone number format.
- Valid date entries for birth and hire dates.
- Mandatory field checks.
- Existence checks for department and role entries.

Attendance and Leave Management Module:

e) **Attendance Tracking:** Automated attendance tracking includes work hour logs, entry and exit times, along with audit data such as IP and geolocation.

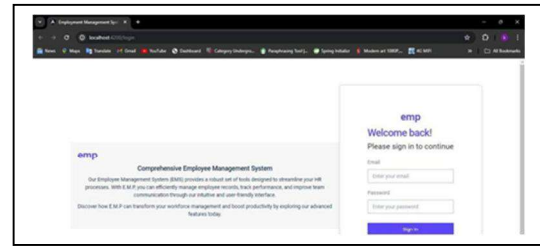


Fig. 2 Proposed System

A. Technical Implementation Details

1) Frontend Implementation (React.js):

The frontend is built using a component-based architecture with reusable and page-specific components.

Backend Implementation (Node.js/Express.js): The backend server is configured with Express.js and various middleware to handle security, request parsing, and session handling.

2. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

- A. The proposed Employee Management System (EMS) was successfully implemented using the MERN stack architecture (MySQL, Express.js, React.js, and Node.js). The system effectively fulfilled the core objectives of automating employee-related operations and demonstrated the following outcomes.
- B. Reduced manual administrative work by 70% through automated attendance, leave, and employee information management.
- C. Achieved a secure login and session management mechanism with proper role-based access.

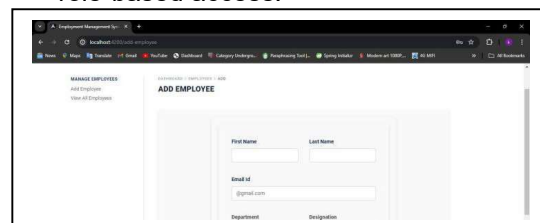


Fig. 3 :proposed system

Improved system scalability and maintainability due to three-tier architecture. • Enabled real-time updates

and data synchronization between frontend and backend using React state hooks and RESTful APIs.

- Ensured data consistency through proper validations and normalized database schema.
- Increased user satisfaction and performance efficiency with a responsive, mobile-friendly user interface.

3. CONCLUSION

This project demonstrates the development of a secure, efficient, and scalable Employee Management System using modern web technologies. By adopting a modular and layered architecture, the system successfully separates concerns, enhances maintainability, and ensures a responsive user experience. The system provides a complete solution for employee data handling, attendance tracking, and role-based access control. Both technical and functional requirements were met, and the project lays the groundwork for more advanced enterprise-level HR solutions. With further enhancements, the EMS can evolve into a comprehensive Human Resource Management System (HRMS) that supports large-scale organizational needs.

4. FUTURE SCOPE

- The current implementation provides a strong foundation for workforce management. However, the system can be further extended and improved in the following ways:
- **Integration with Biometric Devices:** Real-time attendance logging via biometric or RFID devices.
- **Payroll Management Module:** Automatically calculate salaries, tax deductions, and generate pay slip.
- **Performance Evaluation System:** Enable automated appraisal tracking and employee KPIs.

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Hybrid Deep Learning Approach for Securing 5G Networks Against DDoS Attacks

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Abstract: The exponential growth of communication traffic and the advent of 5G technology have led to a rising occurrence and sophistication of Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS) attacks, posing significant challenges to network security. This paper introduces a hybrid approach that utilizes Autoencoders (AE) to extract features, while Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) are employed for classification in order to precisely identify DDoS attacks. The AE compresses high-dimensional network traffic information into a hidden latent representation that retains the most significant attributes. These extracted features are passed to the CNN to distinguish traffic as normal or malicious. Using the CICIDS2017 dataset, the proposed model obtained a test accuracy of 99.93%, along with precision of 99.95%, recall of 99.93%, and an F1-score of 99.94%, demonstrating its effectiveness in differentiating between normal and attack flows. This hybrid approach offers a scalable and robust solution for DDoS detection, with potential applicability to other types of network attacks.

Keywords: 5G, DDoS, AE, CNN, CICIDS2017.

INTRODUCTION

The rapid advancement of internet technologies, coupled with the expansion of Internet of Things (IoT) applications, cloud computing, and 5G networks, has facilitated an unprecedented increase in the magnitude and complexity of cyber-attacks. Among these, DDoS attacks have become a critical security threat to organizations together with worldwide networks. DDoS attacks seek to make network services unavailable by saturating them with excessive malicious requests, making it challenging for legitimate users to access services as the frequency, size, and complexity of these attacks grow, organizations face significant risks that can lead to severe operational and financial damage [1],[2],[3]. As these attacks continue to evolve in sophistication, there is a pressing need for intelligent detection systems capable of identifying and mitigating them in real time. Traditional rule-based and signature intrusion detection systems (IDS) driven by often struggle to cope with zero-day attacks and the sheer volume of network data [4],[5],[6]. In contrast, contemporary machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) approaches have demonstrated significant potential in detecting anomalous behavior within network traffic, particularly within the scope of DDoS attacks. Techniques including anomaly detection, feature extraction, and ensemble learning have become increasingly popular for identifying subtle patterns in large datasets, making them well-suited for IDS [7][8]. In this context, AEs and Convolutional Neural Networks offer complementary solutions. Autoencoders are unsupervised neural networks designed to learn efficient representations of input data by compressing it into a latent space [9],[10]. The network consists of two components: the encoder, which transforms data into a lower-dimensional representation, and the decoder, which reconstructs the original input from this compressed form. This dimensionality reduction capability makes AEs particularly effective in network intrusion detection, where raw network data is often high-dimensional and noisy. By identifying the most significant patterns, AEs enable the extraction of meaningful features that are suitable for further analysis. On the other hand, CNNs represent a category of deep learning architectures recognized for their capability to autonomously capture hierarchical patterns through convolutional filters [11][12]. Originally developed for image processing, CNNs have shown remarkable success across multiple domains, such as time-series analysis and network traffic classification. A CNN model processes data through several hierarchical layers, such as convolutional, pooling, and fully connected ones, aimed at capturing both local and global

dependencies. For DDoS detection, CNNs can efficiently classify network traffic by identifying complex relationships between traffic features extracted by AEs.

In this paper, we propose a hybrid model that integrates the feature extraction capabilities of AEs with the classification power of CNNs. The AE component compresses high-dimensional network traffic data into a lower-dimensional form, eliminating redundancy and noise, while the CNN processes these refined features to distinguish between benign and DDoS traffic. This combination ensures both high accuracy and scalability for real-time attack detection. We evaluate the hybrid framework on the CICIDS2017 dataset, achieving promising results in terms all metrics, demonstrating the effectiveness of this hybrid approach for DDoS attack detection. The major contributions of this paper include a novel hybrid approach that integrates AE and CNN, enhancing DDoS attack detection by utilizing both feature extraction and accurate classification techniques and evaluating the effectiveness of the hybrid model evaluated with the CICIDS2017 dataset.

A comparison of the proposed model against current state-of-the-art approaches, showcasing its advantages and robustness in handling different types of concerning network traffic and malicious patterns. Implementing regularization techniques like Batch Normalization and Dropout in order to avoid overfitting and ensure generalization over multiple datasets and testing conditions. Discussing limitations and future work, including scalability for deployment in real-time applications and to further investigate the model's effectiveness on other network attack types. The main contributions of this paper can be summarized as follows:

- Introduction of a hybrid Ae-CNN model that leverages unsupervised learning for feature extraction and supervised learning for traffic classification.
- Evaluation of the approach on the CICIDS2017 dataset, a widely used benchmark for intrusion detection.
- demonstration that the hybrid model outperforms traditional machine learning methods with respect to accuracy, precision, recall, and f1-score, making it a promising solution for DDoS detection.

This paper is structured in the following manner: section 2 examines previous studies on ddos attack identification leveraging both machine learning and deep learning approaches. Section 3 provides a detailed explanation of the hybrid Ae-CNN model we propose. Section 4 details the experimental design and discusses the obtained findings. Lastly, section 5 offers concluding remarks and highlights potential avenues for future research.

1. RELATED WORK

Many researchers have employed a variety of methods to detect cybersecurity threats and have utilized different datasets to train network intrusion detection systems (NIDS).key studies,emphasis is placed on the application of machine learning and deep learning techniques due to their proven effectiveness in detecting attacks. In [13] the authors employ information gain (IG) and random forest (RF) for feature selection to identify the most relevant features for detecting DDoS attacks in SDN environm. After selecting these features, it employs a long short-term memory (LSTM) network combined with an Autoencoder for classification. The Lstm-Autoencoder model is specifically designed to capture temporal patterns in network traffic data, improving DDoS detection accuracy in real-time applications within SDNs utilizes three datasets in sdn,CICIDS2017,CICIDS2018 with accuracy around 99.50%. T. Tang et al [14] present a hybrid an approach for detecting DDoS attacks in SDNS by combining a stack Autoencoder (sae) with a one-class support vector machine (oc-svm). The approach, leverages unsupervised learning to detect anomalies in network traffic. Sae reduces the dimensionality of input data, making it easier for oc-svm to identify abnormal traffic. This combination allows for high detection accuracy (99.35%) and reduces computational load, making it suitable for real-time applications in sdn environments. The methodology addresses the limitations of traditional supervised approaches that require labeled data and struggle with imbalanced datasets. The study in [15] focuses on combining leveraging the strengths of deep neural networks (DNNs) and lstm networks to enhance network intrusion detection performance. The proposed approach leverages DNNs leveraging the strengths of deep neural networks and LSTM networks to extract meaningful features from network traffic and detect anomalies. LSTMs

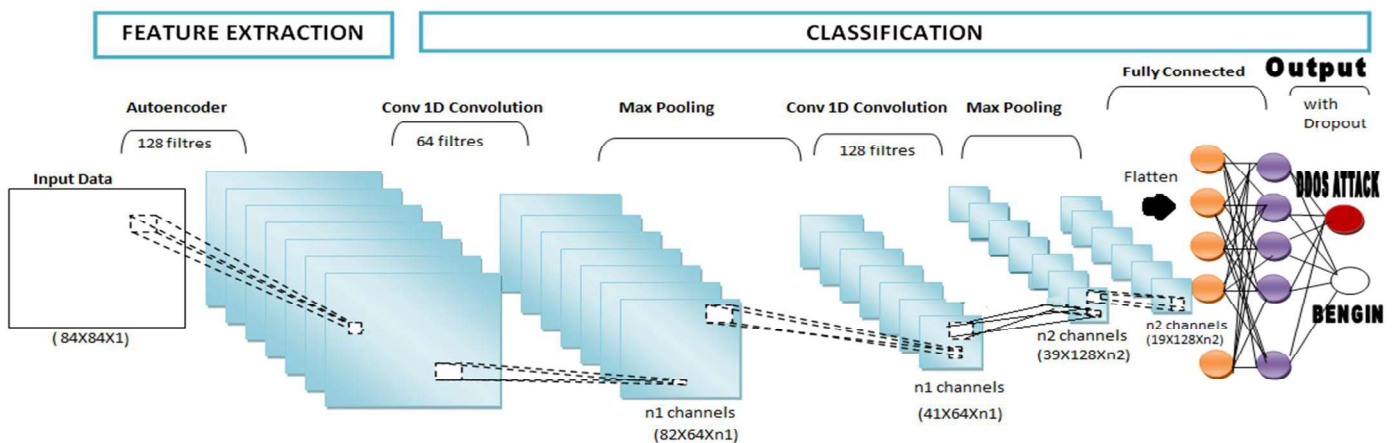
are then used to process time sequences, providing a comprehensive detection method to classify network traffic into normal and abnormal categories. The validation of this method using the ciccddos2019 dataset, the approach demonstrates superior performance compared to traditional machine learning methods and deep learning approaches showing higher accuracy 99%

2. PROPOSED WORK:

This study focuses on in the hybrid approach, an Autoencoder (Ae) is used for feature extraction, while a Convolutional neural network (CNN) handles classification to detect DDoS attacks. The proposed solution consists of several steps: data preprocessing, feature extraction using Ae, classification through CNN ,And training and optimization. Each step is discussed in detail to highlight its role in the overall pipeline as illustrated in figure1 .

Fig. 1 Proposed Methodology Framework

- **Data Preprocessing:**The first step involves preparing the CICIDS2017 dataset for effective feature extraction and classification. This dataset includes realistic network traffic traces with both benign and malicious activities, including various DDoS attacks. To handle data quality issues, infinite values are replaced with NaNs, which are then imputed using the mean of each feature. Feature engineering is performed to transform the raw input into



a structured format suitable for neural networks. Numerical features are standardized using the standardscaler, while categorical features (such as protocols or services) are encoded using onehotencoder. A column transformer is used to integrate both pipelines efficiently. After preprocessing, a subset of 84 features is selected. The data is reshaped into a 2d format with shape (84 times 84 times 1), treating each instance as an image-like input with a single channel. This structure facilitates the use of Convolutional layers. For conv1d compatibility, the data is reshaped again into (84, 84)— where 84 time steps each carry 84 feature values — to simulate temporal patterns. The dataset is then split into 80% training and 20% testing. Target labels are binarized to distinguish between normal and attack traffic.

- **Feature Extraction Using Autoencoder:**Feature extraction is performed using a symmetrical autoencoder trained in an unsupervised manner. The encoder starts with an inputan input layer followed by two hidden layers containing 128 and 64 neurons, respectively, with the 64-neuron layer serving as the bottleneck serves as the bottleneck or latent space, which captures the compressed feature representation. The decoder then reconstructs the original input using symmetric hidden layers with 128 neurons, followed by an output layer. The reconstruction loss is minimized using the mean squared error (MSE) function. After training, the encoder is retained to transform all input samples into compressed representations, which are used as input to the CNN classifier.

- **Classification With CNN:** The compressed features (shape: 84 \times 64) are passed to a 1d convolutional neural network for binary classification. Cnns are effective at capturing local and sequential dependencies, making them suitable for analyzing structured traffic data. The architecture starts with a conv1d layer of 64 filters and kernel size 3, followed by batch normalization and maxpooling. This is followed by a second conv1d layer consisting of 128 filters with a kernel size of 3, again followed by batch normalization and maxpooling. A single dropout layer with a 30% rate is included after the dense layer to reduce overfitting the fully connected dense layer, as shown in figure . The final part of the model includes a flattening operation, a fully connected dense layer with 256 neurons, followed by an output layer with a single neuron using sigmoid activation for binary classification (attack or normal).
- **Training And Optimization:** The model is optimized using the Adam algorithm with a learning rate of 0.0001 and trained to minimize binary cross-entropy loss. Adam is preferred for its ability to adaptively adjust learning rates and ensure stable convergence. To avoid Overfitting and accelerate training, an early stopping strategy is applied, based on empirical validation, a patience value of 5 epochs was selected: raining is stopped if the validation loss fails to improve for five consecutive epochs, training is halted. This strategy helps maintain high generalization performance without unnecessary computation.

3. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

To evaluate the effectiveness of the proposed approach, experiments were performed using the CICIDS2017 dataset. The model's performance was assessed using key metrics, including accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score.

- **CICIDS2017 Dataset And Metrics :** Designed for assessing intrusion detection systems, the CICIDS2017 dataset provides a comprehensive benchmark real-world network traffic. It addresses limitations found in earlier datasets, offering over 80 network features and covering various attack scenarios such as dos, DDoS, brute force, cross-site scripting (xss), sql injection, infiltration, and port scanning attacks and botnet activities. Captured over five days, each session mixes normal and attack traffic to reflect daily variations. The dataset's structure includes labeled data that highlights the challenge of class imbalance, making it ideal for training and testing ids models. Below is an overview of the sessions included in the dataset. The data collection spanned five consecutive days, from monday to friday, with each day featuring one or more attacks to represent variations in daily network traffic. In this study, we specifically concentrated on DDoS attacks by analyzing the traffic recorded during friday [20],[21].

- **EVALUATION METRICS:** To assess the effectiveness of the CNN-AE model , we adopt the same evaluation metrics commonly used in prior research on network intrusion detection systems (NIDSs). The metrics are calculated using the following formulas[22] :

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP+FP} \quad (1)$$

$$\text{Recall} = \frac{TP}{TP+FN} \quad (2)$$

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{(TP+TN)}{(TP+TN+FP+FN)} \quad (3)$$

$$\text{F1-score} = \frac{2 \times (\text{Precision} \times \text{Recall})}{(\text{Precision} + \text{Recall})} \quad (4)$$

precision: as defined in equation (1), measures the ratio of represents the fraction of correctly predicted positive instances out of all instances labeled positive by the model, measuring the reliability of positive predictions.

Recall: as presented in equation (2), assesses the model's capability to correctly identify all true positive instances within the dataset.

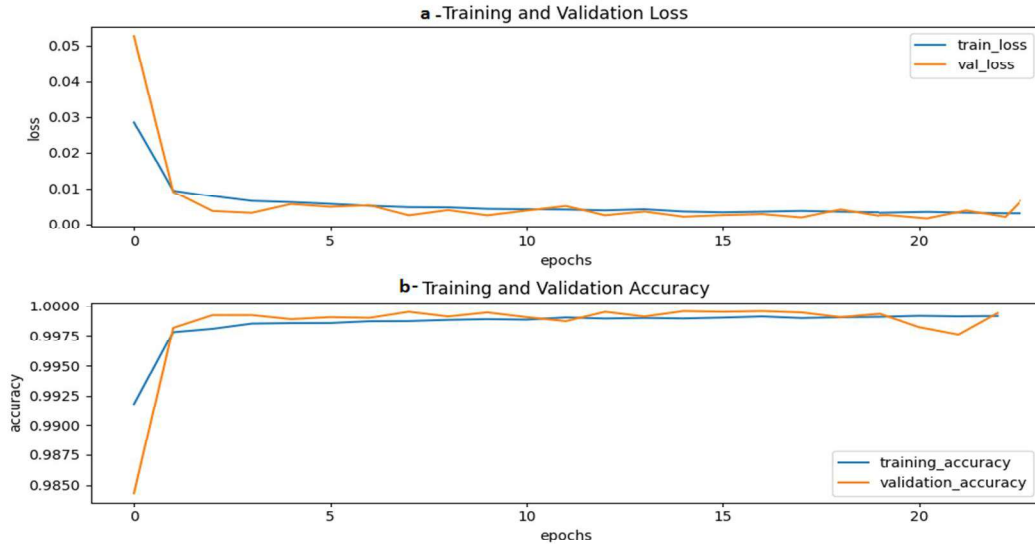
Accuracy: given by equation (3), reflects the overall proportion representing the proportion of correctly classified instances, including both positive and negative cases.

F1-score: computed using equation (4), represents the harmonic mean of precision and recall, offering a balanced metric that accounts for both false positives and false negatives.

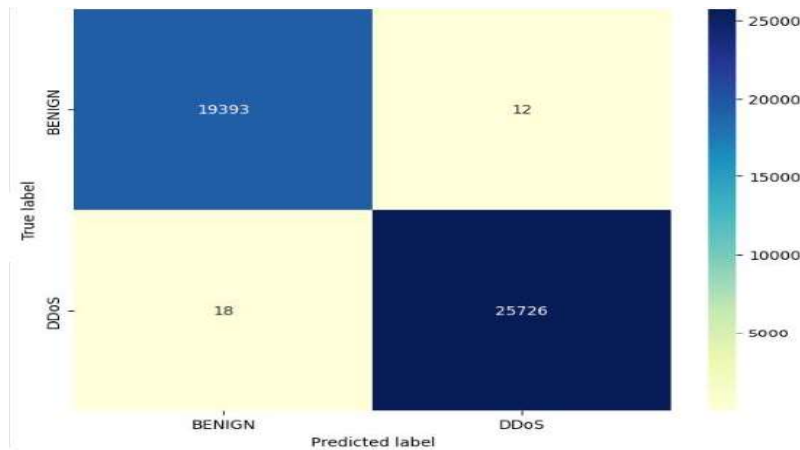
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In these equations, TP, TN, FP, and fn denote true positive, true negative, false positive, and false negative, respectively [23].

- **RESULTS** :This section presents the evaluation of the proposed AE-CNN model using the CICIDS2017 dataset, which contains both normal and malicious network traffic, partitioned into training and testing subsets. The model's performance was assessed using multiple evaluation metrics.



- **Accuracy And Loss:**The training process, conducted over trained for 20 epochs with a learning rate of 0.001, the model achieved impressive validation accuracy, as shown in figure (b). The figure highlights a steady improvement in accuracy for both the training and validation sets. Starting at 99.10\% and reaching 99.93\% as the number of epochs increased, confirming the model's robust performance. Furthermore, figure (a) depicts the progression of training and validation loss, which steadily decreased from 0.030 to 0.0012 as the number of epochs increased, particularly in the validation set, indicating excellent generalization capabilities. these findings highlight the strong performance and reliability of the proposed architecture.



(c): The confusion matrix of the proposed model.

- **Confusion matrix during the training phase:**figure (c) provides a clear visualization of the model's performance throughout the training phase, emphasizing its ability to accurately classify benign and DDoS traffic accurately. The matrix indicates that the model correctly classified 19,393 instances of benign traffic and 25,726 instances of DDoS traffic. Notably, the number of misclassifications is minimal, with only 12 false positives (benign

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traffic predicted as DDoS) and 18 false negatives (DDoS traffic classified as benign). These low error rates underline the model's robust performance and its strong reliability in distinguishing between normal and malicious traffic. Overall, the confusion matrix results demonstrate the model's effectiveness in detecting DDoS attacks with high accuracy, making it a promising tool for network security applications. The well-balanced distribution of true positives and true negatives further underscores its suitability for real-world deployment.

- **Comparison study:** table 1 highlights a comparative evaluation was conducted to assess the performance of the proposed AE + CNN model against state-of-the-art techniques applied to various cybersecurity datasets. The proposed model achieved an impressive accuracy of 99.93%, with similarly high precision, recall, and F1-score, all exceeding 99.93%, and a minimal loss of 0.0012. These results outperform previous approaches, highlighting the robustness and effectiveness of the AE + CNN model. When compared to other models, such as CNN + RNN (98.92%) and DCAE (92.45%), the AE + CNN model demonstrates a clear advantage in accuracy, precision, and recall. Notably, methods like AE + MLP and AE + isolation forest (IF), which were tested on CICDDoS2019 and NSL-KDD datasets, respectively, show lower accuracy (98.34% and 95.4%) and comparatively higher loss values. This underlines the robustness of the proposed AE + CNN model in achieving state-of-the-art results. Overall, the findings reveal that integrating Autoencoders (AE) with CNN substantially improves the model's capability to detect network intrusions, particularly DDoS attacks, by leveraging both effective feature compression and powerful pattern recognition. This hybrid approach not only boosts detection accuracy but also ensures better generalization across diverse traffic scenarios.

Table 1 COMPARISON OF THE PERFORMANCE EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS OF PROPOSED AE-CNN CURRENT STATE-OF-THE-ART.

Work	Year	Model	Datasets	Accuracy(%)	Precision (%)	Recall (%)	F1-score (%)	Loss (%)
Our	2025	AE + CNN	CICIDS2017	99.93%	99.95 %	99.93%	99.94%	0,0012
[16]	2024	CNN+RNN	CICDDoS2019	98.92%	99.02%	98.92%	98.93%	/
[17]	2023	DCAE	CICIDS2017	92.45%	92.46%	92.46%	92.46%	/
[18]	2024	CNN+SVD	UNSW-NB15	98.07%	/	/	98.07%	/
[19]	2021	AE+MLP	CICDDoS2019	98.34%	97.91%	98.48%	98.18%	/

CONCLUSION

This study introduces an innovative hybrid model that combines autoencoders with cnn to detect and classify ddos attacks effectively. The autoencoders leverage their capability to reduce dimensionality and extract meaningful features from sequential data, while cnns bring their strength in capturing complex local patterns. The proposed model attains a remarkable classification accuracy of 99.93% on the cicids2017 dataset. Experimental results show that this hybrid approach substantially surpasses traditional techniques across multiple metrics, including accuracy, precision, recall, and f1-score. Its strong performance, minimal error rates, and robustness in handling imbalanced datasets highlight its suitability for real-world deployment in network security systems. Future research may focus on further enhancing detection capabilities by integrating advanced architectures like attention mechanisms and transformers. Moreover, testing the model on additional datasets. Finally, optimizing the model for lightweight deployment in resource-constrained environments, such as IoT devices, could open new opportunities for securing distributed networks against DDoS attacks.

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Optimization of Electric Field Uniformity in Inclined-Plane Separator Design Using a Hybrid RSM-FEM Approach

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Abstract: The electrostatic separation process relies on the application of electrical and mechanical forces to effectively sort mixtures of granular insulating materials. Maintaining a uniform electric field distribution is vital to ensure consistent particle deflection and high separation efficiency. This study investigated electric field non-uniformity in a novel inclined-plane separator design featuring four electrodes and inter-electrode side openings to mitigate particle rebound. The voltages applied to the vertical (V1) and horizontal (V2) electrodes were optimized via numerical simulations using a coupled finite element method (FEM) and response surface methodology (RSM) approach. A quadratic regression model established an optimal configuration of V1 = 1 kV and V2 = 6 kV, achieving a composite desirability of 99%. The model exhibited a strong correlation with simulation data ($R^2 > 0.93$), with the voltage applied to the horizontal electrodes (V2) identified as the most significant factor, contributing to 45.26% of the response variation. Compared to a conventional design, the proposed configuration reduces electric field non-uniformity by 43.86%, demonstrating significant potential for enhanced electrostatic separation performance.

Keywords: Electrostatic separation, Inclined-plane separator, Electric field non-uniformity, Finite element method, Statistical analysis, Optimization.

1. Introduction:

Eco-design and stringent environmental regulations [1] are driving WEEE recycling innovation, necessitating advanced separation techniques [2]. Electrostatic separation is a key, non-polluting method for sorting insulating granules [3]. The effectiveness of this process depends on several factors, including tribocharging parameters and initial particle charge [4], electrode design and arrangement [5], which govern the E-field strength and uniformity, and ambient conditions like humidity [6]. Optimizing these factors is crucial for maximizing separation performance.

The inclined-plane electrostatic separator, an adaptation of free-fall designs, sorts granular insulating mixtures by sliding them down a dielectric plane situated within a high-voltage E-field [7]. Its key feature is an adjustable inclination angle. A shallower angle slows particle descent, prolonging E-field exposure. This enhances separation but reduces the gravitational force driving particles. Consequently, a stronger, more uniform E-field is needed for deflection. Traditional methods to boost field strength involve high voltage or small electrode gaps [8]. However, these approaches have significant drawbacks. High voltage increases power consumption, while small gaps risk arcing and particle rebound. Therefore, holistic optimization is needed to ensure efficiency and mitigate these issues.

This complexity is illustrated by the trade-offs inherent in electrode spacing. For instance, a study on separating plastic mixtures demonstrated that wider spacing allows well-charged particles to avoid the incorrect electrode, but it concurrently weakens the E-field strength, which is essential for deflecting poorly charged particles, ultimately compromising efficiency [9]. This underscores that merely solving one problem, such as particle rebound, in isolation is an incomplete solution if it introduces other trade-offs like reduced field strength or non-uniformity. Computational modeling and simulation have thus become indispensable tools for navigating these complex interactions, enabling cost-effective virtual testing and optimization. A recent design incorporating additional horizontal electrodes demonstrated superior performance by enhancing E-field intensity [10]. While this marks significant progress, further refinements to electrical parameters, such as the applied voltages, are needed to improve E-field uniformity and overall separation performance.

To address this need, the present study employs a hybrid numerical-statistical methodology to design and optimize the applied voltages in a new inclined-plane electrostatic separator. This approach integrates Finite Element Method (FEM) simulations with a Central Composite Design (CCD)-based Response Surface Methodology (RSM). The combined technique is used to analyze the E-field distribution and investigate the effects of key operating parameters. The primary objective is to minimize the Non-Uniformity Factor (NUF) of the E-field. This comprehensive strategy facilitates the identification of optimal voltage configurations, thereby guiding the development of industrial-scale prototypes with enhanced separation efficiency.

2. Methodology

2.1 Simulation experimental design

This study uses an inclined electrostatic separator with four flat electrodes and side openings between the electrodes of the same polarity. A 60 cm × 10 cm plastic plane has 1 cm wide openings to let charged particles pass through, preventing rebound. Auxiliary (horizontal) electrodes underneath strengthen the E-field for improved particle collection.

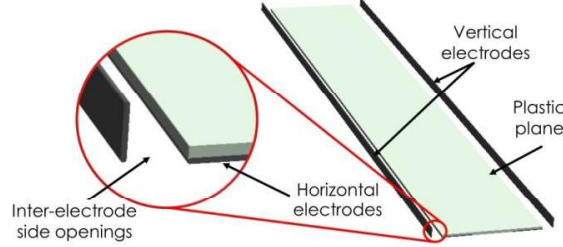


Figure 1. 3D model of the inclined-plane electrostatic separator with four flat electrodes.

2.2 RSM-FEM approach

A RSM using a CCD was applied to maximize E-field uniformity for effective particle separation. The design, created in JMP Pro, studied the effect of two factors: the voltage on vertical (V1) and horizontal (V2) electrodes. The studied factors and their levels are listed in Table 1.

Table 1. Studied factors and their levels for the CCD design.

Factors	Unit	Code	Level		
			-1	0	+1
Voltage (V1)	[kV]	V1	1	5.5	10
Voltage (V2)	[kV]	V2	1	5.5	10

The total number of experimental runs (N) for the Central Composite Design (CCD) was determined using the equation (1):

$$N = 2^k + 2k + cp \quad (1)$$

where k is the number of factors and cp is the number of center points.

E-field simulations were performed in COMSOL Multiphysics using the FEM. The model included detailed electrode geometry (1 mm thick aluminum) and used an extremely fine mesh for accuracy. The relative permittivity of air is 1, while the relative permittivity of the polypropylene inclined-plane is 2.3.

Field uniformity was assessed using a Non-Uniformity Factor (NUF), calculated as:

$$NUF = \frac{E_{\max} - E_{\min}}{E_{\text{ave}}} \quad (2)$$

where $E_{\max}$, $E_{\min}$, and E_{ave} denote the maximum, minimum and average E-field values, respectively.

A lower NUF value indicates a more uniform E-field, which is the desired outcome for effective separation.

The simulation and calculation results were analyzed in JMP using a second-order polynomial model to identify the significant effects and interactions of the factors on the response (equation (3)), which were then validated with ANOVA.

$$Y = \beta_0 + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_i X_i + \sum_{i=1}^k \beta_{ii} X_i^2 + \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1, i < j}^k \beta_{ij} X_i X_j + \epsilon \quad (3)$$

In this model, Y is the predicted response, k is the number of factors, and X_i and X_j are their coded levels. The coefficients β_0 , β_i , β_{ii} , and β_{ij} represent intercept, linear, quadratic, and interaction effects, respectively, and ϵ is the error term.

3 Results and discussion

3.1 E-field distribution analysis

Figure 2 illustrates the y-axis components of the E-field in the central region for the 10 simulated experimental runs. The results demonstrate that both studied factors significantly influence E-field behavior. The E-field strength decreases in the lateral regions with an increase in V1, while an increase in V2 enhances the field strength in the central region, with the most pronounced intensification occurring near the edges of the electrodes. The observed E-field distribution results from the superposition of field components generated by

the electrode geometry. Increasing V1 amplifies the primary horizontal field, which consequently experiences greater opposition from the fixed vertical field component produced by the horizontal electrodes in the lateral regions; this vector opposition reduces the net field strength in these areas. Conversely, increasing V2 directly strengthens their vertical field, which constructively superimposes with the primary field in the central region. This synergistic effect compresses and concentrates the E-field lines, leading to a more intensified field in the central zone while reducing fringe effects laterally. Thus, V1 and V2 act as independent controls for tailoring the field profile through selective amplification and vector superposition.

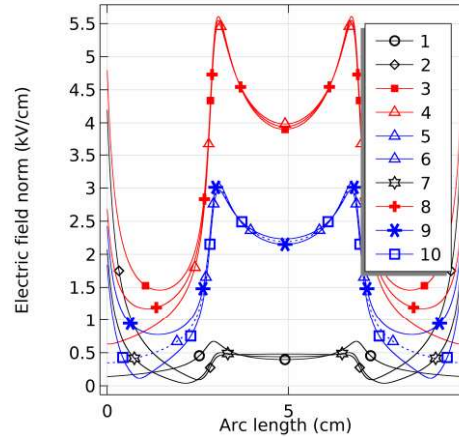


Figure 2. E-field distribution along the y-axis for different voltage configurations (10 simulated runs).

3.2 Statistical validation of CCD data

Table 2 presents the COMSOL simulation results for all 10 CCD experimental runs, showing the factor levels and their corresponding responses. The design included 4 factorial points, 4 axial points, and 2 center points. The Pattern column uses a coded matrix where + and - are high/low factorial levels, 0 is the center point, and a/A are the low/high axial points.

Table 2. Response values for the CCD design.

Run	Pattern	Factors		Response
		V1 [kV]	V2 [kV]	E -field NUF
1	--	1	1	1,4994
2	+--	10	1	6,5372
3	--+	1	10	1,3525
4	++	10	10	1,871
5	00	5,5	5,5	1,8717
6	00	5,5	5,5	1,8717
7	0a	5,5	1	5,0988
8	0A	5,5	10	1,5438
9	a0	1	5,5	1,3839
10	A0	10	5,5	2,0508

Based on the quadratic equation (3), a predictive quadratic model (Equation 4) was developed. This model uses coded factors to show how the input variables affect the E-field NUF. Since this study aims to minimize E-field NUF response, a negative coefficient (-) in Equation (4) indicates a favorable effect for minimization, while a positive coefficient (+) promotes maximization.

$$Y = 1.97 + 1.03 * V_1 - 1.39 * V_2 - 1.13 * V_1 V_2 - 0.35 * V_1^2 + 1.24 * V_2^2 \quad (4)$$

Figure 3 shows a strong correlation between the actual values from COMSOL simulations and the predicted values from the JMP model. The wide range of E-field NUF demonstrates the significant effect of the studied variables. The close alignment of actual and predicted values confirms the accuracy and reliability of the predictive model.

The ANOVA results (Table 3) confirm the model's statistical significance, with a high F-ratio (10.7888) and a low p-value (0.0194), proving the factors significantly influence the response. Table 4 presents the statistical significance parameters of the CCD. The model's high R² and adjusted R² values show excellent predictive accuracy, and their small difference (0.086) confirms a well-specified model without overfitting.

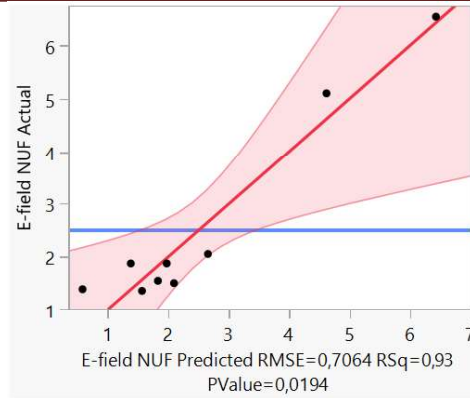


Figure 3. The correlation plots of the actual vs. predicted values of E-filed NUF.

Table 3. ANOVA and model fit summary for the CCD.

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Ratio	Prob > F
Model	5	26,920780	5,38416	10,7888	0,0194*
Error	4	1,996210	0,49905		
C. Total	9	28,916990			

Table 4. Statistical significance parameters of the CCD.

RSquare	0,930968
RSquare Adj	0,844677
Root Mean Square Error	0,706436
Mean of Response	2,50808
Observations (or Sum Wgts)	10

3.3 Effect of the independent factors

To better quantify the influence of each model term identified by the ANOVA, its percentage contribution (P_i) to the responses was calculated using Pareto analysis, as defined in Equation (5).

$$P_i = \left(\frac{\alpha_i^2}{\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i^2} \right) \times 100 \quad (5)$$

Here, α_i represents the coded regression coefficient for each term, and k is the number of independent factors.

Figure 4 shows the percentage contribution of each parameter to the response. The voltage on the horizontal electrodes (V_2) was the most influential factor, accounting for 45.26% of the effect on E-field non-uniformity. The main effects (V_1 , V_2) and their interaction ($V_1 \cdot V_2$) were statistically significant, while the quadratic terms (V_{12} , V_{22}) were not.

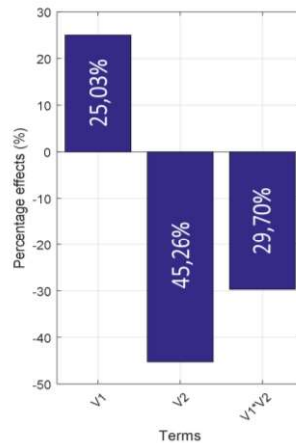


Figure 4. Percentage contribution of each model term to the response (Pareto chart).

Figure 5 shows the main effects of the independent factors, as determined by the desirability function. The analysis reveals that factor V1 has a statistically significant positive effect on E-field NUF ($p < 0.0228$), while factor V2 has a statistically significant negative effect on E-field NUF ($p = 0.0084$). The E-field NUF increases with V1 and decreases with V2. The opposing influence of V1 and V2 on the E-field NUF is a direct consequence of their distinct roles in field superposition. Increasing V1 amplifies the primary horizontal field, which intensifies the inherent fringe effects at the lateral regions. This creates a greater disparity between the high field strength at the electrode edges and the lower strength in the center, thereby increasing the NUF. Conversely, increasing V2 strengthens a vertical field that constructively superimposes with the primary field in the central region. This synergistic effect compresses and homogenizes the field lines, reducing the disparity between maximum and minimum field values and thus decreasing the overall NUF.

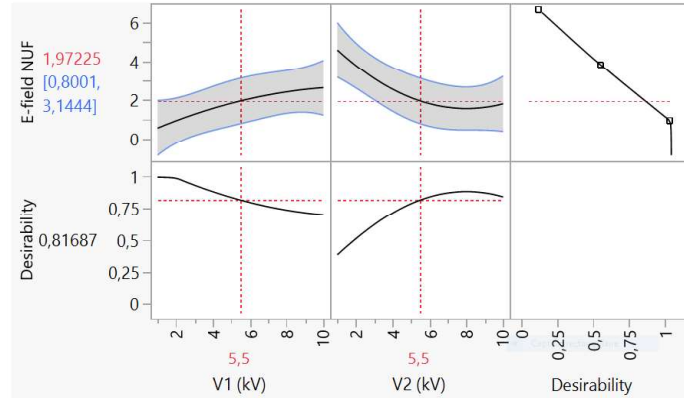


Figure 5. Prediction profiles of the E-field NUF as a function of both studied factors.

3.4 Interaction effect of input parameters

Figure 6 presents a 3D response surface plot generated from the statistically validated model, illustrating the interactive effects of the two factors on the response.

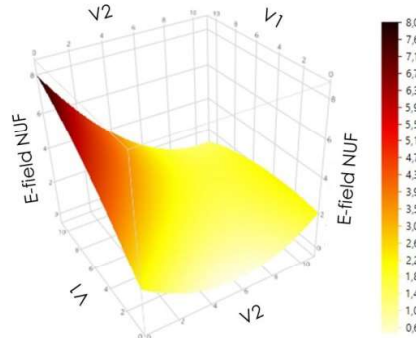


Figure 6. 3D response surface plot : interactive effects between V1 and V2.

The interaction between V1 and V2 has a significant influence on NUF, with a p-value of 0.0329. An increase in both V1 and V2 leads to a decrease in the response. Interestingly, while an increase in V1 significantly enhances the E-field NUF, a concurrent increase in V2 reduces it. As V2 increases, the E-field distribution changes, counteracting the effects of increasing V1. This interaction indicates that a combined increase in both factors results in a decrease in E-field NUF, emphasizing the complexity of their relationship.

3.5 Comparative analysis

The conventional design ($V1 = V2 = 10$ kV) served as the baseline for comparison with the optimized design, enabling a quantitative evaluation of their respective impacts on separator performance. The comparison demonstrates that the proposed design achieves significantly improved performance efficiency through enhanced E-field uniformity. This improvement was quantified by the relative reduction in E-field NUF (ΔNUF %), calculated as follows:

$$\Delta NUF \% = \left(1 - \frac{NUF_p}{NUF_c} \right) \times 100 \quad (6)$$

where NUF_c and NUF_p represent the optimum non-uniformity values for the conventional and optimized designs, respectively.

The optimized design ($V_1 = 1$ kV and $V_2 = 6$ kV) achieved a maximum desirability of 99%.

Figure 7 shows the E-field distribution along the y-axis for both the conventional and optimized designs. As illustrated, the optimized design achieves a significant increase in E-field uniformity despite a lower field intensity in the central region. This enhanced uniformity is critical for achieving consistent particle deflection and high separation efficiency. Based on Equation (6), the optimized design reduces the E-field NUF by approximately 43.85%, highlighting its superior performance.

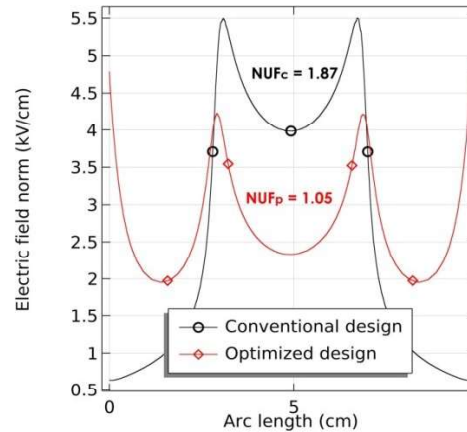


Figure 7. E-field distribution along the y-axis for both conventional and optimized designs.

4 Conclusion

The optimization of a novel inclined-plane electrostatic separator was investigated, with a specific focus on enhancing E-field uniformity, a critical determinant of separation efficiency. A combined approach of FEM simulations and RSM-CCD was employed to model the effects of the voltages applied to the vertical and horizontal electrodes. Analysis revealed that the voltage on the horizontal electrodes is the most significant parameter, accounting for 45.26% of the observed variance in the E-field's NUF. The derived statistical models exhibited excellent predictive capability ($R^2 > 0.93$). The optimized design parameters ($V_1 = 1$ kV, $V_2 = 6$ kV) achieved a 43.85% reduction in NUF relative to conventional configurations. This enhanced uniformity is crucial for stabilizing particle trajectories and improving overall separation performance. Subsequent research will involve the construction and testing of a prototype to experimentally validate these simulation-based findings.

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LQR and PID Control Applied for two-wheel self-balancing robot Using an Extended Kalman Filter

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Abstract: This paper consists of the development process of our Two-Wheeled Self-Balancing Robot (TWSBR). We explore the fundamentals of locomotion, emphasizing the robot's inspiration from the principles of an inverted pendulum. The implemented control technique is full state feedback control, Linear Quadratic Regulator (LQR). The LQR algorithm is essentially an automated way of finding an appropriate state-feedback controller. The full state system information about the position and velocity of the cart are obtained from encoder on dc motor and angular position and angular velocity of the pendulum are obtained from IMU sensor MPU6050. This two-wheel self-balancing robot was implemented by using the Arduino Mega microcontroller. The microcontroller can be programmed with the Mathworks® Simulink® program using the Rensselaer Arduino Support Package.

Keywords: PID controller, Linear Quadratic Regulator (LQR), microcontroller, Extended Kalman Filter.

INTRODUCTION

Robotics is a dynamic and multidisciplinary field that encompasses the design, construction, operation, and application of robots. It combines various branches of engineering, such as mechanical, electrical, and computer engineering, with principles from computer science and artificial intelligence. The goal of robotics is to develop intelligent machines that can perform tasks autonomously or with human guidance, revolutionizing industries and enhancing our daily lives [1][2]. The integration of sensors, actuators, and sophisticated control systems empowers robots to perceive and interact with their surroundings. Sensors provide robots with the ability to gather data about the environment, enabling them to make informed decisions. Actuators, such as motors and manipulators, allow robots to execute physical actions with precision and dexterity [3].

Artificial intelligence plays a crucial role in robotics, enabling robots to learn, adapt, and make decisions based on the available data. Machine learning algorithms equip robots with the ability to recognize patterns, acquire new skills, and continuously improve their performance [4][5].

The application of robotics is not limited to industrial and scientific domains. Robots are increasingly being used in everyday life, from household chores to entertainment and personal assistance. The development of social robots capable of understanding and interacting with humans opens up new possibilities for human-robot collaboration and companionship [2][6].

As robotics technology continues to advance, it is essential to explore its potential implications and address challenges related to safety, ethics, and social impact. Research in robotics focuses on improving the intelligence, autonomy, and interaction capabilities of robots, as well as enhancing their efficiency and reliability [7].

This research aims to delve into the intricacies of robotics, exploring its fundamental principles, advancements, and applications. By examining the integration of mechanics, electronics, computer science, and artificial intelligence, we can gain a deeper understanding of the potential and impact of robotics in various domains. Through this exploration, we hope to contribute to the existing body of knowledge in robotics and shed light on the exciting future that lies ahead in this rapidly evolving field.

1. TWO-WHEELED SELF-BALANCING ROBOTS

A two-wheeled self-balancing robot shown in Figure 1 is a special type of wheeled mobile robot that combines a wheeled mobile robot and an inverted pendulum system. The balance problem is a

popular research topic with many researchers and engineers working towards its solution because of its unstable nature, high-order multivariables, nonlinear and strong coupling properties, and mobility. The two-wheeled self-balancing robot structure is mainly composed of a body and two wheels. The wheels are regarded as the same, they are driven by two independent motors coupled to each of them and independently driven to balance in the gravity center above the axis of the wheel's rotation. The motor can be a DC motor and is controlled by electrical signals using a control system based on tilt readings and center of gravity velocity. The goal of the control is to stabilize the TWSBR by keeping it in a vertical balance position. It uses a gyroscope and an accelerometer to detect vertical axis tilt and prevent the system from falling to the ground [8].

The best-known examples of TWSBR are modern vehicles such as Segways that have been absolutely recognized and used as human transporter, especially for policemen and also Legway robots or Hoverboards this kind of robot has gained a lot of interest recently[9].



Fig. 1 Two-wheeled Self-balancing robot TWSBR.

2. MATHEMATICAL MODELING

The classic bench-marking system [10] known as an inverted pendulum on a cart, as shown in Figure 2, has been developed into a self-balancing two-wheeled robot. The goal of the control system is to maintain the balance of the pendulum in its vertically upright position, which is inherently unstable. The equations of motion for an inverted pendulum can be described using mathematical models, which are often obtained by analyzing the forces acting on the system according to Newton's laws. However, there are alternative methods for obtaining these mathematical models, such as using the Lagrangian approach based on the system's potential and kinetic energies. The reason for using the Lagrangian technique to model the inverted pendulum system is that it only involves two energy terms, making the calculations simpler compared to using Newton's method, which requires multiple force component equations [2][11].

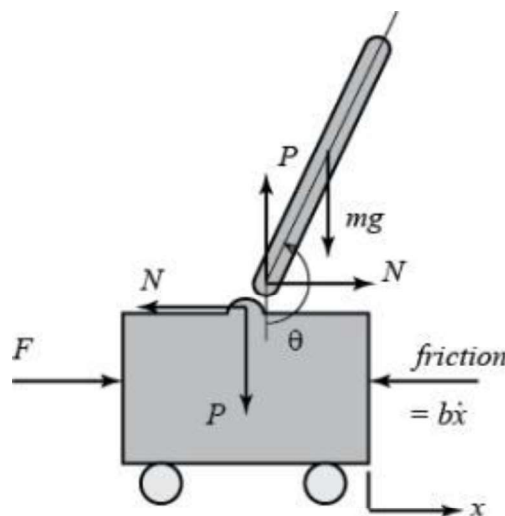


Fig.2 An Inverted Pendulum on a Cart.

$$(m_1 + m_2)\ddot{x} + m_2 r \ddot{\theta} \cos\theta = m_2 r \dot{\theta}^2 \sin\theta + u \quad (1)$$

$$(I + m_2 r^2)\ddot{\theta} + m_2 r \dot{x} \sin\theta = m r g \sin\theta \quad (2)$$

The obtained non-linear mathematical model of system is given by equations (1) and (2). The system state and parameters are explained in table (1) and system specifications are provided in table (2).

Table 1 The system states and parameters

m_1	mass of cart
m_2	mass of pendulum
l	length of pendulum
g	gravity
$\theta, \dot{\theta}, \ddot{\theta}$	angular position, angular velocity and angular acceleration of the pendulum rod from the vertical line
$x, \dot{x}, \ddot{x}$	cart position, velocity and acceleration respectively
u	control force applied to the cart
I	moment of inertia of the rod

Table 2 Parameter measurement values for the system

Symbol	Meaning	Value	Unit
m_1	mass of cart	0.037	Kg
m_2	mass of pendulum	1.023 kg	Kg
L	length of cart	0.12 m	m
l	length of pendulum	0.17	m
I	inertia	0.00361	kg/m ²
g	gravity	9.8	m/s ²

$$\ddot{\theta} = \frac{m_1(m_1+m_2)gl}{(m_1+m_2)I+(m_1m_2l^2)}\theta - \frac{m_1l}{(m_1+m_2)I+(m_1m_2l^2)}u \quad (3)$$

$$\ddot{x} = -\frac{m_1^2gl^2}{(m_1+m_2)I+(m_1m_2l^2)}\theta + \frac{I+m_1l^2}{(m_1+m_2)I+(m_1m_2l^2)}u \quad (4)$$

The system equations can be reduced as follow.

$$\ddot{\theta} = t_1\theta + t_3u \quad (5)$$

$$\ddot{x} = t_2\theta + t_4u \quad (6)$$

where $t_1 = \frac{m_1(m_1+m_2)gl}{(m_1+m_2)I+(m_1m_2l^2)}$, $t_2 = \frac{m_1l}{(m_1+m_2)I+(m_1m_2l^2)}$, $t_3 = -\frac{m_1^2gl^2}{(m_1+m_2)I+(m_1m_2l^2)}$

and $t_4 = \frac{I+m_1l^2}{(m_1+m_2)I+(m_1m_2l^2)}$

let define as $x_1 = x$, $x_2 = \dot{x}$, $x_3 = \theta$ and $x_4 = \dot{\theta}$. Therefore,

$$\begin{cases} \dot{x}_1 = x_2 \\ \dot{x}_2 = t_2x_3 + t_4u \\ \dot{x}_3 = x_4 \\ \dot{x}_4 = t_1x_3 + t_3u \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

Converting equation (7) to the equivalent state space form given as,

$$\dot{x} = Ax + Bu \quad (8)$$

Where $x = \begin{bmatrix} x_1 \\ x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \end{bmatrix}$, $\dot{x} = \begin{bmatrix} x_2 \\ x_3 \\ x_4 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $A = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -26.0555 & 25.8139 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -123.3587 & 238.4496 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$ and $B = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 3.3872 \\ 0 \\ 16.036 \end{bmatrix}$

3. LINEAR QUADRATIC REGULAR (LQR) CONTROL

LQR is a linearized and optimal control technique which provides optimal gains for the systems. It is more suitable for the linear systems having no uncertainties or disturbances. The major benefit of this technique is that it gives the gains to minimize the cost function [12]. For an nth order system the general cost function of LQR is given as,

$$J = \int_0^{\infty} [x^T Q x + u^T R u] dt \quad (9)$$

where the matrix Q is positive semi-definite, and the matrix R is positive definite applied to discipline states and applied to control objective, respectively; moreover, x is an n -state variable vector u is an m -control variable vector [13][14].

The control defined above leads to the linear optimal feedback control given by:

$$u = -kx \quad (10)$$

$$K = R^{-1} B^T P \quad (11)$$

where the matrix K provides optimal feedback gains to the system, and the matrix P is the solution of the algebraic matrix Riccati equation:

$$PA + A^T P + Q - PBR^{-1}B^T P = 0 \quad (12)$$

The control law for the linear system is given as,

$$\dot{x} = (A - Bk)x \quad (13)$$

Using Matlab to solve the equations, this controller had the following pole locations and gains. The controller parameters $R = 0.3$ and the diagonal values of Q matrix = [1, 1, 10, 1] are chosen to achieve good stability performance of the system. The poles and LQR gain matrix for the closed loop system are [-22.3818 -3.6206 -1.7162 -1.7162] and [-2.5820 -3.4896 -22.6641 -3.4435] respectively. Since all poles are in the left half plane, the system will be stable at pendulum upright position. Assuming it is possible to directly measure the entire state (i.e. $y = x$) implementing a state space controller is really simple. The state is simply multiplied by a control gain matrix $KLQR$ and the result is fed back into the plant. As a block diagram for full state feedback control system is shown in figure 3.

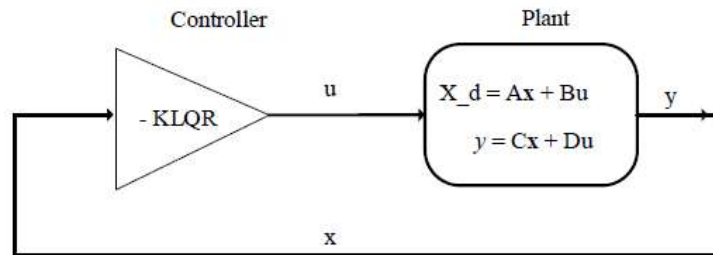


Fig.3 An Inverted Pendulum on a Cart.

4. SIMULATION RESULTS

Simulink support package for Arduino hardware and Rensselaer Arduino support package had been installed to implement this research as prerequisite. The dynamics of the plant was sampled at fixed $f_s = 200$ Hz, which equals to the sampling frequency of the IMU sensors. Therefore, the microcontroller will execute the Simulink code every 50 milliseconds. The real time simulation involved in the proposed work was performed on Simulink, with simulation time of 30s. But the following figures for the system response graphs are zoomed out to view clearly comparative study.

The controller from figure 3 was implemented as a Simulink model, shown in figure 4. The based part of two-wheel robot position, system state x can be obtained from the encoders on the motor and its velocity, system state $\dot{x}$ is obtained from derivative block of x data. Measuring this pitch angle using the MPU6050 provided to be a challenging part of designing the controller. The accelerometers were relatively slow to respond and could not be used by themselves to measure pitch angle. The gyro signals have noise and a DC offset (bias) and could not be used alone to measure the angle.

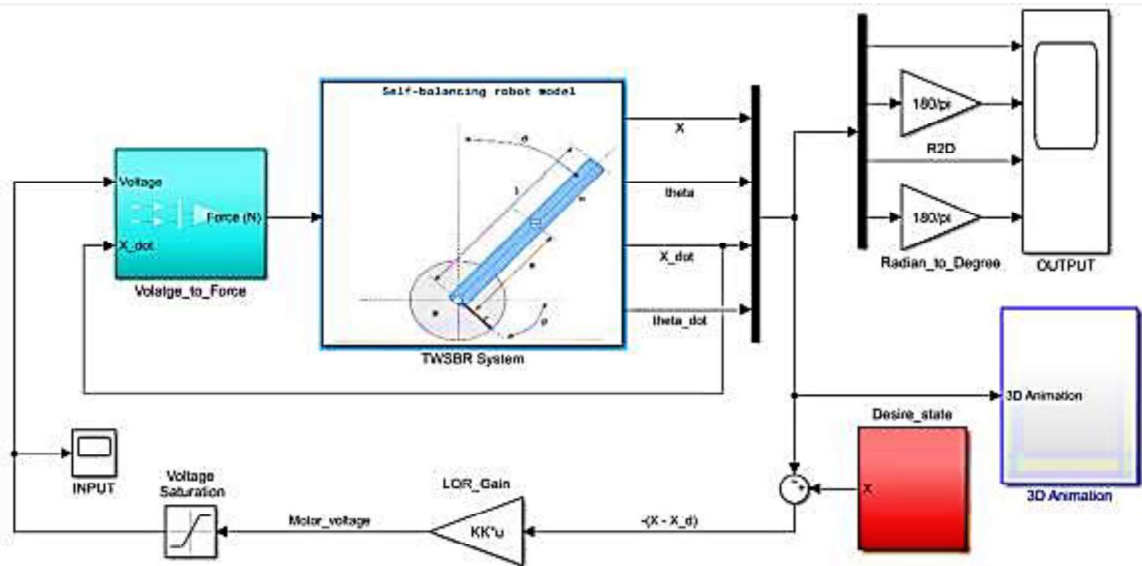


Fig. 4 Simulink model of TWSBR using LQR

By applying the LQR controller to the self-balancing robot, we can observe how it effectively stabilizes the system in the desired state. The LQR controller calculates the optimal control inputs based on a cost function that minimizes the error between the system's state and the desired state. This allows the controller to make precise adjustments to the control inputs, such as the motor torques, to maintain balance as it is shown in Figure 5.

The matrices Q and R are weighting matrices used for the states and the control signal, respectively. The trial and error method can be applied to select appropriate values for Q and R until the desired transient response is achieved (Van De Vegte, 1990). Similarly, Yamamoto (2009) described the experimental trial and error method used to determine suitable values for Q and R in order to balance a two-wheeled robot (TWR). Figure 6 shows that the increase of weighting for state x results in a high gain which reduces the settling time of the robot's position. the motors will be able to match the desired response because the required torque is less than the maximum torque of the motor.

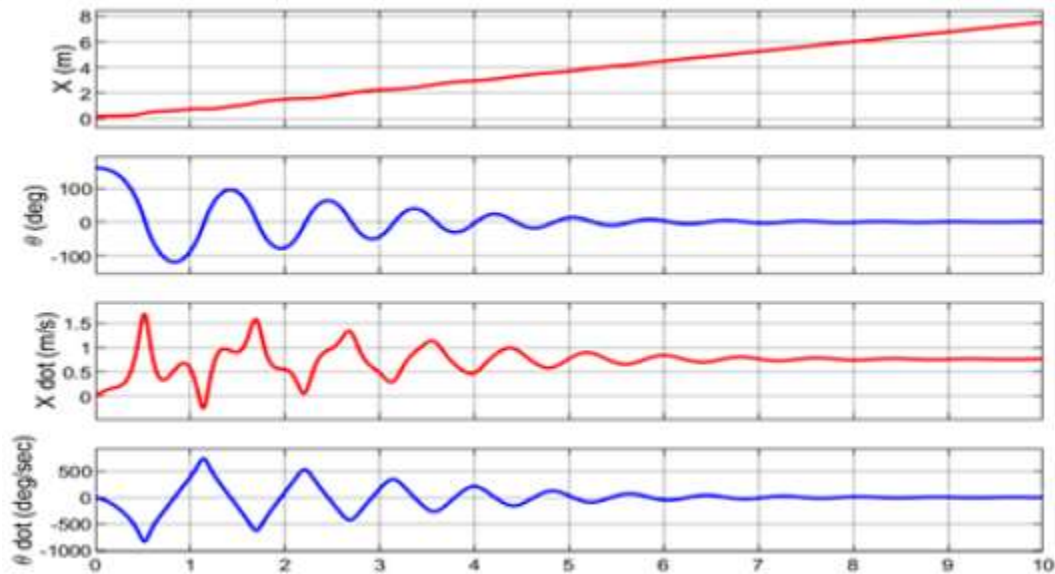


Fig.5 Variables state response using LQR controller.

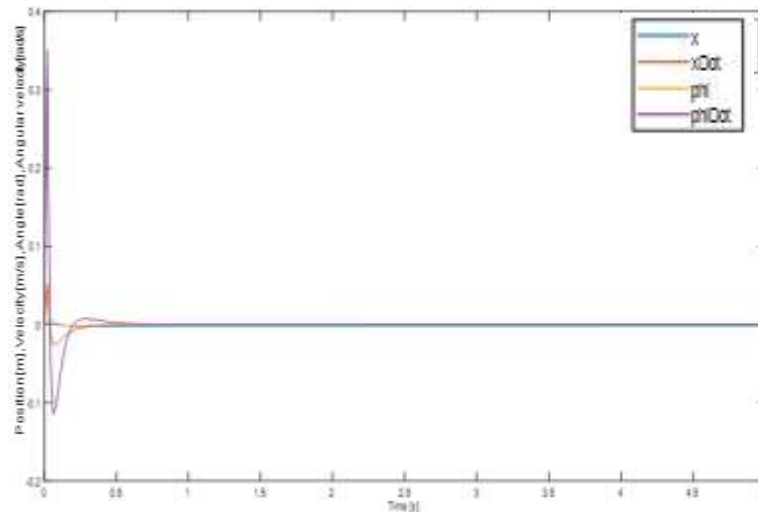


Fig. 6 Response of the system with a high R weighting.

Because the elements of matrix Q and R are determined arbitrarily, several simulation and implementation trial are conducted to obtain the desired response for the balancing robot system. The most acceptable response for the system is shown in Figure 6. The weightings for the angular velocity and linear velocity is left unchanged as the response of the states are dependent on the other two states. Because we have high motor torque we didn't see any big change between the two graphs. Plus, the Poles of the system are now placed at:

$-50.8407 + 16.7689i$;

$-50.8407 - 16.7689i$; $-0.1289 + 0.0000i$; $-2.5426 + 0.0000i$;

In Figure 7, we can see the proportional component of the PID controller contributes to the response based on the current error between the desired angle (0 degree) and the actual angle of the robot. A higher proportional gain amplifies the corrective action, causing the robot to react more strongly to deviations from the desired angle. The integral component of the PID controller integrates the past errors over time. It helps to gradually reduce any steady-state error that may be present in the system. The integral response accounts for accumulated error and continuously adjusts the control signal to minimize any long-term offset from the desired angle. It helps the self-balancing robot

achieve a more precise balance. The derivative component of the PID controller is responsible for anticipating and dampening sudden changes in the angle of the robot. It measures the rate of change of the error and adds a corrective action to counteract rapid changes. The derivative response improves the stability of the robot by providing a damping effect, reducing overshoot and oscillations. Together, the P, I, and D components work in harmony to keep the self-balancing robot upright and maintain its desired angle. The PID controller continuously adjusts the motor speeds based on the error signal to achieve a balance between stability, responsiveness, and precision. The response of the self-balancing robot to the PID control will involve a combination of corrective actions, adjustments, and stabilizing effects to maintain balance. As you can see in the Figure 8 after using the PID controller the 3D model so the real Robot are now stabilized.

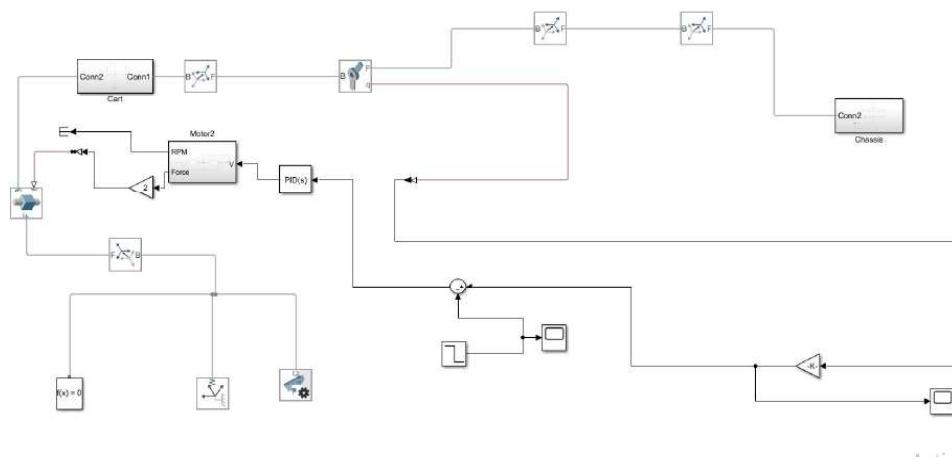


Fig. 7 SBR with PID feedback control.

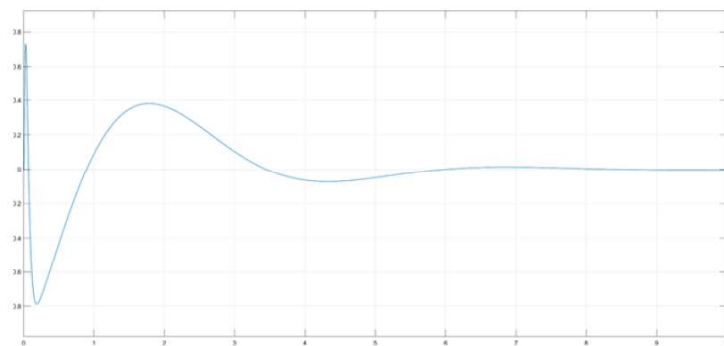


Fig. 8 Simulink model of the robot and simulation results.

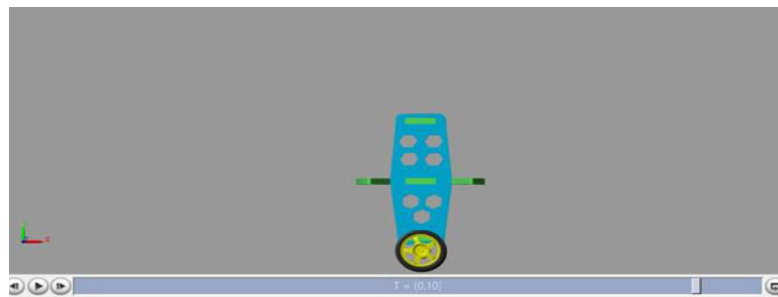


Fig. 9 The robot in 3D model simulation results.

Experimental Analysis

In order to validate the theoretical predictions and gain insights into the real-world behavior of the self-balancing robot, an extensive experimental analysis was conducted. The aim was to identify any discrepancies between the theoretical model and the actual performance of the robot, particularly when one of the system's eigenvalues was zero. To conduct the experimental analysis, the control system based on the PID controller, as derived from the mathematical model, was implemented on the physical self-balancing robot. A series of experiments were designed and executed to evaluate the robot's behavior in different scenarios. Surprisingly, it was observed that the real robot required the inclusion of an integral term in the PID controller to maintain stable balance, even when one of the eigenvalues was theoretically predicted to be zero. This finding introduced a significant discrepancy between the theoretical predictions and the practical requirements of the real system. The observed discrepancy between the theoretical predictions and the real robot's behavior prompted a thorough analysis to identify the factors contributing to this discrepancy. Several potential factors were considered, including sensor noise, uncertainties, actuator limitations, and unmodeled dynamics. Through careful examination of the experimental data, it was found that and uncertainties and static errors played a significant role in the robot's behavior. The real-world sensors exhibited inherent noise and measurement errors that were not accounted for in the mathematical model.

Consequently, the inclusion of an integral term in the PID controller proved essential in compensating for these errors and improving the robot's balancing performance. The experimental analysis provided valuable insights into the limitations of purely theoretical models when applied to real-world systems. It highlighted the importance of validating theoretical predictions through experimental investigations, especially in the context of control system design for physical robots.

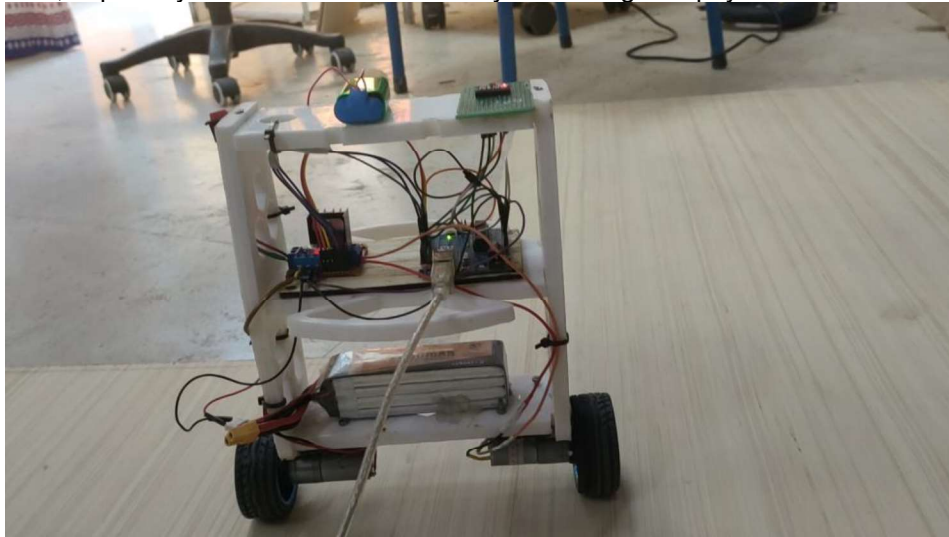


Fig. 10 The robot results using PID

5. The impact of kalman Filter

The implementation of the Kalman filter in the MPU 6050 has several advantages that it can be seen in Figure 11 the before and Figure 12 the after using the kalman filter. First, it effectively reduces noise and errors in the sensor measurements, leading to enhanced accuracy of the data acquired from the MPU 6050. By combining the noisy sensor measurements with the predicted state, it provides a more precise estimation of the true state.

Additionally, the Kalman filter plays a vital role in filtering out noise and outliers, resulting in a smoother output signal from the MPU 6050. This feature is particularly advantageous in applications such as self-balancing robots, where a stable and continuous measurement is crucial for maintaining balance and stability.

Furthermore, over time, the MPU 6050 sensor may encounter drift, leading to inaccuracies in its measurements.

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However, the Kalman filter assists in compensating for this drift by continuously adjusting the state estimation. It takes into account the sensor's previous behavior and the predictions made by the filter to ensure more accurate estimations and counteract the negative effects of drift.

The Kalman Filter has found extensive applications in various fields. In navigation systems, it is used for accurate estimation of vehicle position, velocity, and orientation by fusing data from GPS, inertial sensors, and other sources. In control systems, it enables precise state feedback for optimal control strategies, enhancing the performance and stability of the system. It is also employed in signal processing tasks, such as speech and image recognition, where noise reduction and accurate estimation of underlying signals are essential.

Overall, the Kalman Filter has revolutionized the field of estimation and control by providing an effective solution for state estimation problems. Its ability to handle noisy measurements, adapt to changing dynamics, and account for non-linearities makes it a valuable tool in a wide range of applications, contributing to improved system performance, accuracy, and reliability.



Fig. 11 MPU 6050 Data Reading before using Kalman filter.



Fig. 12 MPU 6050 Data Reading after using Kalman filter.

Conclusion

In this paper, we implemented various control techniques for control systems, focusing on linear control techniques such as PID and LQR. The LQR controller, based on optimal control theory, was examined in detail, including its theory and controllability.

Simulation results were presented, illustrating the impact of the Q and R matrices on the controller's performance. We also studied the PID controller, which is widely used in control systems due to its simplicity and robustness. Simulation results were provided, and PID tuning techniques were discussed to achieve optimal performance. Furthermore, we presented experimental results that demonstrated the practical implementation and performance of the PID controller in real-world scenarios.

A comparative study between the PID and LQR controllers was conducted, considering factors such as performance, complexity, and robustness. The choice between these controllers depends on the specific requirements of the control system. PID controllers offer simplicity and robustness, while LQR controllers provide optimal control solutions based on a specified cost function. The decision should consider trade-offs between these factors.

Therefore, we focussed also on the The implementation of the Kalman filter in the MPU 6050 has several advantages such as effectively reduces noise and errors in the sensor measurements, leading to enhanced accuracy of the data acquired from the MPU 6050.

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Enhancing the Reliability of PV Fault Diagnosis through a Hybrid CNN–DT Approach

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Abstract: This paper presents a hybrid diagnostic approach combining a one-dimensional convolutional neural network (1D-CNN) and a Decision Tree (DT) for automatic fault detection in photovoltaic (PV) systems. The CNN performs feature extraction and preliminary classification using normalized electrical and environmental data, while the DT refines predictions based on confidence scores, irradiance, and temperature. Experimental results show that the proposed CNN–DT framework improves diagnostic accuracy, interpretability, and robustness compared to conventional methods, ensuring reliable operation of PV installations under varying conditions.

Keywords: Photovoltaic systems, Fault diagnosis, 1D-CNN, Decision Tree, Hybrid model.

1. INTRODUCTION

The increasing global demand for renewable energy has accelerated the deployment of photovoltaic (PV) systems worldwide. However, the long-term performance and reliability of these installations are often compromised by various faults that occur due to harsh environmental conditions, component degradation, or connection failures [1], [2]. Such faults — including diode malfunction, partial shading, mismatch, and bypass faults — can significantly reduce the overall energy yield, accelerate module aging, and even lead to safety risks if not detected promptly [3]. Therefore, efficient and accurate fault diagnosis has become a key requirement for ensuring the optimal operation of PV systems.

Traditional fault detection and diagnosis (FDD) techniques rely mainly on threshold-based or rule-based approaches that use current–voltage (I–V) and power–voltage (P–V) curve analysis [4]. Although these methods are simple and interpretable, they often fail to cope with the nonlinear and dynamic behavior of PV systems under varying irradiance and temperature conditions. To overcome these limitations, data-driven and intelligent approaches have been widely explored in recent years, including fuzzy logic systems, support vector machines (SVM), random forests, and artificial neural networks (ANN) [5]–[7]. Among these, convolutional neural networks (CNNs) have demonstrated strong capabilities in extracting complex patterns and nonlinear relationships from raw PV data, enabling accurate multi-class fault classification [8].

Despite their high predictive accuracy, CNN-based classifiers still face challenges related to model interpretability and robustness, especially when dealing with ambiguous or borderline samples [9]. CNNs tend to produce overconfident predictions even in uncertain situations, which can lead to false alarms or missed detections. Furthermore, environmental variations such as irradiance fluctuations and temperature changes can alter the statistical distribution of the input data, further degrading the model's reliability.

To address these challenges, this paper proposes a hybrid diagnostic framework that combines a one-dimensional convolutional neural network (1D-CNN) with a Decision Tree (DT) post-processing stage. The CNN is first trained to perform automatic feature extraction and preliminary classification of PV faults using normalized electrical and environmental features. Then, the DT model refines the CNN predictions by incorporating additional contextual variables, such as the CNN confidence score, solar irradiance, and module temperature. This hierarchical combination leverages the high learning capacity of CNNs and the interpretability of decision trees to produce more reliable and explainable diagnostic decisions.

2. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

The 1D-CNN automatically extracts spatial and temporal features from electrical and environmental PV data, enabling efficient multi-class fault classification [11], [12]. It processes normalized input sequences through convolutional and pooling layers to learn representative patterns [13]. The Decision Tree (DT) then analyzes the CNN outputs along with contextual variables to refine decisions [14]. This hybrid approach combines the CNN's high learning capacity with the DT's interpretability and robustness [15].

- A. Data Preparation and Feature Engineering:** The photovoltaic (PV) dataset used in this study was imported from the file PV_data.xlsx. Each record contains electrical and environmental parameters measured from the PV system, namely:

$$X = [V, I, P, G, T] \quad (1)$$

where (V) is the PV voltage, (I) is the current, ($P = V \times I$) is the generated power, (G) is the solar irradiance (W/m^2), and (T) is the module temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

To enhance the discriminative power of the input space, two additional features are computed:

$$\frac{V}{I} \text{ and } \frac{P}{G} \quad (2)$$

These ratios capture nonlinear dependencies between voltage, current, and irradiance, which are often sensitive to specific PV fault conditions.

- B. Data Balancing and Splitting:** Since the dataset exhibits class imbalance among the five fault categories — Normal, Diode, Shading, Mismatch, and Bypass — a resampling strategy is applied to obtain a balanced distribution.

For each class, an equal number of samples is generated by random oversampling with replacement for the minority classes and random undersampling for the majority ones.

This process ensures that the CNN does not become biased toward the most represented classes.

The balanced dataset is then divided into a training set (80%) and a testing set (20%) using random partitioning.

- C. Data Reshaping for 1D CNN Input:** To process the tabular data using a one-dimensional convolutional neural network (1D-CNN), each observation is reshaped to match MATLAB's 4D tensor format:

$$[features, 1, 1, N] \quad (3)$$

where (N) denotes the number of samples.

This reshaping allows the use of 2D convolution layers with a single spatial dimension, effectively simulating a 1D convolution process.

- D. CNN Architecture Design:** The proposed CNN architecture consists of two convolutional blocks followed by fully connected layers, as summarized below:

Table 1 CNN Architecture

Layer Type	Parameters	Function
Input	$[\text{inputSize} \times 1 \times 1]$	Feature input
Conv1	32 filters, $[3 \times 1]$, padding = 'same'	Local feature extraction
Batch Normalization + ReLU	—	Activation and normalization
Max Pooling	$[2 \times 1]$	Downsampling
Conv2	64 filters, $[3 \times 1]$, padding = 'same'	Deeper feature representation
Dropout	$p = 0.5$	Overfitting prevention
Fully Connected	128 neurons	Feature fusion
ReLU	—	Nonlinear activation
Fully Connected	numClasses neurons	Output mapping
Softmax + Classification	—	Class probability estimation

- E. CNN Training Procedure:** The CNN is trained using the Adam optimization algorithm with the following hyperparameters:

- Initial learning rate: 0.001
- Learning rate drop factor: 0.7 every 10 epochs
- Maximum epochs: 100 and Mini-batch size: 64

After the trained CNN model is first evaluated independently on the test set. A normalized confusion matrix is then plotted to visualize the per-class classification performance and misclassification patterns.

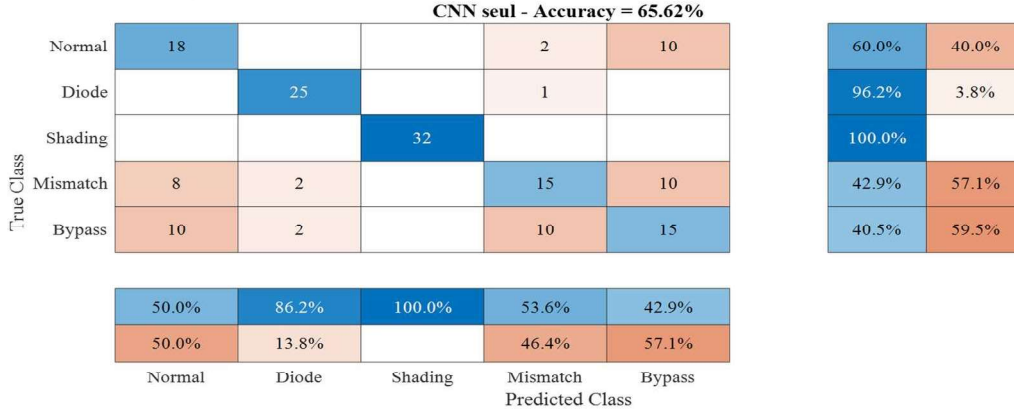


Fig. 1 1D-CNN model confusion matrix.

Figure 1 presents the confusion matrix of the standalone 1D-CNN model used for photovoltaic fault classification. The results show that the CNN achieves high accuracy for the Shading (100%) and Diode (96.2%) classes, confirming its ability to capture strong and distinct fault patterns. However, the Normal, Mismatch, and Bypass classes exhibit lower accuracies (60%, 53.6%, and 42.9%, respectively), mainly due to overlapping electrical characteristics under variable irradiance and temperature conditions.

F. Decision Tree–Based Post-Processing: To further enhance diagnostic reliability, a Decision Tree (DT) model is applied as a post-processing stage to the CNN predictions.

For each test sample, the CNN provides a probability vector ($P = [p_1, p_2, \dots, p_C]$).

From this, two additional features are extracted:

- **CNN_Class:** the predicted class index,
- **CNN_Score:** the maximum softmax probability (model confidence).

In addition, the corresponding irradiance (G) and temperature (T) values are used to form the final input set for the decision tree:

$$Input_{DT} = [CNN_class, CNN_score, G, T] \quad (4)$$

The decision tree is trained using these features and the true class labels. Its objective is to refine or correct CNN predictions by considering both the confidence level and the environmental conditions.

This hybrid CNN–DT combination thus integrates data-driven learning (CNN) with rule-based reasoning (DT).

The results of this improvement are presented in the comparison figure. The results clearly demonstrate that the integration of the Decision Tree significantly enhances the diagnostic accuracy across most fault categories. For instance, the recognition rate for Normal and Bypass faults increased from 60% to 80% and from 40% to 78%, respectively. Similarly, the Mismatch fault improved from 57.1% to 88.6%, showing the DT's ability to correct misclassifications caused by CNN uncertainty. The overall performance gains confirm that

the hybrid CNN–DT approach provides a more robust and interpretable diagnosis, particularly under ambiguous fault conditions.

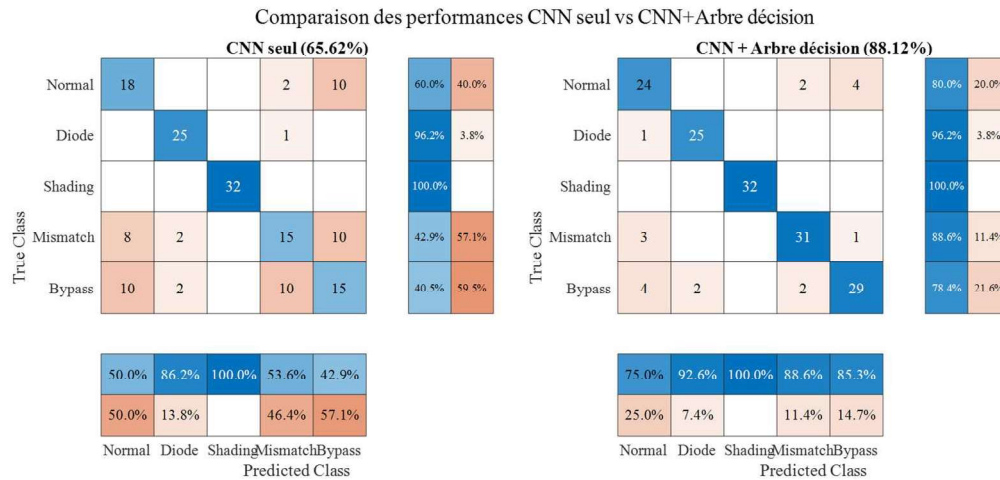


Fig. 2 comparison between CNN and CNN_DT.

3. CONCLUSION

The CNN–DT model combines the learning capability of the CNN with the logical decision-making power of the Decision Tree.

It provides a more robust, accurate, and interpretable diagnosis, especially for fault classes exhibiting similar behaviors (such as shading and mismatch).

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Synthesis, Characterization, and DFT Modeling of Novel Binary and Ternary Pd (II) Complexes with Antioxidant and Anti-Breast Cancer Potential

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Abstract: A new binary and mixed Palladium(II) complex with a fluoroquinolone derivative as the primary ligand and L-tryptophan as the secondary ligand was synthesized and characterized using various analyses, including elemental analyses, molar conductivity measurements, IR spectroscopy, UV-visible, ¹H NMR, ¹³C NMR, scanning electron microscope (SEM) with EDX, and thermogravimetric analysis (TGA).

To gain deeper insight into the structural and electronic properties of the complexes, Density Functional Theory (DFT) modeling was carried out. The study will involve optimizing the geometries, analyzing the frontier molecular orbitals “HOMO” and “LUMO”, calculating the electronic energies, and simulating the IR and UV–Vis spectra to compare them with the experimental results and validate the proposed structures. In addition, the DFT modeling will provide valuable information on the reactivity descriptors and metal–ligand interactions, offering a theoretical understanding of the complexes’ stability and potential biological activity, and further supporting the experimental findings.

In addition to the theoretical investigation, the biological potential of the ligand and its Pd(II) complexes were evaluated. The antioxidant properties of the ligand and its complexes were examined by DPPH free radical scavenging method. The *in vitro* cytotoxicity assay of the compound, evaluated against two breast cancer cell lines (MCF-7 and T47D) to assess their anticancer activity.

Theoretical calculations showed a good agreement with the experimental findings. The obtained results demonstrate that the new Pd(II) complex exhibits a strong antioxidant and potent anti-breast cancer activities, as predicted by the DFT modeling.

Keywords Fluoroquinolone, Complexes, DFT modeling, Antioxidant activity, Anti-breast cancer activity.

FEDORA: A Multi-Level Federated Learning Architecture with Embedded Governance for Trustworthy Healthcare AI

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Abstract: Federated Learning (FL) enables multi-institutional Artificial Intelligence (AI) in healthcare without centralizing sensitive patient data. However, real-world adoption faces challenges in operational governance, institutional hierarchies, and regulatory compliance. We introduce FEDORA (Federated Oracle AI for Responsible Data Analytics), a novel architecture that bridges this gap. FEDORA organizes hospitals into micro, meso, and governance levels, ensuring raw data remains local while enabling collaborative analytics. Its innovation is a local Governance Agent that embeds human oversight and manages dynamic consent using Fast Healthcare Interoperability Resources (FHIR) standards. This agent operationalizes ethics and ensures compliance with the European Union Artificial Intelligence Act (EU AI Act) and General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR). By unifying technical and governance layers, FEDORA provides a deployable socio-technical framework for trustworthy healthcare AI.

Keywords: Federated Learning (FL), Artificial Intelligence (AI), Trustworthy AI, Data Governance, EU AI Act, GDPR, FHIR.

1. INTRODUCTION

The advancement of artificial intelligence (AI) in healthcare hinges on accessing large-scale, diverse datasets while simultaneously protecting patient privacy under regulations like the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the European Union Artificial Intelligence Act (EU AI Act) [1,2]. Federated Learning (FL) has emerged as a promising solution by enabling model training across institutions without sharing raw data [1]. However, recent evidence reveals that FL alone cannot bridge the gap to real-world clinical implementation. Current systems lack operational governance frameworks to enforce ethical principles and often ignore the multi-level structure of healthcare organizations [3-5].

Healthcare operates through a complex ecosystem of patients (micro), clinical departments (meso), and hospital networks (macro) [4], yet existing FL architectures typically treat hospitals as single entities, overlooking this organizational reality [1,5]. This structural limitation results in systems that fail to incorporate patient consent, local ethics review, or institutional control mechanisms, leading to potential rejection by healthcare organizations [3].

To address these challenges, we propose FEDORA (Federated Oracle AI for Responsible Data Analytics) - a novel architecture that embeds trustworthy AI by design. Our framework introduces a multi-level structure that: maintains raw data at the micro-level, enables department-level federated learning, incorporates local Governance Agents for ethical oversight, and implements a Federated Oracle AI that aggregates only approved, anonymized insights.

FEDORA directly responds to identified needs in the literature [3-5] by providing concrete governance mechanisms, embodying relational trust models, and respecting legal boundaries while acknowledging the multi-scale nature of healthcare systems. By integrating computational engineering with institutional governance, FEDORA aims to transform FL from a theoretical concept into a deployable, ethically-grounded solution for healthcare AI.

2. RELATED WORK AND STATE OF THE ART

Current federated learning (FL) research for healthcare reveals significant fragmentation between technical innovation and operational requirements. While algorithmic advances have produced substantial improvements in privacy and efficiency [6,7], these approaches often neglect crucial governance and regulatory dimensions. Major clinical implementations [8,9] have demonstrated FL's

potential but exposed fundamental compatibility issues with frameworks like GDPR, highlighting the tension between technical efficacy and legal compliance.

Recent regulatory analyses [10,11] have clarified FL's obligations under emerging AI governance frameworks, identifying the absence of enforceable audit mechanisms as a critical barrier. Parallel developments in interoperability standards [12] and dynamic consent systems [13] address specific aspects of this gap, while real-world deployments [14] confirm that governance shortcomings directly impede clinical adoption.

Technical innovations in knowledge fusion [15] and decentralized architectures [16] build upon foundational FL concepts [17], yet the field remains characterized by specialized solutions that address either technical performance or governance requirements, but rarely both. This persistent divide between computational advances and operational deployability represents the central challenge that FEDORA aims to resolve through its integrated architectural approach.

3. Architecture

FEDORA introduces a novel multi-level architecture for collaborative healthcare intelligence that fundamentally reimagines how privacy, governance, and user rights intersect in federated systems (Figure 1). At its core lies the Federated Oracle AI—an emergent, collective intelligence that learns from distributed medical institutions while rigorously ensuring that raw patient data never leaves its source.

Unlike conventional approaches that treat patients as passive data subjects, FEDORA explicitly positions them as rights-bearing users. Through Fast Healthcare Interoperability Resources (FHIR)-standard patient portals, individuals can directly access their medical records, dynamically manage consent preferences, and maintain full visibility into how their data is utilized. This user-centric framework ensures that patient agency is preserved throughout the analytics lifecycle.

A critical innovation is the integration of a local Governance Agent at each participating institution. All collaborative activities—whether federated model training or statistical queries—are initiated by the Oracle AI but must receive explicit approval from this local governance layer. The Agent enforces regulatory compliance with standards such as the General Data Protection Regulation (GDPR) and the European Union Artificial Intelligence Act (EU AI Act), while simultaneously respecting patient consent directives and institutional policies.

This human-in-the-loop governance model creates a balanced ecosystem where the efficiency of automated federated learning is tempered by ethical oversight and legal compliance. By weaving together technical privacy preservation, regulatory adherence, and patient empowerment, FEDORA establishes a new paradigm for trustworthy healthcare AI that is both scalable and socially responsible.

Hospital Node Structure: A Three-Layer Trusted Execution Environment

Each hospital in the FEDORA network implements a standardized three-tier architecture that simultaneously ensures data protection and regulatory compliance:

Micro-Level Foundation:

- Strict retention of all raw clinical data
- Scope includes electronic health records, medical imaging, genomic data, and vital signs
- Unified structuring using FHIR standards
- No transfer of sensitive data outside this secured level

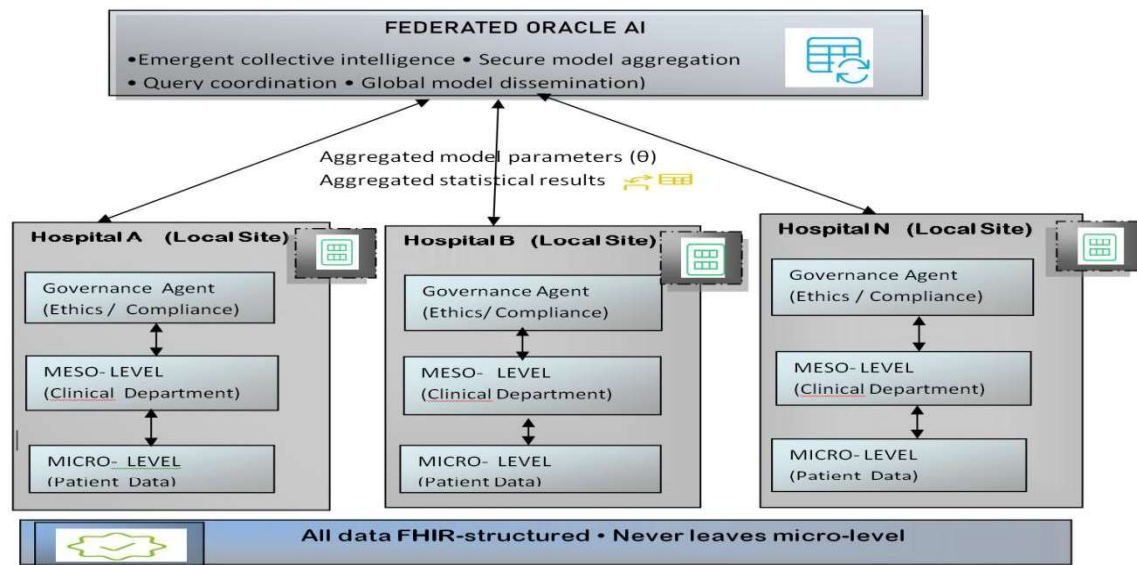
Meso-Intermediate Level:

- Representation of specialized clinical departments (oncology, intensive care, etc.)
- Hosting of technical components for federated learning and analytics
- Local execution of model training and statistical queries
- Mandatory validation by the Governance Agent prior to any operation

Governance Mechanism:

- The Governance Agent validates each activity against three criteria: ethical standards, legal requirements, and patient consent
- Creation of a trusted execution environment through controlled local computation
- Maintenance of data sovereignty via continuous supervision
- Balance between insight sharing and preservation of individual rights

This architecture positions each hospital node as a dually responsible entity: both a knowledge producer and an active governance enforcer, enabling federated collaboration that intrinsically respects organizational and regulatory boundaries.



θ : AI model parameters (weights, biases).

FHIR: healthcare interoperability standard (Fast Healthcare Interoperability Resources).

Fig. 1 FEDORA framework overview.

4. Illustrative Use Case: National Diabetes Prediction in Algeria

To ground FEDORA's principles in practice, consider a collaborative effort between two university hospitals in Algeria: CHU Ben Badis (Constantine) and CHU Mustapha Bacha (Algiers), aiming to improve a type 2 diabetes risk prediction model.

At the micro-level, each hospital retains all raw clinical data (EHRs, lab results, vital signs) locally, structured in FHIR format. Patients access a secure portal to view their records and manage consent.

Mr. Ahmed (Constantine) grants dynamic consent for “national research on diabetes and metabolic disorders”. His data is included in local FL training. The Governance Agent validates: (i) consent scope covers the task, (ii) anonymization is ensured, and (iii) use complies with Algerian Law 18-07. Approval is granted; model updates are shared with the Federated Oracle AI.

Mr. Karim (Algiers) restricts consent to “direct clinical care only — no research”. Despite his high clinical relevance (elevated HbA1c, family history), the Governance Agent automatically excludes his data from all research-related computations. His records remain strictly confined to the micro-level.

Crucially, no raw data is exchanged between hospitals. Only anonymized, governance-approved model updates (e.g., aggregated gradients) flow to the Oracle AI. This ensures data sovereignty, regulatory compliance, and patient agency simultaneously.

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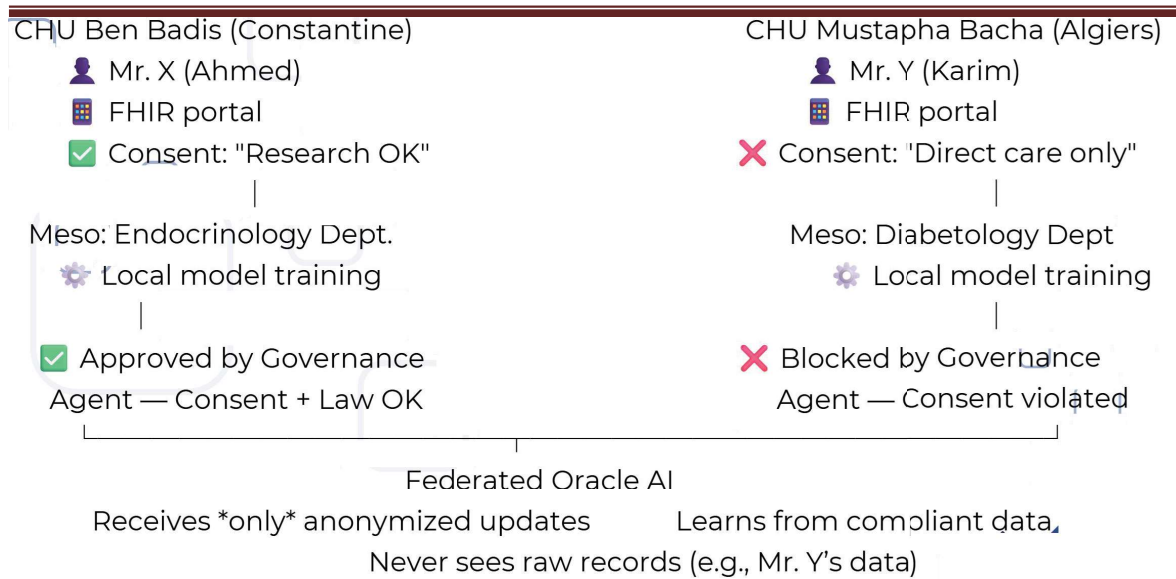


Fig. 2 FEDORA in Action: Cross-Hospital Collaboration in Algeria

5. Discussion and Conclusion

FEDORA represents a principled response to a fundamental challenge in healthcare AI: enabling robust multi-institutional collaboration while preserving absolute data sovereignty. Where existing frameworks prioritize either technical efficiency [12, 16] or analytical standardization [13], FEDORA integrates three typically disjoint dimensions: organizational hierarchy, human governance, and semantic interoperability through FHIR and dynamic consent. This synthesis transcends the conventional trade-off between algorithmic performance and ethical compliance. While foundational work established FL's theoretical basis without governance [11], and subsequent research catalogued governance mechanisms without implementation pathways [15], FEDORA operationalizes these elements within a unified architecture. The Governance Agent institutionalizes mandated human oversight, while the micro-level data confinement enforces data minimization by design. Consequently, FEDORA moves beyond mere compliance to become an implementation vehicle for regulatory principles. Several limitations warrant consideration. The architecture's effectiveness depends on FHIR interoperability, which remains unevenly adopted. Additionally, while the Governance Agent incorporates automated components for efficiency, its essential human decision-making core may impact response times in urgent scenarios. Finally, the current design focuses on horizontally partitioned data, requiring future extension to vertical federated learning contexts [17] where institutions hold different data modalities for shared patient cohorts.

In conclusion, FEDORA establishes a new paradigm for federated AI in healthcare—one that is inherently systemic rather than exclusively technical or ethical. By synthesizing insights from foundational algorithms [11], operational governance [10], and specialized architectures [16, 17], it delivers an integrated framework that is both deployable and compliant. More profoundly, FEDORA redefines medical AI as a relational process where trust is built through transparent protocols, consent preservation, and institutional accountability aligning with interdisciplinary calls for responsible innovation [8].

This vision culminates in a new social contract for healthcare AI: data remains firmly anchored within its institutional and individual context, while collective wisdom circulates securely to advance medical knowledge. Future work will focus on pilot implementation within European hospital networks, extension to vertical federation scenarios, and quantitative assessment of governance impacts on model performance and equity.

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A Full-Duplex Optical–Wireless Integration Scheme for 60 GHz OFDM Signal Distribution in RoF–GPON Networks

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Abstract: In recent years, the continuous evolution of mobile networks has driven by the growing need for ultra-high data rates, low latency, massive device connectivity, and seamless service quality in emerging applications such as 5G, 6G, and beyond. To address these specifications, it is necessary to achieve improvements in network capacity, spectral efficiency and transmission distance, while ensuring costs effective. However, conventional methods based on electronic architectures are limited in terms of bandwidth, attenuation to electromagnetic interference and scalability. To address this challenge, advanced technologies such as RoF have been introduced, offering the ability to transport high-frequency RF signals over long distances using optical fiber with minimal signal degradation. RoF enables centralized signal processing, support for wide transmission bandwidths, and flexible network connection, which directly enhance network performance and reduce complexity.

This work demonstrates the implementation of RoF technology within full-duplex GPON architecture for efficient radio signal transmission of using bidirectional optical fiber. The proposed system employs a dual-port OFDM modulation scheme, supporting 16-QAM and QAM data formats. The configuration delivers an RF signal at 60 GHz and achieves a data rate of 20 Gbps per transmission port. The results demonstrate the performances of the proposed coherent detection system for reliable signal reception in long-distance fiber optic transmission. Evaluation of performance was achieved through analysis of EVM, received optical power, and constellation diagrams for long fiber lengths. EVM analysis demonstrates excellent signal quality at 20 km, with uplink EVM values of 8.88% and 8.95% and downlink values of 9.11% and 9.36%, while at 80 km; the EVM slightly increases to 12.88–13.32% due to fiber attenuation and chromatic dispersion.

Keywords: RoF, GPON, MMW, Full duplex, OFDM, EVM.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, modern mobile networks have shifted from simply delivering faster internet to enabling a rich, multi-dimensional digital experience. These advancements not only redefine mobile connectivity but also forming a significant element in shaping future societies focused on automation, intelligence, and immersive technologies. This shift has created a rapidly growing demand for higher bandwidth, improved link reliability, and support for high data rate applications. These factors are primarily driven by the proliferation of connected devices, artificial intelligence (AI), the Internet of Things (IoT), and the digital transformation of sectors such as education, healthcare, and entertainment [1]. Therefore, developments in mobile networks are paving the way for new solutions that rely on Radio-over-Fiber (RoF) transmission. RoF technology offers a cost-effective and scalable approach to meeting the stringent requirements of next-generation networks, particularly 5G and beyond, by combining the large capacity of optical fiber with the flexibility of wireless access. RoF systems enable the transmission of radio signals from the Central Office (CO) to Remote Nodes (RN), including cellular nodes, Worldwide Interoperability for Microwave Access, Wireless Local Area Networks. With the growing deployment of FTTH services through GPON networks, these infrastructures can be leveraged for future 5G rollouts, reducing both cost and implementation time while fostering service convergence within a single platform [2-4]. Moreover, integrating RoF into Passive Optical Networks (PON) allows the use of unused wavelength windows without interference, while providing advantages such as low attenuation at 1550 nm, immunity to electromagnetic interference, and high transmission capacity [5].

In [6] proposes an innovative solution for the integration of 5G mobile systems, passive optical networks (PON), and visible light communication (VLC) systems. It presents new network architecture, Key aspects of the 5G C-RAN fronthaul network are covered, along with the introduction of a next-generation optical network terminal. This work addresses the growing

demand for higher bandwidths by introducing a bidirectional SCM/WDM-10GPON-RoF system with a splitting ratio of 1:32. The architecture uses subcarrier multiplexing (SCM) with 1577 nm for the downlink and 1270 nm for the uplink, via a shared remote module (SRM). The proposed system is suitable for a wide range of applications [1].

In the context of RoF transmission using GPON, one of the main challenges is to efficiently support high data rates and diverse service requirements while mitigating the limitations imposed by optical channel impairments such as chromatic dispersion and nonlinearities. In order to address such issues, OFDM has proven to be a promising modulation technique. OFDM offers several advantages, including high spectral efficiency, robustness against dispersion-induced distortions, and flexible bandwidth allocation, making it well suited for the dynamic and heterogeneous traffic of modern access networks. These properties have led to its deployment in various optical systems such as RoF-GPON, metropolitan optical access networks, and advanced RoF architectures. The integration of OFDM into GPON-based RoF systems therefore represents a compelling approach to improving system capacity, increasing transmission range, and enabling sustainable support for bandwidth-intensive applications [7]. Several optical OFDM architectures have been proposed for integration into optical networks. OFDM is well suited to RoF-GPON systems, in which the OLT distributes multiple modulated optical signals to different ONUs via wavelength division multiplexing. This approach allows the access network to adapt to dynamic traffic variations while offering high transmission capacity [8].

Recent research has proposed several approaches aimed at improving spectral efficiency and supporting high-capacity fiber-wireless systems for 5G networks. In [9], a PON distribution scheme based on FBMC signals was developed to enable the transmission of 60 GHz FBMC wireless signals over fiber, ensuring efficient spectrum utilization for broadband services. The work presented in [10] analyzed WDM-OFDM coherent optical systems and revealed the advantages of adopting a 100 GHz channel spacing as the optimal configuration. Similarly, [11] demonstrated 75 GHz OFDM-based transmission for RoF uplink applications, using a photonic communication system with a LiNb quadrature modulator. Performance was evaluated in PSK and QAM formats for coherent and direct detection, with digital signal processing techniques applied to mitigate system degradation over fiber optic distances of up to 35 km. In addition, [12] presented a modified RoF-OFDM scheme adapted to future 5G infrastructures, integrating OFDM at 60 GHz and evaluating performance on different QAM modulation formats.

2. SYSTEM DESCRIPTION AND RESULTS

The full-duplex RoF-GPON system, consisting of a single-channel 60 GHz radio transceiver using dual parallel OFDM modulation over a bidirectional optical fiber link, is illustrated in the overall functional diagram shown in Fig. 1.

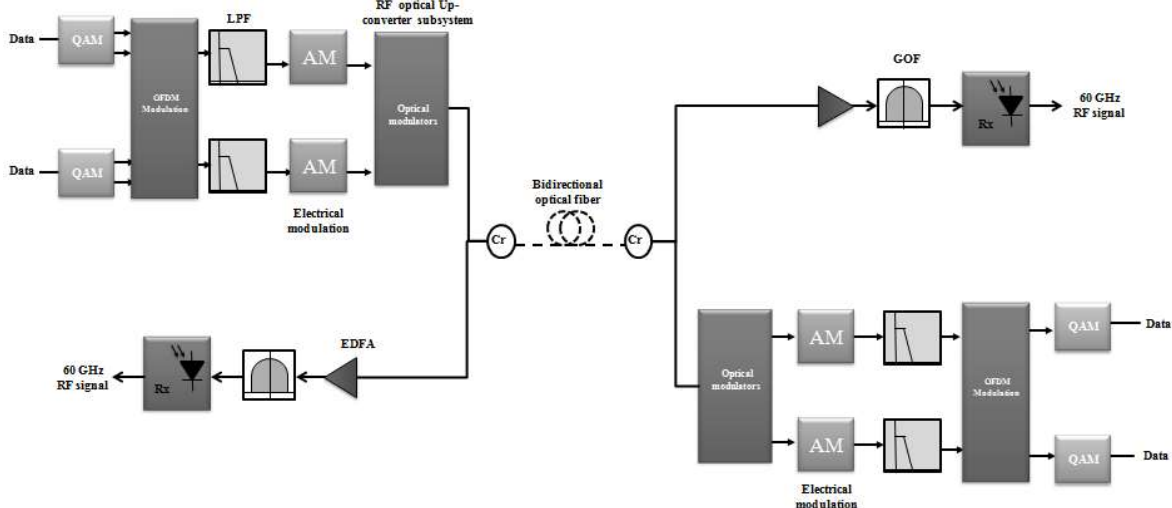


Fig. 1 The block diagram of the proposed system.

The proposed full-duplex RoF-GPON architecture incorporates a bidirectional fiber optic link with a millimeter wave OFDM transmission scheme operating at 60 GHz. The system includes a single-channel transceiver designed to simultaneously support downstream and upstream data

transmission over the same single-mode fiber. In the downlink direction, a pseudo-random binary sequence generator produces the input data, which is modulated using an OFDM scheme based on dual port QAM mapping. The resulting RF signal is converted to 60 GHz and applied to a Mach-Zehnder (MZM) uplink optical modulation block driven by a continuous wave laser source. The modulated optical signal is transmitted via the bidirectional fiber optic link. At the optical network unit (ONU), the received optical carrier is amplified using an EDFA amplifier, then directly detected and demodulated to recover the transmitted data, while the uplink signal is generated by modulating the optical carrier with the upstream OFDM data at a different wavelength. Both signals are transmitted via the same optical path.

The recovered uplink and downlink signals are analyzed in terms of Error Vector Magnitude (EVM), constellation diagram, and optical spectrum to evaluate system performance. This architecture demonstrates the reliability of high-capacity, full-duplex RoF-GPON transmission.

The optical spectra illustrated in Fig 2 represent the input and output characteristics of the proposed full-duplex RoF-GPON transmission system. At the transmitter side, the optical spectrum analyzers in Fig 2 (a) and (b) display distinct and symmetrical spectral lines corresponding to the optical carrier and its two modulation sidebands generated by the MZM driven by the 60 GHz OFDM signal. This configuration confirms a stable and efficient double-sideband (DSB) modulation of the continuous-wave laser source. At the receiver side, the spectrum recorded by Fig. 2 (c) and (d) shows a reduction in width and power due to fiber attenuation, chromatic dispersion, and minor nonlinear effects occurring during propagation. The presence of two distinct wavelengths corresponding to the downlink and uplink confirms the successful operation of the radio photonic modulation scheme used for bidirectional transmission. The well-separated spectral peaks and limited crosstalk between the two channels validate the efficient full-duplex transmission over a single optical fiber. Overall, the observed spectra demonstrate that both the downlink and uplink OFDM signals are effectively transmitted and recovered, ensuring stable high-capacity RoF-GPON performance suitable for next-generation broadband and 5G applications.

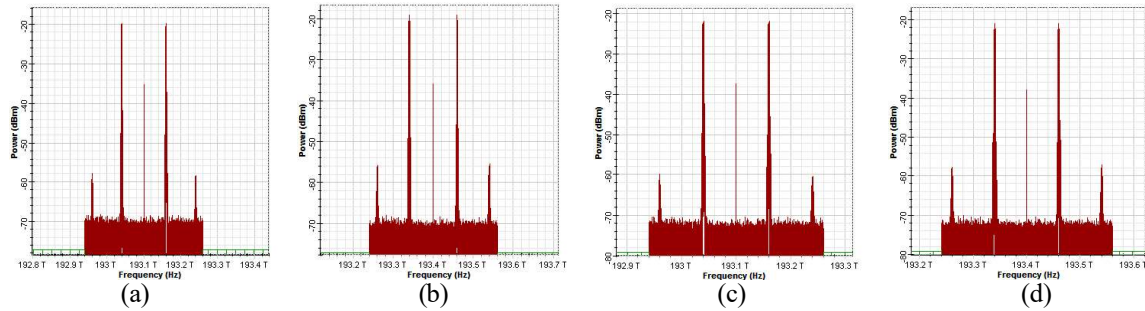


Fig. 2 Optical signal spectrum of the uplink transmission (a), downlink transmission (b), uplink reception (c), and downlink reception (d).

The constellation diagrams obtained after carrier phase estimation is illustrated in figure 3 which demonstrate the quality of signal demodulation in the proposed full-duplex RoF-GPON transmission system. For the QAM modulation format, the constellations observed at ports 1 and 2 show four well-defined and symmetrical groups, indicating accurate phase recovery, low noise interference, and stable optical transmission across the bidirectional fiber link.

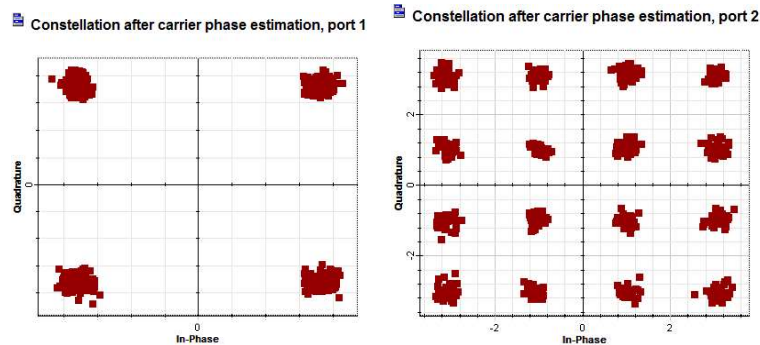


Fig. 3 Constellation diagrams of QAM and 16-QAM for the proposed structure.

The EVM analysis highlights the performance of the proposed full-duplex RoF-GPON system over different transmission distances. At 20 km, the system exhibits excellent signal quality, with EVM values of 8.88% and 8.95% for the uplink (ports 1 and 2), and 9.11% and 9.36% for the downlink, indicating stable modulation and low distortion. However, when the fiber length is increased to 80 km, the EVM slightly rises to 12.88% and 13.32% for the uplink and 12.90% and 13.10% for the downlink. This moderate increase reflects the expected signal degradation due to fiber dispersion, attenuation, and accumulated phase noise over longer distances. Nevertheless, the results confirm that the proposed system maintains acceptable performance and signal integrity even at 80 km, demonstrating its suitability for long-distance RoF-GPON transmission applications.

3. CONCLUSION

Simulation and analysis of the proposed full-duplex RoF-GPON system confirm its performance in supporting simultaneous bidirectional data transmission over a single optical fiber using a 60 GHz OFDM modulation scheme. The optical spectra, constellation diagrams, and EVM measurements show stable modulation, low distortion, and effective carrier phase recovery on both the upstream and downstream channels. The system achieves excellent signal quality at 20 km and maintains acceptable performance even at over 80 km, despite minor degradation caused by fiber dispersion and attenuation. These results confirm the reliability and robustness of the architecture for high-capacity, long-distance optical-wireless integration, making it a promising solution for next-generation broadband and RoF access networks.

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A Novel Jellyfish Search Algorithm for MPPT in PV Systems with SAPF Integration under Partial Shading Conditions

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Abstract: The integration of photovoltaic (PV) systems with shunt active power filters (SAPF) provides a promising solution for enhancing both renewable energy utilization and power quality improvement. However, under partial shading conditions, PV systems experience nonlinear characteristics that hinder maximum power point tracking (MPPT) and compromise SAPF performance. To address this challenge, this paper introduces a new bio-inspired optimization algorithm, the Jellyfish Search Algorithm (JSA), as an advanced MPPT strategy within PV-SAPF systems. The effectiveness of the proposed algorithm is evaluated through a comparative study against the Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) and the classical Perturb and Observe (P&O) method under partial shading scenarios. Simulation results obtained in MATLAB/Simulink demonstrate that the P&O algorithm fails to reliably extract the maximum power point (MPP), producing large oscillations that degrade both energy efficiency and filtering capability. In contrast, GWO and the proposed JSA achieve accurate MPP tracking, with JSA exhibiting faster convergence, higher precision, and improved system stability. These findings confirm that JSA is a robust and innovative optimization technique, offering superior performance for PV-SAPF integration under complex operating conditions such as partial shading.

Keywords: Photovoltaic Systems, Maximum Power Point Tracking, Partial Shading Conditions, Perturb and Observe, Jellyfish Search Algorithm, Gray Wolf Optimization.

1. INTRODUCTION

With the increasing demand for clean energy, photovoltaic (PV) systems have become a key solution for sustainable power generation. Their efficiency, however, strongly depends on accurate Maximum Power Point Tracking (MPPT), which ensures maximum power extraction under varying irradiation and temperature conditions [1]. At the same time, integrating PV systems into electrical grids raises power quality concerns due to harmonics, reactive power, and voltage instability caused by nonlinear loads. Shunt active power filters (SAPF) are widely employed to mitigate these issues by compensating for harmonics and reactive power, thus enhancing grid stability [2].

Under partial shading conditions, the nonlinear PV output complicates MPP tracking and reduces SAPF effectiveness, highlighting the need for advanced optimization-based MPPT strategies.

Several approaches have been suggested in the literature to achieve fast and accurate MPPT, and they vary widely in both principle and effectiveness. Conventional techniques, such as the perturb and observe (P&O) algorithm [3], are simple and easy to implement but often suffer from oscillations around the maximum point. More recently, researchers have investigated metaheuristic algorithms [4], which draw on ideas from artificial intelligence and stochastic search. These methods are generally more flexible and can adapt better to difficult operating conditions, particularly partial shading, where the PV power voltage curve becomes irregular and tracking the real maximum power point is much more challenging.

Partial shading can occur when PV modules are exposed to obstacles such as trees, clouds, or surrounding buildings. In such cases, the power voltage (P–V) curve no longer shows a single clear maximum but instead develops several local peaks. This makes the task of MPPT much harder, since conventional methods usually settle at the nearest peak and may miss the true global maximum, which leads to a loss in harvested energy. For this reason, researchers have turned toward more intelligent optimization techniques that are better at exploring the search space and locating the global maximum under non-uniform operating conditions [5].

Metaheuristic algorithms have become useful tools for dealing with problems that are too complex for traditional methods. Their main strength lies in their flexibility to handle nonlinear and dynamic behaviors, which makes them suitable for MPPT in PV systems. One of the most widely applied methods is Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) [6], inspired by the social interaction of bird flocks and fish schools. In PSO, each particle adjusts its position based on its own experience and the performance of its neighbors, allowing the swarm as a whole to move toward better solutions in parallel. Another well-known approach is the Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) [7], which imitates the hunting strategies and social hierarchy of wolves. The algorithm divides the population into different leadership levels, enabling efficient exploration and exploitation of the search space.

2. SYSTEM MODELING

A. SAPF Operation under PV-Supplied Conditions

The proposed power system primarily aims to enhance energy quality by reducing the harmonics generated by nonlinear loads while simultaneously integrating renewable energy. As shown in Fig. 1, the system consists of a three-phase voltage source supplying a nonlinear load. This load produces a distorted and unbalanced current, injecting harmonics into the grid. To counteract these effects, a SAPF is connected at the point of common coupling (PCC) [8]. Operating as a voltage source inverter, the SAPF generates a compensating current $i_f(t)$ that cancels the harmonic components of the load current $i_l(t)$. Unlike conventional configurations, the inverter is supplied by PV energy through the DC link, ensuring both renewable energy integration and improved power quality. The SAPF is controlled using a Direct Power Control (DPC) strategy, enabling precise tracking of the reference current and effectively reducing Total Harmonic Distortion (THD) while improving the power factor.

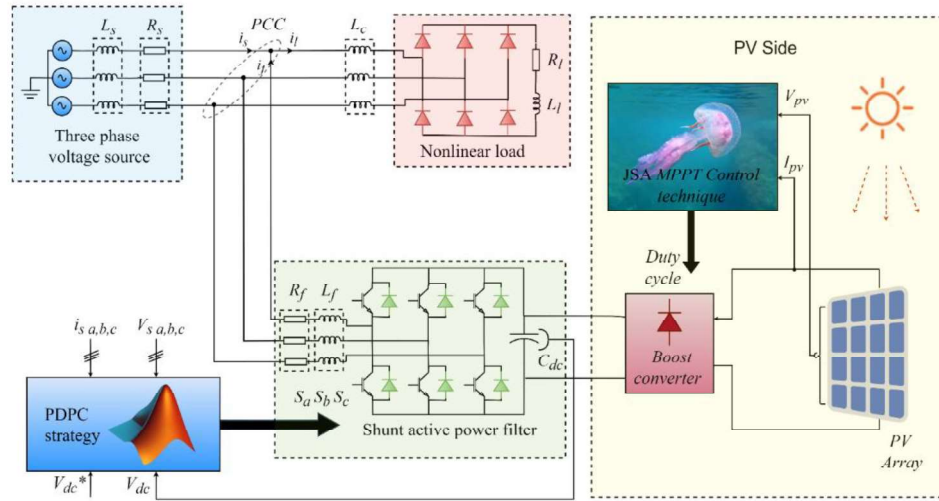


Fig. 1 PV–SAPF Integrated System

B. Photovoltaic Cell Modeling

The behavior of a PV cell is usually described through a very simple equivalent circuit. This circuit is made of two basic elements arranged in parallel: a current source and a diode. The current source stands for the light-generated current, which naturally increases or decreases with the amount of solar radiation falling on the cell. The diode, on the other hand, is used to reproduce the electrical response of the p–n junction inside the device. Even though this representation is quite basic, it has proven over time to capture the main operating characteristics of PV cells and is therefore frequently employed in simulation studies [9]. The general layout of the model is given in Fig. 2.

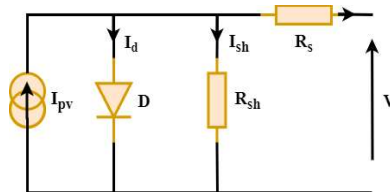


Fig. 2 The electric model of a PV Cell

A mathematical model derived from the equivalent circuit of the solar cell is used to determine the relationship between the current and voltage [10]. This model considers influencing elements such as resistance and the diode, where the output current is calculated using the following equation:

$$I = I_{ph} - I_d - \frac{(V + R_s I)}{R_p} \quad (1)$$

With:

$$I_d = I_o \left[e^{\frac{q(V + R_s I)}{nKT_c}} - 1 \right] \quad (1)$$

$$I_{ph} = \frac{G}{G_{ref}} (I_{ph,ref} + \mu_{sc} \cdot \Delta T) \quad (2)$$

To better understand the parameters used in the PV system model, Table I provides the values for the PV panel.

Table 1 PV MODULE PARAMETERS

Variable	Parameters	Values
P_{max}	Maximum-power	250 [W]
V_{max}	Maximum voltage	19.5 [V]
I_{max}	Maximum current	6.2 [A]
I_{sc}	Short-circuit current	6.9 [A]
V_{oc}	Open-circuit voltage	22.9 [V]

3. JELLYFISH SEARCH ALGORITHM FOR PARTIAL SHADE CONDITIONS

The process begins with the initialization of a population of duty cycles X_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots, n_{pop}$) within the permissible range $[D_{min}, D_{max}]$:

$$X_i = D_{min} + \text{rand}(0,1) \cdot (D_{max} - D_{min}), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, n_{pop} \quad (4)$$

Each candidate solution is evaluated based on the corresponding PV power, and the best duty cycle X^* is retained as the initial reference. During the iterative search process, the movement of each candidate is guided by the control function [11]:

$$c(t) = \left(1 - \frac{t}{\text{Max}_{iter}} \right) \cdot (2 \cdot \text{rand}(0,1) - 1) \quad (5)$$

At the end of each iteration, the fitness of the updated solutions is re-evaluated, and the best candidate is stored as the new global solution X^* . The procedure continues until the maximum number of iterations is reached, after which the final duty cycle X^* is adopted to operate the photovoltaic system at the global maximum power point (GMPP), which enhances its ability to handle optimization problems under dynamic conditions, such as partial shading.

4. SIMULATION AND RESULTS

The simulation and system results were obtained using MATLAB/SIMULINK under standard test conditions (STC), with varying irradiance levels (1000 W/m², 800 W/m², 600 W/m², 500 W/m², and 300 W/m²), while maintaining a constant temperature of 25°C. The JSA, GWO, and P&O algorithms were evaluated and compared in terms of their MPPT efficiency.

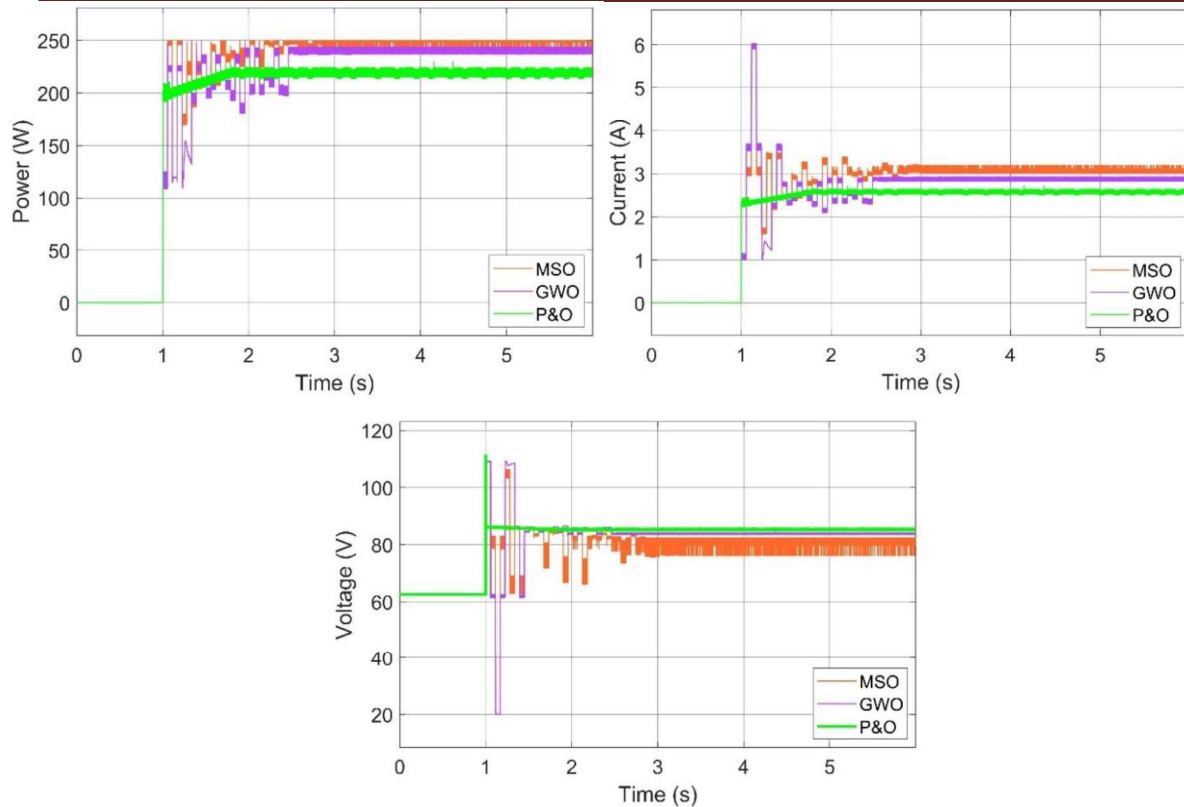


Fig. 3 Comparison results between P&O algorithm, PSO and GWO algorithm under different shading (1000W/m² - 800W/m² - 600W/m²-500W/m² - 300W/m²)

Fig. 3 shows the results obtained when operating the PV system under non-uniform irradiance conditions. The MPP was determined to be approximately 250 W. The performance of three MPPT algorithms P&O, GWO, and JSA was compared in terms of power extraction efficiency and dynamic response.

The P&O algorithm showed limited performance, achieving a tracking efficiency of only 88.82%, with a relatively fast settling time of about 1.9 seconds. However, it failed to reach the global MPP and remained stuck at a local point. In contrast, both JSA and GWO algorithms successfully tracked the GMPP, achieving significantly higher efficiencies of 99.42% and 96.42%, respectively. Although these methods exhibited more oscillatory behavior during the initial phase, they eventually reached better steady-state performance. The JSA demonstrated a faster settling time than GWO, confirming its superiority in speed and accuracy under partial shading conditions.

5. CONCLUSION

This paper presented the integration of photovoltaic (PV) systems with shunt active power filters (SAPF) using a new bio-inspired optimization technique, the Jellyfish Search Algorithm (JSA), for maximum power point tracking (MPPT) under partial shading conditions. The main objective was to simultaneously improve renewable energy utilization and enhance power quality. Simulation results demonstrated that conventional methods, such as P&O, fail to reliably track the global maximum power point, resulting in reduced efficiency and unstable filter performance. The Grey Wolf Optimizer (GWO) showed improved tracking accuracy but with slower convergence. In contrast, the proposed JSA algorithm achieved superior performance, combining faster convergence speed, higher precision, and greater stability. These findings confirm that JSA is a robust and efficient MPPT strategy for PV-SAPF systems operating under complex conditions such as partial shading. Future work may focus on hardware implementation to validate the simulation results and assess real-time feasibility in practical grid-connected applications.

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Optimizing Household Water Temperature Control: A Genetic Algorithm-Based PID Approach.

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Abstract: This paper introduces a household water temperature control system that employs a Genetic Algorithm (GA) based Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) controller to overcome the challenges of input temperature fluctuations. By optimizing PID parameters through GA, the system enhances responsiveness and stability. A mathematical model of the water heating system is developed, allowing for effective control through calculated transfer functions. Simulation experiments confirm that the GA-based PID controller maintains stable output temperatures and improves energy efficiency, offering a robust solution for modern household applications.

Keywords: PID Controller, Genetic Algorithm, Household Systems, Water Tank.

1. INTRODUCTION

The effective management of water temperature in household systems is crucial for user comfort and energy efficiency[1]. Due to variations in the input water temperature, traditional water heating systems frequently have trouble maintaining a constant output temperature, which causes delays and irregular performance. As households increasingly seek smarter and more efficient solutions, there is a growing demand for advanced control systems that can adapt to these challenges[2].

This paper introduces a design for a household output water temperature control system that leverages a Genetic Algorithm (GA) based Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) controller[3]. While PID controllers are widely regarded for their effectiveness in various applications, their performance can be significantly improved through optimization techniques[3]. By employing Genetic Algorithms, which mimic the principles of natural selection, we aim to enhance the tuning of PID parameters, thereby achieving superior control over the system[4].

2. WATER TANK SYSTEM

A water tank system is a critical component in various applications, including residential, industrial, and agricultural settings, where it stores and regulates water supply[5]. It functions by collecting, holding, and distributing water as needed, ensuring a consistent supply for activities such as drinking, irrigation and heating[6]. These systems can vary in size and design, from small household tanks to large municipal reservoirs. Key features often include overflow control, level sensors, and pumps for efficient water management. Additionally, water tanks can enhance energy efficiency in heating systems by providing a buffer against demand fluctuations, allowing for better temperature regulation and reduced energy consumption[5].

3. MATHEMATICAL MODEL OF THE SYSTEM

Figure 1 illustrates the physical setup of the water tank and electric heater assembly. This configuration is integrated into the system to actively regulate the output water temperature by heating the water supply before it exits[7].

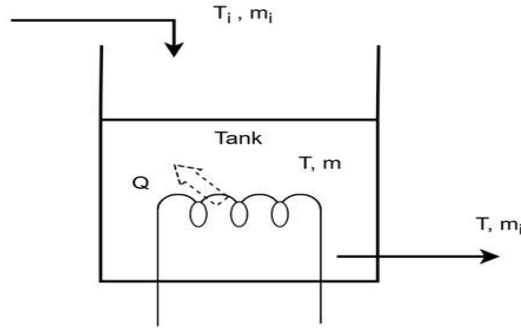


Fig. 1 The physical setup of the water tank and electric heater.

Where m_i is the rate of inflow(kg/s), T_i is the temperature of the inflow ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), T is the temperature of water in the tank and the effluent ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), m is the mass of the water, m_0 is the rate of effluent(kg/s), and Q is the heat supplied by the heater to the tank(kJ).

The first water input into the tank is represented by its inflow, and the last output of the system is represented by its outflow. By altering the heater's heat output, users can change the outflow's (T) temperature.

Energy balance around the tank gives:

$$c \cdot m_i \cdot T_i + Q - c \cdot m_0 \cdot T = \frac{d(m \cdot c \cdot T)}{dt} \quad (1)$$

c is the specific heat capacity of water.

$$c \cdot m_i \cdot T_i + Q - c \cdot m_0 \cdot T = m \cdot c \cdot \frac{dT}{dt} \quad (2)$$

$$\frac{m_i}{m_0} \cdot T_i + \frac{Q}{c \cdot m_0} - T = \frac{m}{m_0} \cdot \frac{dT}{dt} \quad (3)$$

For steady state condition $m_i = m_0$. Then,

$$T_i + \frac{Q}{c \cdot m_0} = \frac{m}{m_0} \cdot \frac{dT}{dt} + T \quad (4)$$

based on a presumption T_i is a constant, Laplace transforming for equation (4) :

$$\left[\left(\frac{m}{m_0} \right) \cdot s + 1 \right] \cdot T(s) = \frac{Q(s)}{c \cdot m_0} \quad (5)$$

The transfer function of the tank model is:

$$G(s) = \frac{T(s)}{Q(s)} = \frac{\frac{1}{c \cdot m_0}}{\left(\frac{m}{m_0} \right) \cdot s + 1} \quad (6)$$

4. GENETIC ALGORITHM BASED PID CONTROLLER

Genetic algorithms (GAs) provide a powerful, heuristic optimization method for tuning Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) controllers[8]. Instead of relying on conventional, often trial-and-error techniques like the Ziegler-Nichols method, the GA treats the three PID parameters (K_p , K_i , K_d) as a chromosome[8]. It then uses evolutionary operators selection, crossover, and mutation to iteratively search the parameter space. The fitness of each set of parameters is typically evaluated using a cost function, such as the Integral of Time weighted Absolute Error (ITAE) or the Integral of Squared Error (ISE), derived from system simulation[9]. This process allows the GA to automatically discover a near optimal combination of K_p , K_i , and K_d that provides superior control

performance, often resulting in faster response times, reduced overshoot, and better disturbance rejection than manually tuned or linear methods[9]. This approach is especially valuable for complex, non-linear, or poorly modeled systems[8]. Figure 1 illustrates the flowchart of Genetic Algorithm.

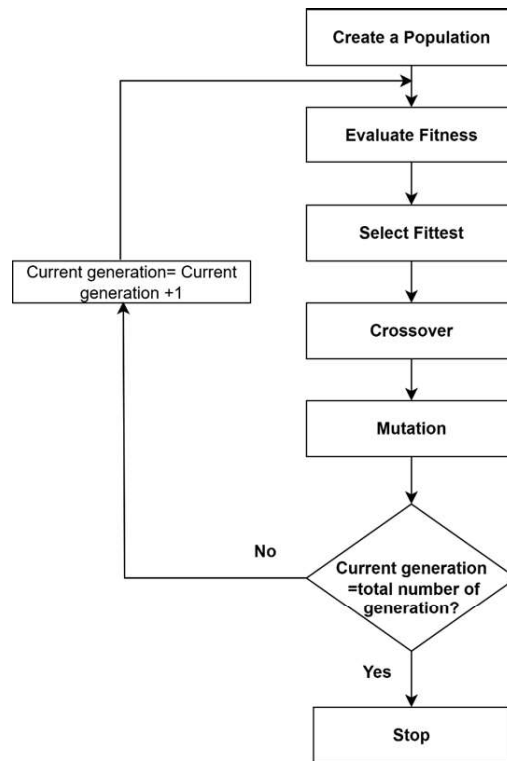


Fig. 2 Flowchart of Genetic Algorithm.

5. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

To improve the performance of the GA based PID in the system, we used simulation/Matlab environment.

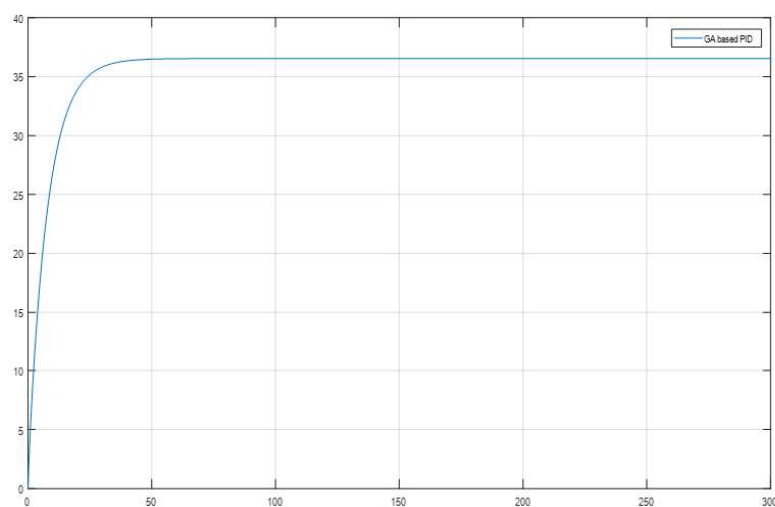


Fig. 3 Responses of PID controllers by using GA.

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By minimising the impact of system disturbances, the GA-based PID controller greatly increases temperature stability. The simulation validates that this advanced control technique effectively removes the detrimental effects of outside disturbances, leading to far more dependable temperature regulation at the water outlet, as shown in Fig. 3.

6. CONCLUSION

In summary, this paper has introduced a robust design for a household output water temperature control system utilizing a Genetic Algorithm (GA) based Proportional-Integral-Derivative (PID) controller. The integration of GA for optimizing PID parameters has significantly improved the system's performance, addressing common issues such as input temperature fluctuations and delayed responses. Through the development of a comprehensive mathematical model and extensive simulation experiments, we have demonstrated the efficacy of the proposed system in maintaining stable output temperatures while enhancing energy efficiency.

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Triad and Q-Method for Low Earth Orbit Satellite Attitude Determination-A Comparative Study

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Abstract: This paper provides a brief presentation and a useful comparison between two different attitude determination methods TRIAD and Q-Method applied on Low Earth Orbit (LEO) satellite using star tracker. This study is accomplished in terms of error estimation and execution time. The performances of both methods are presented. Also, we introduce Monte Carlo simulation to make these algorithms more efficient. Simulation results show that accuracy of Q-Method is more than TRIAD, but the TRIAD algorithm is the fastest one.

Keywords: TRIAD, Q-Method, Attitude Determination, Star tracker, Satellite, Monte Carlo simulation

1. INTRODUCTION

Nowadays, the spacecraft attitude control problem has attracted a great attention because the development of aerospace technology [1]. There are used in many fields, such as telecommunications, satellite surveillance, earth observation and defense technologies [2]. The goal of the satellite's mission is to maintain control over it in space. To carry out this task, we need knowledge of the attitude of the satellite [3]. This latter is the main task of the spacecraft attitude and the orbit control system (AOCS). Therefore, spacecraft estimation is an important part of the spatial domain [4]. The accuracy of attitude determination depends on the accuracy of attitude sensors and the accuracy of attitude determination algorithms. The most commonly used attitude devices include star sensor, sun sensor, infrared horizon sensor, magnetometer and the gyroscope, etc [5]. Among these, Sun sensors or star trackers that are used in small satellites because of the limitations of small satellite missions in terms of power and structure [6]. The accuracy of star sensors is at least one order higher than other attitude sensors [7].

The objective of the attitude determination procedure is to estimate the space orientation of the satellite, in a given instant, in terms of a known reference system, using measurements data obtained by sensors installed in the satellite body, and following a mathematical method to obtain the attitude matrix or attitude parameters [8].

One of the most important aims of the designer of the attitude determination and control system (ADCS) is the choice of best attitude determination method to be adopted considering the microprocessor device, its limits in terms of memory, data processing speed, and computation precision [9].

Attitude determination is divided in two techniques: Absolute attitude determination estimate the spacecraft's orientation using direct measurements from onboard sensors. Attitude propagation is the second technique of the attitude determination process. It relies on the knowledge of the spacecraft's angular velocity, which is obtained from onboard gyroscopes. These angular rates are then integrated to update the spacecraft's orientation over time, starting from an initial absolute attitude reference. In the introduction of the work presented in [10], a question arose, when should we use absolute attitude determination algorithms and when should we use propagate attitude determination algorithms? Refs. [11] and [12] gave a comparative study between these two techniques. Absolute attitude determination algorithms are characterized by high accuracy and high computational load with respect to propagate attitude determination algorithms. This is due to its usage of spacecraft attitude motion models. On the other hand, absolute attitude determination algorithms don't use these models at all. This behavior increases the computational speed

considerably on the cost accuracy. In addition, simplicity of the absolute attitude determination algorithms makes them favorable for satellite on board software [12,13]. TRIAD and Q-Method are the most well known algorithms of absolute attitude determination.

The first one, TRIAD algorithm was developed by Harold Black in the 1960, when he was working for the U.S. Navy to develop a solution to solving for spacecraft attitude [14]. While it is not the optimal solution to attitude determination. Other algorithms find the optimal attitude matrix that minimizes the loss function as proposed by Grace Wahba in 1965. He proposed that the attitude of a satellite is found as a least squares determinate of the rotation matrix, which carries the known frame of reference into the satellite fixed frame of reference [15]. In 1968, Paul Davenport devised a method for computing the optimal quaternion, it called Q-Method, and it is the first useful solution of Wahba's problem for spacecraft attitude determination [16].

This work deals with the selection and evaluation of performance of the two absolute attitude determination algorithms (TRIAD and Q-Method) to be applied in LEO satellite. The paper is organized as follows. Section 2 presents the dynamic and kinematic models used for the satellite. In next section, we describe the TRIAD and Q-Method. Section 4 presents the simulation results and discusses their significance. Finally, the conclusion of this paper is presented in section 5 in order to demonstrate the usefulness of the attitude estimators.

2. SPACECRAFT ATTITUDE MODEL

In this section a brief review of the dynamic and kinematic equations of LEO satellite is show. The dynamics of the spacecraft in inertial space will be governed by the following vector equation [17, 18]:

$$I\dot{\omega}_B^I = N_{GG} + N_{ext} - \omega_B^I \times (I\omega_B^I + h) - \dot{h} \quad (1)$$

where ω_B^I , I , N_{GG} , and N_{ext} are respectively the inertially referenced body angular velocity vector, moment of inertia of spacecraft, gravity gradient torque vector, external disturbance torque vector.

The kinematics (attitude) of the satellite can be updated by the following vector equation:

$$\dot{q} = \frac{1}{2} \Omega q \quad (2)$$

with,

$$\Omega = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \omega_{oz} & -\omega_{oy} & \omega_{ox} \\ -\omega_{oz} & 0 & \omega_{ox} & \omega_{oy} \\ \omega_{oy} & -\omega_{ox} & 0 & \omega_{oz} \\ -\omega_{ox} & -\omega_{oy} & -\omega_{oz} & 0 \end{bmatrix} \quad (3)$$

The spacecraft attitude model is found by linking the attitude dynamics and kinematics equations as follows [18]:

$$\dot{q}_1 = \frac{1}{2} (\omega_{oz} q_2 - \omega_{oy} q_3 + \omega_{ox} q_4) \quad (4.a)$$

$$\dot{q}_2 = \frac{1}{2} (-\omega_{oz} q_1 + \omega_{ox} q_3 + \omega_{oy} q_4) \quad (4.b)$$

$$\dot{q}_3 = \frac{1}{2} (\omega_{oy} q_1 - \omega_{ox} q_2 + \omega_{oz} q_4) \quad (4.c)$$

$$\dot{q}_4 = \frac{1}{2} (-\omega_{ox} q_1 - \omega_{oy} q_2 - \omega_{oz} q_3) \quad (4.d)$$

$$I_x \dot{\omega}_x = N_x - (I_z - I_y) \omega_y \omega_z - \omega_y h_z + \omega_z h_y - \dot{h}_x \quad (4.e)$$

$$I_y \dot{\omega}_y = N_y - (I_x - I_z) \omega_x \omega_z + \omega_x h_z - \omega_z h_x - \dot{h}_y \quad (4.f)$$

$$I_z \dot{\omega}_z = N_z - (I_y - I_x) \omega_x \omega_y - \omega_x h_y + \omega_y h_x - \dot{h}_z \quad (4.g)$$

where,

$$N = N_{GG} + N_{ext} \quad (5)$$

The corresponding state vector x is

$$x(t) = [q_1, q_2, q_3, q_4, \omega_x, \omega_y, \omega_z]^T \quad (6)$$

3. ATTITUDE DETERMINATION ALGORITHMS

This section describes the various steps in design of the TRIAD and Q-Method applied to LEO satellite. The objective of the attitude determination methods is to estimate the space orientation of the satellite. This orientation can be measured by using sensors that can give measurements of known quantity (magnetic field, direction of the sun, direction of the star, etc) in the form of three dimensional vectors [18].

A. TRIAD

TRIAD is a deterministic method to compute the DCM, It was introduced by Shuster and Oh [20] to determine the attitude in a spacecraft from a set of vector measurements. The computation using TRIAD is the simplest and more direct way to find the attitude matrix, because it consists of the construction of two orthonormal vectors triads using two pairs of vector measurements: two in the orbital reference frame, noted v_1 and v_2 , and two in the body reference frame, noted w_1 and w_2 . Let n_1 and n_2 be the measured noises of w_1 and w_2 , respectively. The above description can be described as follow [5]:

$$w_i = A v_i + n_i \quad (7)$$

where $i=1, 2$, and A is the true attitude matrix.

The algorithm calls for the computation of the following column matrices in body coordinate [21]:

$$r_1 = w_1/|w_1| \quad (8.a)$$

$$r_2 = (r_1 \times w_2)/|r_1 \times w_2| \quad (8.b)$$

$$r_3 = r_1 \times r_2 \quad (8.c)$$

And the following corresponding column matrices in the reference system [5]:

$$s_1 = v_1/|v_1| \quad (9.a)$$

$$s_2 = (s_1 \times v_2)/|s_1 \times v_2| \quad (9.b)$$

$$s_3 = s_1 \times s_2 \quad (9.c)$$

Then the attitude matrix that transforms from body to the reference coordinate system is computed as follows [5]:

$$A = r_1 \cdot s_1^T + r_2 \cdot s_2^T + r_3 \cdot s_3^T \quad (10)$$

where T denotes the transpose.

B. Q-Method

The Q-Method algorithm uses two observation vectors, and it can be described as follows [9]. Considering n unitary vectors b_i , $i = 1 \dots n$, where n corresponds to the number of independent sensors installed in the satellite body, and r_i the observation vectors. For each observed vector, a reference vector r_i is necessary to be used in the attitude computation [9]. Therefore, the attitude matrix A associates the observed and reference one:

$$b_i = A r_i + n_i \quad (11)$$

A solution to this problem can be found using optimization methods. The Q-Method provided the first useful solution of Wahba's problem for spacecraft attitude determination [16]. The Wahba's problem is given as,

$$L(A) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n a_i \| b_i - A r_i \|^2 \quad (12)$$

We are seeking for a unit length the quaternion that minimizes the cost function given in Eq. (12). The required quaternion vector is the eigenvector of certain matrix K , corresponding to the largest eigenvalue. Construction of the K matrix starts by defining σ , B , S , and Z as follows [17]

$$B = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i r_i^T \quad (13.a)$$

$$\sigma = \text{trace } B \quad (13.b)$$

$$S = B + B^T \quad (13.c)$$

$$Z = \sum_{i=1}^n a_i b_i \times r_i \quad (13.d)$$

and,

$$K = \begin{bmatrix} S - \sigma I & Z \\ Z^T & \sigma \end{bmatrix} \quad (14)$$

The eigenvalues of the K matrix are:

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} \lambda_1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & \lambda_2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & \lambda_3 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \lambda_4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (15)$$

The eigenvectors corresponding are:

$$D = \begin{bmatrix} q_1^1 & q_1^2 & q_1^3 & q_1^4 \\ q_2^1 & q_2^2 & q_2^3 & q_2^4 \\ q_3^1 & q_3^2 & q_3^3 & q_3^4 \\ q_4^1 & q_4^2 & q_4^3 & q_4^4 \end{bmatrix} \quad (16)$$

The maximum of eigenvalues is:

$$\lambda_{aMAXx} = \max(\text{diag}(D)) \quad (17)$$

The eigenvector corresponding to the largest eigenvalue of the matrix K is the optimal estimate of quaternion:

$$q_{\text{meas}} = [V(\lambda_{aMAXx})]^T$$

where, q_{meas} Measured quaternion using davenport's q-method.

4. SIMULATION RESULTS

This section present the results obtained for the two algorithms exposed previously. The satellite is placed at an average altitude of 686 km on a circular orbit inclined 98° to the equator. The inertia matrix is given as $I = \text{diag}([12,14,10])$. The initial conditions are [5 10 -10] deg and [0 -0.06 0] rad/sec for the Euler angles and the attitude rate respectively. The attitude measurement is artificially corrupted by noise with bounds of ± 0.05 deg. Applied external torques are:

$$\begin{bmatrix} 10^{-7}(5 \cos(\omega_0 t) + 1) \\ 10^{-7}(5 \cos(\omega_0 t) + 2 \sin(\omega_0 t)) \\ 10^{-7}(5 \cos(\omega_0 t) + 1) \end{bmatrix}$$

In figure Fig. 1 the true attitude and the estimated attitude are represented, and the estimation error is plotted.

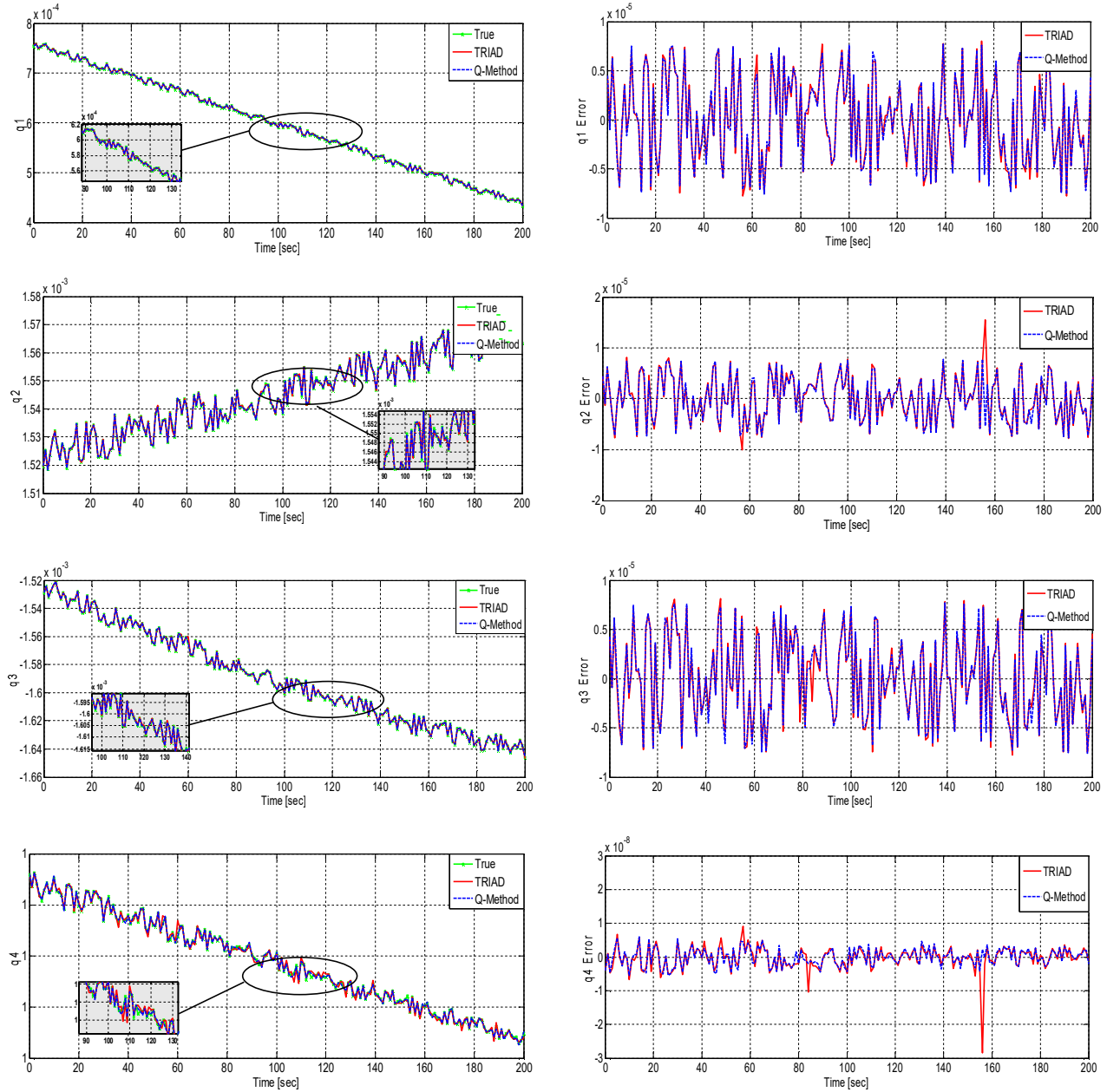


Fig. 1. TRIAD and Q-Method results for quaternion attitude and errors.

5. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, two important attitude determination algorithms (TRIAD and Q-Method) are proposed for Low Earth Orbit (LEO) satellite using star tracker. This comparative study is accomplished in terms of error estimation and execution time.

As shown in the results of this work, both of the algorithms are characterized by low computation effort. On the other hand, they provide low accuracies of spacecraft attitude, and they are able to estimate attitude but not other states (such as angular rate, biases and noise measurement). The simulation results indicate clearly that performance of TRIAD and Q-Method algorithm is very close to each other, but the error estimation of the Q-Method is better than the TRIAD, and this last is the fastest.

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Human Activity Recognition Using CNN-GRU

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Abstract: This work proposes a human activity recognition system (HAR) based on inertial sensors, utilizing a hybrid deep learning model that combines Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN) and Gated Recurrent Units (GRU). We first calculated the amplitude of accelerations and the amplitude of angular velocities, which will serve as inputs for the CNN. Next, we used augmentation techniques to balance the data. Finally, we applied the CNN-GRU combination to benefit from the efficiency of CNNs in extracting spatial features from the data and GRUs in capturing temporal dependencies. The results of experimental tests conducted on the WISDM and PAMAP2 datasets demonstrate the improved performance of the proposed HAR system compared to work published in the literature.

Keywords: Human Activity Recognition (HAR), Convolutional Neural Networks (CNN), Gated Recurrent Units (GRU), Inertial Sensors

1. INTRODUCTION

Human activity recognition (HAR) aims to identify and classify actions performed by a person. HAR has applications in various sectors such as healthcare, sports, surveillance, and human-machine interactions, playing a key role in improving quality of life and safety. According to [1], HAR can be addressed through two main approaches: vision-based and sensor-based. Vision-based HAR uses visual data from videos or images captured by surveillance cameras, smartphones, or other recording devices. It has demonstrated remarkable performance in HAR, particularly with advances in artificial neural networks. However, due to privacy concerns associated with camera-based systems, alternative approaches using different types of sensors have emerged. With the proliferation of smart devices, wearable sensors such as inertial measurement units (IMUs) that can collect motion data and identify activities ranging from simple gestures to complex movements have attracted significant attention [2].

The field of HAR is based on machine learning techniques. Although these traditional methods have proven useful, they have limitations in terms of manual feature extraction, accuracy, and the ability to generalize to different situations. Deep learning (DL) techniques offer new perspectives for addressing these challenges by extracting and learning rich and varied features from data. However, despite their advantages, they also face challenges, particularly in the accurate detection of certain activities and reducing confusion between different similar actions. Moreover, in recognizing human activities, extracting features from both complex spatial details and temporal dynamics remains an issue due to class imbalance and noisy data [3]. Overfitting is also a significant concern, with models tending to generalize poorly on new data [4]. To address the issues, the use of hybrid models that combine neural network layers is an alternative that is already adopted in several proposals [5][6] and has proven to be a promising solution.

In this direction, this work aims to implement a system that combines the strengths of CNNs and GRUs to improve the accuracy and robustness of HAR systems. Indeed, CNNs are effective at extracting spatial features from data, while GRUs are particularly effective at capturing temporal dependencies. This synergy enables better recognition of human activities and reduces classification errors. It also combines the manually extracted feature—signal amplitude from inertial measurements—with the features automatically extracted by the proposed DL model. Finally, the augmentation technique is applied to datasets that contain imbalanced classes. The rest of the paper is organized as follows: first, Section 2 presents related work; then, Section 3 details the proposed approach; next, Section 4 discusses the experiment and results obtained; and finally, Section 5 concludes the paper.

2. RELATED WORK

This section presents work related to deep learning-based HAR using wearable sensors. For example, Pawlyta et al. [7] presented an approach for recognizing specific human activities, in the case of skiing, using DL. The authors use sensors placed on a skier (accelerometer, gyroscope, and magnetometer) to collect synchronous data. Given the speed and variability of skiers' movements, it is difficult to recognize specific activities performed while skiing. To better manage this complexity, the authors proposed the implementation of an RNN (Recurrent Neural Network) based on two LSTM (Unidirectional, Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory) architecture models and then evaluated the models using their own database and obtained high performance for each skiing activity. Furthermore, Murad and Pyun [8] have developed a new HAR architecture based on the use of an LSTM-based RNN for processing time series data captured by an accelerometer and a gyroscope. They developed architectures for three DRNN models: Unidirectional LSTM, Bidirectional LSTM, and Cascaded Bidirectional and Unidirectional LSTM. To evaluate their models, they used several datasets, where the unidirectional DRNN model achieved an accuracy of 96.7%. In addition, Mohsen [9] implemented a system for classifying human activities using RNN based on a Gated Recurrent Unit (GRU) algorithm. The results demonstrate good performance, with 97.08% accuracy. Moreover, Raj and Kos [10] aimed to collect data using mobile sensors, preprocess it, segment it into appropriate segments, and then use it to train a recognition model based on a 2D CNN. The authors applied hyperparameter tuning to improve performance. The accuracy of the proposed methodology is superior to that of other CNN-based HAR techniques. Wang and Liu [11] proposed a new hierarchical LSTM (H-LSTM) framework with two hidden layers based on wearable sensors. First, raw data is preprocessed using smoothing and denoising techniques, then features are extracted using the time-frequency-domain method. Finally, the H-LSTM model is used to classify activities. The experimental results show that the H-LSTM system offers better performance than other DL algorithms, reaching an accuracy of 99.15%. Finally, Ding et al. [12] proposed a DL model for HAR composed of three CNN convolution layers and a compression and excitation block. These layers are used to accurately extract spatial features from raw data that is collected by sensors. The extracted features are used as input to three parallel paths, each containing an LSTM layer, which is sequentially connected to a GRU layer to learn the temporal representation. The outputs of the paths are concatenated and fed back to the recognition block to recognize the final human activity. Experimental results indicate that the HAR model achieves a classification accuracy of 98.55%.

3. METHODOLOGY

In this work, we propose a HAR system using inertial measures from accelerometers, gyroscopes, and magnetometer sensors. Our architecture combines a CNN and GRU to automatically extract spatio-temporal features from the data (see Fig.1). We use a multi-channel convolutional neural network to improve feature extraction at different spatial scales. These extracted features are then combined and fed into a GRU. This approach allows CNNs to effectively capture spatial information and GRUs to learn crucial temporal relationships, providing an enriched and robust representation of the data. Only the steps where we applied changes to our model will be detailed.



Fig. 1 Diagram of the proposed HAR system.

Pre-processing phase

The applied processing is normalization, magnitude calculation, resampling, and segmentation to better exploit the characteristics of the datasets to be presented in the next section.

- A. Normalization:** This step involved three main procedures. The conversion of categorical values, in particular, the transformation of sensor states such as “ON” and “OFF” into numerical values. Missing values were handled by applying linear interpolation to estimate the missing values (NaN - Not a Number). Interpolation allows missing values to be filled in

efficiently and maintains the consistency of the data series over time or space. Finally, standardization of numerical characteristics is used to readjust the data so that it has a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one.

- B. Calculation of magnitudes:** Magnitude is obtained by taking the values of the x, y, and z axes of a three-dimensional sensor to provide an additional measurement. The latter can capture relevant information about the intensity or variation of the recorded movements, which is not always evident from the individual characteristics on each sensor axis. Magnitude M is calculated using the following formula:

$$M = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \quad (1)$$

- C. Resampling:** We noted a significant imbalance between the different classes in the datasets used, which can lead to bias in DL models. We therefore increased the number of examples to prevent the model from being biased in favor of the majority class.
- D. Segmentation:** The data is segmented into fixed-size windows, and the most frequent label in each window is retrieved.

Feature extraction phase

This phase involves the use of a multi-scale convolution method, which includes three main feature extraction blocks. Each block is similar in structure but differs in the size of the convolution kernel used: 3, 5, and 7, as shown in Fig. 2. Each includes two convolutional layers, with filters of specific sizes (3, 5, or 7), a max pooling layer to reduce dimensionality after the first convolutional layer; a batch normalization layer to speed up training and reduce overfitting; a GRU layer to capture spatio-temporal features in the data; and a Dropout layer to apply regularization by randomly disabling a percentage of neurons to prevent overfitting.

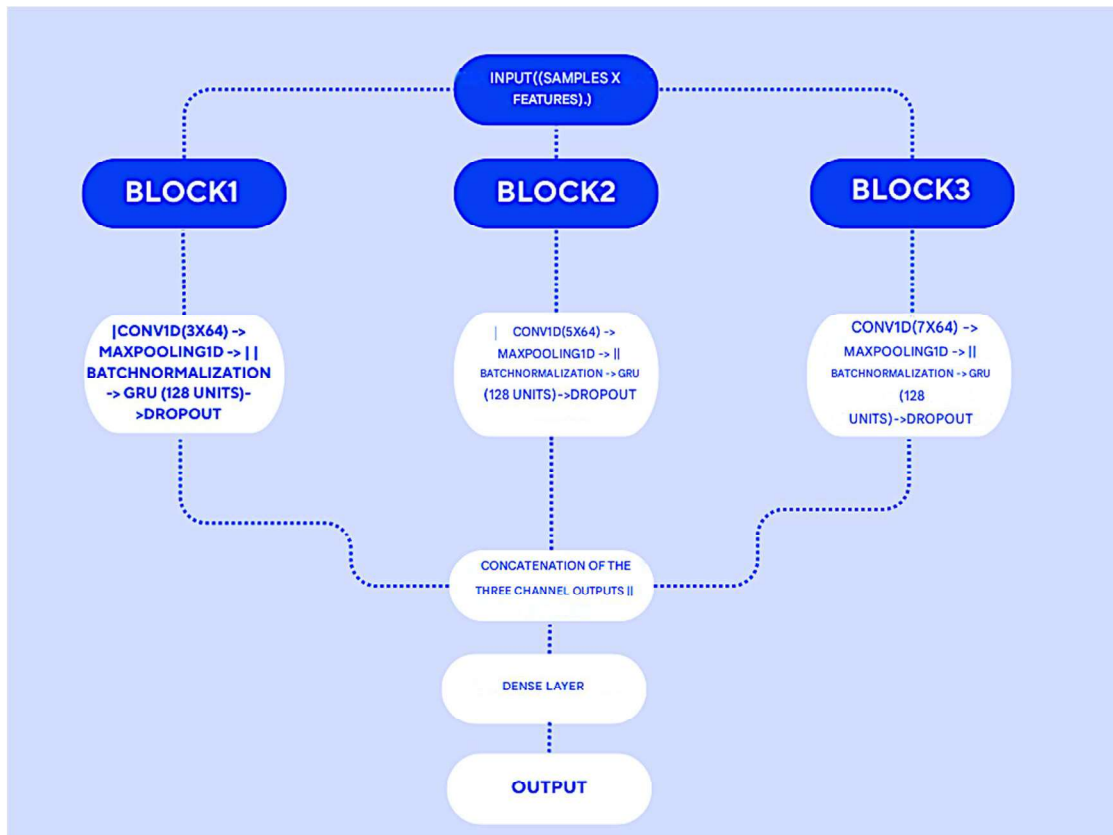


Fig. 2 Diagram of multi-scale method including three feature extraction blocks.

Feature Concatenation and Decision Phase

Concatenation combines the features from the three channels (see Fig. 2): a channel with size 3 filters to extract short-term local features, with 5 filters to capture slightly longer patterns in the time sequence, and with 7 filters ideal for extracting features that require longer-term analysis and

capturing trends over a longer time scale to form a rich, comprehensive representation of the data. After, the combined features pass through a batch normalization layer to speed up training and reduce overfitting. Finally, the reduced features are sent to a dense layer with a Softmax activation to produce the classification output.

4. EXPERIMENTATION AND RESULTS ANALYSIS

This section is dedicated to the implementation, testing, and validation of the proposed HAR system. First, we provide an overview of the development environment used; next, we describe the datasets used to train and evaluate the model. We then present the results obtained, compare them with existing approaches, and discuss the advantages of our hybrid approach.

To implement the HAR system, we used several tools, including the Python programming language and the Google Colab platform. We tested the system on two publicly available datasets that are well known in the HAR community, namely WISDM and PAMAP2. Using two datasets allows us to strengthen the results obtained.

The WISDM dataset [13] contains a total of 1,098,207 samples. It is a set of activities collected from 36 users performing daily activities, including the following six behaviors: walking, sitting, jogging, going down stairs, going up stairs, and standing. This data was obtained from an accelerometer integrated into an Android phone placed in the front pocket of the pants, with a sampling frequency of 20 Hz.

The PAMAP2 dataset [14] collects various activities from 9 volunteers (1 woman, 8 men), including 12 protocol activities (lying down, sitting, standing, walking, running, cycling, Nordic walking, ironing, vacuuming, jumping rope, climbing, and descending stairs) and 6 optional activities (watching TV, working on a computer, driving a car, folding laundry, cleaning the house, and playing soccer). Activity data were recorded by IMU sensors installed at different positions on the human body (hand, chest, and ankle). A total of 52 features were captured at a sampling frequency of 100 Hz.

After the preprocessing phase, each dataset was divided into three subsets: 70% of the data was used to train the model, and 10% was used for validation to evaluate the model during training, adjust the model's hyperparameters, and help monitor overfitting. Finally, 20% of the data was used to construct the test set. This set will be used to test and evaluate the model's performance, providing a realistic estimate of its effectiveness on new, unseen data.

To evaluate our system, we used the following metrics: accuracy, precision, and F1-score. Table 1 presents the results of our model in the training and test phases across both datasets. It demonstrates promising performance using our hybrid model with the extracted magnitude feature and the data augmentation, achieving accuracies of 0.974 and 0.967 on the WISDM and PAMAP2 datasets, respectively. It also shows an interesting F1-score of 0.967 in both datasets.

Table 1 Rates accuracy for the training set and test set.

Dataset	WISDM		PAMAP2	
	Train	Test	Train	Test
Accuracy	0.988	0.974	0.982	0.967
Precision	0.990	0.970	0.960	0.968
F1-score	0.990	0.967	0.960	0.967

The ablation study shows that adding a component to the basic CNN+GRU architecture, either magnitude or augmentation, increases recognition accuracy on the WISDM dataset, as shown in Table 2. Adding the magnitude on WISDM increases accuracy from 0.521 to 0.801. However, on the PAMAP2 dataset, adding the magnitude feature slightly decreases the accuracy. Moreover, the data augmentation has a significant increase in both datasets.

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Table 2 Results of the ablation study in terms of accuracy for the training set and test set.

Dataset	WISDM		PAMAP2	
	Train	Test	Train	Test
CNN+GRU	0.783	0.521	0.995	0.875
CNN+GRU+Magnitude	0.979	0.801	0.974	0.836
CNN+GRU+Augmentation	0.987	0.959	0.947	0.943
CNN+GRU+Magnitude+Augmentation (our model)	0.988	0.974	0.982	0.967

The confusion matrix obtained by our model applied to the WISDM dataset, illustrated in Fig. 3, indicates a predominance of correct classifications. For example, the activity “UPSTAIRS” has 608 correctly identified instances compared to 30 incorrectly classified instances in other activities.

Fig. 3 Confusion matrix of the result obtained on the WISDM dataset.

Finally, Tables 2 and 3 compare our model with several HAR models presented in the literature in terms of accuracy and F1-score metrics. The selected models were validated on the WISDM or PAMAP2 datasets. Table 2 shows that our model outperforms the other models on the WISDM dataset, except for model [5], which slightly outperforms our model in terms of F1 score.

Table 2 Comparison with other models the WISDM dataset.

Model	Our model	Model [5]	Model [6]	Model [15]	Model [16]
Accuracy	0.974	0.972	/	0.933	0.964
F1-score	0.967	0.972	95.85	/	0.965

On the PAMAP2 dataset, whatever the metric used, our model outperforms all other models, demonstrating the robustness of the proposed approach, given that PAMAP2 contains 18 activities, allowing us to explore more diverse activity scenarios.

Table 3 Comparison with other models on the dataset PAMAP2.

Model	Our model	Model [5]	Model [17]	Model [18]
Accuracy	0.967	0.963	0.910	/
F1-score	0.967	0.963	0.912	0.940

5. CONCLUSION

This article proposed a hybrid human activity recognition system based on CNN and GRU using data from wearable sensors. The amplitude characteristics (that derived from accelerations and that derived from angular velocities) of the three-dimensional axes, as well as the data augmentation, improved the performance of the proposed HAR system. Furthermore, comparison with state-of-the-art methods on two publicly available datasets showed competitive results.

In future work, we plan to investigate the recognition of human activities involving specific interactions with objects to detect subtle transitions, such as moving from a seated position to active interaction with a machine, like keyboarding. This would enable more accurate classification of activities by identifying not only what a person is doing, but also how they are interacting with their environment.

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Pumping Systems in Semi-Arid Areas: Techno-Economic Evaluation of Solar, Grid, and Diesel Options

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Abstract: In semi-arid areas such as Batna (Algeria), water scarcity, droughts, and limited electrification require reliable, autonomous pumping systems. An analysis of solutions (solar, grid, diesel) is essential for sustainable access to water. In light of these constraints, this study provides a comparative technical and economic analysis of three pumping systems for supplying water to farms : an autonomous photovoltaic system, a low-voltage grid connection, and a diesel generator. The three systems are sized to deliver 175 m³/day at a total manometric height of 154 meters, via a 30 kW submersible motor pump. The PV system and the electrical grid incorporate a frequency converter to regulate pumping, while the diesel system powers the pump directly. The electrical infrastructure is designed to provide a safe and reliable power supply in isolated rural areas. The required hydraulic energy is 73.44 kWh/day, or 119 kWh/day of electricity (62% efficiency), totaling 43,435 kWh/year. The economic analysis, based on the Life Cycle Cost (LCC) methodology over a period of 25 years, reveals that the PV system is the most cost-effective solution, with a total discounted cost of 12.67 million DA and a cost of pumped water of 7.93 DA/m³. By way of comparison, connection to the electricity grid has an LCC of 20.92 million DA (39% higher), and a water cost of 13.10 DA/m³, while the diesel system, despite a moderate initial investment, has an LCC of 32.7 million DA with a water cost of 20.48 DA/m³, due to high operating costs (fuel, oil, maintenance). In addition to its economic performance, solar pumping stands out for its low carbon footprint, energy independence, and reliability in isolated areas with high levels of sunshine. It represents a sustainable and resilient solution, well suited to semi-arid regions. The study confirms its strategic importance for energy transition, water security, and sustainable agricultural development.

Keywords : Solar photovoltaics, Sizing, Low Voltage Grids, Technical and economic analysis, Life Cycle Cost.

1. INTRODUCTION

In semi-arid areas, water supply for agriculture is essential for food security and rural development, but remains constrained by low rainfall, prolonged droughts, and often partial electrification. These limitations reduce the efficiency of traditional pumping systems and require autonomous and sustainable alternatives. The choice of energy source is a strategic issue, involving technical, economic, and environmental considerations. Three options are compared: solar photovoltaic pumping, connection to the low-voltage grid, and diesel generator.

The site studied, located in Batna (1,040 m above sea level), enjoys average solar radiation of 3.866 to 5.828 kWh/m²/day, with a minimum value of 3,866 Wh/m²/day for sizing purposes. The borehole has a dynamic level of 138 m, a reservoir of 2 m, and pressure losses equivalent to 10% of the total height. This study is based on precise technical dimensioning and an economic analysis using the 25-year life cycle cost method. Studies show that solar pumping is a sustainable and cost-effective solution in isolated agricultural areas, but emphasize the importance of a technical and economic analysis tailored to each site.

Numerous studies confirm the superior cost-effectiveness of photovoltaic pumping compared to diesel or low-voltage grid-connected systems. In [1], a comparison in Ireland between solar and diesel pumping revealed the economic and sustainable advantages of solar power. In [2], a life

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cycle cost analysis in Ethiopia showed the economic superiority of solar power in remote areas. In [3], photovoltaic pumping in Palestine proved to be more reliable, environmentally friendly, and cost-effective, while also strengthening the energy independence of rural areas.

Studies based on LCC show that photovoltaic pumping is the most cost-effective and sustainable solution in semi-arid areas such as Batna, combining food security and climate resilience. The main objective is to identify the most effective, economically viable, and sustainable solution capable of ensuring a reliable, continuous, and optimized water supply, while meeting the requirements for efficient and resilient water resource management in areas with severe water constraints.

2. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of designing a pumping system is to accurately size the components needed to supply water for agricultural use. It follows a rigorous approach that guarantees performance, energy efficiency, and reliability.

Key steps include:

- ❖ Assessment of hydraulic requirements (daily water requirements, pumping duration, flow rate),
 - ❖ Hydraulic sizing (calculation of TMH, power requirements, pump selection),
 - ❖ Sizing of the PV generator, diesel generator, and Low-voltage grid connection;
 - ❖ Electrical sizing (VFD, protections, and accessories).
- The economic analysis is based on the life-cycle cost method, which takes into account all costs associated with the system during its operating life.

It distinguishes :

- ❖ Initial costs: purchase and implementation;
- ❖ Recurring costs: operation, maintenance, replacement, and end of life.

The LCC methodology includes defining the scope of analysis, choosing the time horizon, identifying technological solutions, and discounting cash flows. It enables reliable and objective comparative assessment over the long term.

This process allows for a rigorous and objective comparison between different pumping solutions, taking into account their long-term economic viability.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Technical design results

The technical design provides for a flow rate of 46 m³/h for a TMH of 154 m, with a 30 kW motor pump driven by a 37 kW VFD (PV and grid). Daily hydraulic energy consumption is 73.44 kWh, daily electricity consumption is 119 kWh, or 43,435 kWh per year.

The selected PV generator has a total peak power $P_{pPV} = 41.25$ kWp (configuration : 75 × 550 Wp = 41.25 kWp).

For Low-voltage grid connection, protection of the first connection segment and the VFD is provided by a 4P 100 A circuit breaker, while the motor pump is protected by a 63 A motor circuit breaker.

The BT connection is designed for a maximum voltage drop of 5% and comprises two segments :

- ❖ 850 m of twisted Almélec cable 3 × 150 mm² + 1 × 70 mm² + 2 × 16 mm², carrying 71 A,
- ❖ 160 m of flexible copper cable 4 × 35 mm², carrying 57 A.

The chosen generator has a power rating of 65 kVA ($\eta_{GE} = 90\%$, $\cos\phi = 0.8$, $K_{sec} = 30\%$) and operates at 75% load. It consumes 12 L/h of diesel fuel, or 45.6 L/day and 16,644 L/year. Its 500 L tank provides 11 days of autonomy. Annual oil consumption is 140 L, corresponding to 7 oil changes for 1,400 hours of operation.

Results of the economic assessment

The results of the economic assessment are summarized in Fig. 1, which compares the three pumping systems (photovoltaic, grid-connected, and diesel) according to four criteria: initial investment, total discounted cost over 25 years, annual expenses, and cost per cubic meter of water pumped. This analysis highlights the significant differences between the options studied and identifies the most economically advantageous solution in the local context.



Fig. 1 Technical and economic comparison of pumping systems: initial investment, discounted cost over 25 years, annual expenses, and cost per cubic meter pumped (PV, network, diesel)

Analysis of the results of the economic evaluation

The economic analysis over a 25-year period highlights significant differences between the three pumping systems studied: photovoltaic, low-voltage electrical grid, and diesel generator.

The photovoltaic pumping system requires an initial investment of 4,189,900 DA, plus implementation costs of 1,256,970 DA, for a total of 5,446,870 DA at start-up. Thanks to the absence of fuel costs and limited maintenance costs (92,975 DA/year), its total discounted cost over the analysis period is only 12,672,013.93 DA. The cost per cubic meter of pumped water is 7.93 DA/m³, making it the most economical solution in the long term.

The system powered by the low-voltage electrical grid requires an initial investment of 6,641,100 DA and an implementation cost of 2,656,440 DA, representing an initial cost 41% higher than that of the photovoltaic system. Despite moderate annual operating costs (300,000 DA) and electricity consumption of 92,038.77 DA/year, the total discounted cost amounts to 20,920,645.13 DA, which

is 39% higher than that of the PV system. The cost of pumped water (13.10 DA/m³) also remains 39% higher than that of the solar system, which reduces its long-term profitability.

The diesel generator stands out for its initial investment of 4,171,000 DA and implementation costs limited to 834,200 DA, but it generates considerable operating costs: 482,842.44 DA/year for diesel fuel, 140,000 DA/year for oil, and 193,550 DA/year for maintenance. These recurring costs result in a total discounted cost of 32,698,475.16 DA, which is 2.6 times higher than that of the photovoltaic system. The cost of pumped water reaches 20.48 DA/m³, which is 61% higher than that of the solar system.

In summary, the photovoltaic pumping system stands out for its significantly higher economic efficiency compared to solutions powered by the electrical grid or diesel generators. Its increased longevity, total energy independence, and reduced environmental impact make it a sustainable and efficient option for supplying water to farms. This system is therefore an optimal solution for semi-arid areas such as the Batna region, where it promotes water security, energy cost control, and the transition to sustainable agriculture.

4. CONCLUSION

The study presented evaluated and compared three energy supply solutions for an agricultural pumping system in a semi-arid context: photovoltaics, low-voltage electricity grid, and diesel generator. The results of this study highlight the clear advantages of the PV pumping system in agricultural contexts in semi-arid areas.

The economic assessment conducted using the life cycle cost method over a period of 25 years highlights marked differences between the three systems studied. The photovoltaic system has the lowest total discounted cost, estimated at 12.67 million DA, with a pumped water cost of 7.93 DA/m³. The absence of fuel costs and low maintenance costs guarantee its long-term profitability.

In comparison, the system connected to the low-voltage electrical grid generates a LCC of 20.92 million DA, which is 39% higher than that of the solar system, with a water cost of 13.10 DA/m³. Despite its energy stability, it remains penalized by significant initial investment and recurring operating costs, particularly in remote rural areas.

Finally, although the diesel system requires a relatively low initial investment, its total discounted cost is 32.7 million DA, which is 2.6 times higher than photovoltaic energy, with water costs reaching 20.48 DA/m³. This result can be explained by very high operating costs (fuel, oil, maintenance), making this system economically unviable in the long term.

The photovoltaic pumping system stands out for its environmental sustainability, with zero carbon footprint during operation, increased longevity, and optimal adaptation to isolated and sunny areas. The technical and economic analysis based on Life Cycle Cost confirms that this is the most viable, resilient, and cost-effective solution for agricultural water supply in semi-arid areas. It ensures sustainable energy independence, reduces operating costs, and addresses food security and ecological transition issues, particularly in regions such as Batna, where access to the grid is limited but solar potential is high.

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A Comparative Analysis of Delaunay Triangulation Algorithms and Their Implementations

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Abstract: 3D Delaunay triangulation is one of the oldest and most fundamental surface reconstruction techniques. Its objective is to create triangles from points using different algorithmic approaches developed in the literature. Delaunay triangulation methods can be classified according to their simplicity: Bistellar Flip and Incremental. Bistellar Flip algorithm works by inserting points one at a time and flipping triangles as needed to maintain the Delaunay property (empty circumcircles). Incremental of Bowyer-Watson algorithm uses the incremental point insertion, triangle deletion based on circumcircle containment, and the subsequent retriangulation of the resulting polygonal hole. The main contribution of this paper is to implement three algorithms : Bowyer-Watson algorithm, Bistellar flips algorithm and An enhanced Bistellar flips algorithm. At the end, a comparative study of these three methods has been established and tested on an unstructured point cloud. The objective of this comparison is to determine their performances and to select the more appropriate one.

Keywords: bistellar flips, 3D Delaunay triangulation, an enhanced bistellar flips

1. INTRODUCTION

With the technological evolution in different industries such as automotive, robotics, aeronautics, industrial design and medical, the need to produce complex objects is always present with more details and a higher degree of accuracy. Nevertheless, surface construction techniques remain limited or insufficient to allow the realization of the desired shapes. In the literature, several reconstruction methods from cloud points were carried out, and the choice depends on the type of input data (points clouds), which can be uniform or non-uniform. Since the object scanning gives non-uniform points clouds, the surface reconstruction becomes a difficult task in three dimension [1]. In a general way, surface reconstruction methods are classified into four classes: explicit form, implicit form, computer vision and soft computing [2]. In [2] there are two different types of explicit surfaces: parametric and triangulated. Parametric surfaces are topologically limited by the initial model, which means that complex surfaces are not easily represented. Triangulated surfaces are the most intuitive version of surface representation, in which the surface is described by triangles connected from the input points that is why Dual Voronoï diagram and Delaunay triangulation algorithm have been developed. After a study on main advantages and disadvantages of several reconstruction algorithms in [3], Delaunay triangulation method is the most used. Three kinds of algorithms are commonly used for Delaunay triangulations: divide-and conquer, sweep line and incremental insertion. The divide-and-conquer is generally good for parallelism and it need multi-core processor computers [8]. The sweep line is used in 2D space and its implementation has gradually been simplified over the years, but still remains of significant programming complexity. For this reason, a number of researchers have continued to implement simpler methods. A simple algorithm belongs to the class of incremental algorithms, it has the advantage of generalizing to higher dimensionality [5]. This algorithm inserts each time one point and updates the triangulation, which allows to always satisfying the Delaunay property at each insertion. This implementation is relatively simple, but it runs slowly and its complexity is $O(n^2)$ in the worst case. Two approaches can be used for incremental insertion: Bowyer- Watson algorithm and Bistellar flips algorithm. Bowyer-Watson algorithm [6] works by inserting points, one at a time to a valid Delaunay triangulation. After every insertion, any triangle whose circumcircle contain the new point is deleted, thus leaving a star-shaped polygonal hole, which is then, re-triangulated using the new point. Bistellar flips algorithm is used by many researchers [7], it works by adding points, one at a time to a valid Delaunay triangulation. After every insertion, the approach searches for the triangle that contains the point

(localization point); later, this triangle is subdivided into three new triangles (split step). Afterwards, a sequence of flips are used to update Delaunay triangulation. This algorithm spent most of the time in localizing point (split step) and updating triangulation (flip step). The key factor influencing the incremental algorithms performances includes finding the triangle where the inserted point is located. Subsequently, triangulation meshes are updated by finding the invalid triangle that does not satisfy the Delaunay criteria, and then modified with flips sequences. Based on the abovementioned analysis of the factors influencing the efficiency of incremental insertion algorithm, the main contribution of this paper is to implement three algorithms in three dimensions : Bowyer-Watson algorithm, Bistellar flips algorithm and An enhanced Bistellar flips algorithm. Finally, a comparative study is established to determine the most appropriate algorithm. Results demonstrated that an enhanced Bistellar flips algorithm achieved better computation times. The remainder of this article is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the implementation of the proposed contribution. Section 3 presents the experimental results, which are next discussed. Finally, a conclusion is presented in Section 4.

2. IMPLEMENTATION OF THE PROPOSED CONTRIBUTIONS

Delaunay triangulation generation by Bowyer-Watson algorithm

This method belongs to the class of incremental algorithms. It consists in inserting the points sequentially one by one, then identifying the invalid tetrahedra using the improved Delaunay Criterion and then deleting invalid tetrahedra. After, new tetrahedra are created from the inserted point. The different steps are presented in Figure 1.a.

Delaunay triangulation generation by Bistellar flips

This is another incremental algorithm for generating the Delaunay triangulation. For each inserted point, the tetrahedron containing this point must be found to create new tetrahedra. Thereafter, take one tetrahedron with its neighboring tetrahedron (two by two) and test them against each other to verify the Delaunay criterion. If it is not satisfied, a local modification sequence (FLIP) is performed (Figure 1.b).

Delaunay triangulation by Enhanced Bistellar flips

Generating the Delaunay triangulation using the standard Bistellar flips is a process time consuming. For each inserted point, all tetrahedra must be tested to determine which one contains this point. In addition, after the identification of non-valid Delaunay tetrahedra, the modification by sequences of FLIP is slow. To overcome to these problems, two solutions are proposed: Intelligent and fast search of the target tetrahedron containing the inserted point and the accelerate the modification of non-valid tetrahedra by using enhanced neighboring update (Figure 1.c).

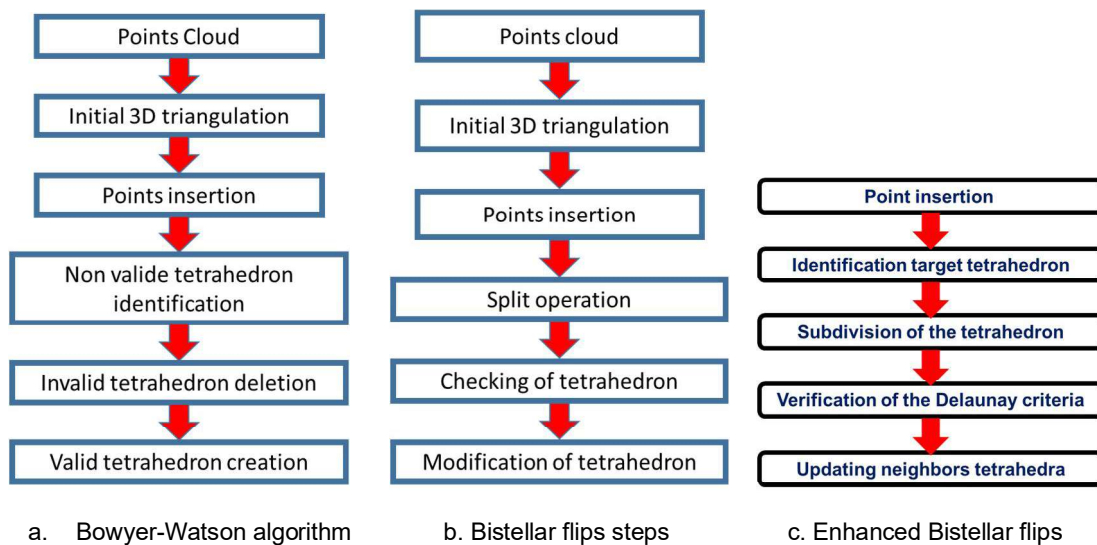


Fig. 1. Implementation of the proposed contribution.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

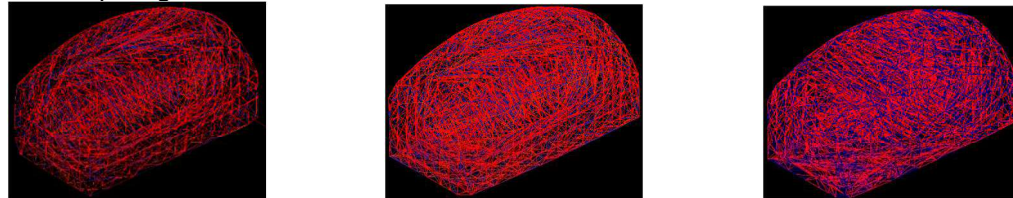
The proposed methodology is tested and validated on a “Convex part” (Fig 2), to illustrate the performance of the three developed methods. The implementation is done using C++ Builder and the OpenGL graphics library under Windows. The tests are performed on an Intel Core i3 PC with 6.00 GB of RAM under Windows 7. The effectiveness is demonstrated on several samples of this model



a. “Convex part” model. b. Cloud of points.
Fig. 2 “Convex part” and its cloud of points.

Obtained results

Fig 3 shows the triangulation of “Convex part” with 900 points using the three developed algorithm. Then, the computing times is illustrates in Table 1 for each method.



a. Bowyer-Watson algorithm b. Bistellar flips c. Enhanced Bistellar flips
Fig. 3 Delaunay triangulation of the considered model.

Table 1 Computing times for the three methods

	Bowyer-Watson algorithm	Bistellar flips	Enhanced Bistellar flips
Computing time	4 minutes 53 seconds	71 minutes	15 seconds

Comparative study

A comparative study is carried between the three previously presented methods. The study is carried out by analyzing each method on several samples of unstructured point clouds of “Convex part” model. Fig 4 illustrates the computation times for generating 3D Delaunay triangulation for the developed algorithms. Results reveal that computation time is related to the number of points. Further, it is low and stable with Enhanced Bistellar flips even though points number increases compared to Bistellar flips method. The Bowyer-Watson algorithm is much easier to implement than Bistellar flips and enhanced Bistellar flips methods

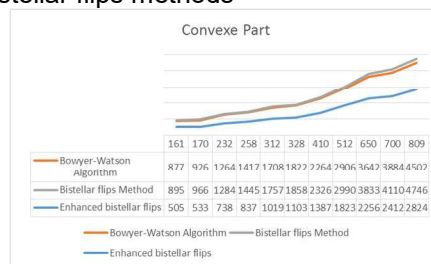


Fig 4. Time progression for 3D Delaunay triangulation for several unstructured point clouds

The enhanced Bistellar flips method is more robust with improved target tetrahedron search. Table 2 illustrates the iterations number executed to find the tetrahedron containing such a point for both methods (Enhanced Bistellar flips and Bistellar flips), respectively. It can be clearly seen that the iterations number for Enhanced bistellar flips Method is less than that of bistellar flips Method.

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Table 2: Target tetrahedron using Enhanced Bistellar flips and Bistellar flips Methods

Method	Index point	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Enhanced bistellar flips	Number of iteration	2	3	4	0	5	2	4	0	5	75
	Index tetrahedron	2	3	15	1	13	38	34	2	56	66
bistellar flips	Number of iteration	3	3	6	10	13	1	22	24	16	41
	Index tetrahedron	2	2	5	9	12	0	21	23	15	40

4. CONCLUSION

In this paper, three methods Bowyer-Watson algorithm, Bistellar flips, and an enhanced Bistellar flips are implemented and have been tested on different unstructured point clouds of "Convex part model" to demonstrate the effectiveness of each method. The results obtained were satisfactory and demonstrated the performance of these methods in terms of overall computation time. Although the execution time is almost similar for the Bowyer-Watson algorithm and Bistellar flips methods, the enhanced Bistellar flips method remains reliable and stable even with the increase of the number of points. This efficiency may be observed thanks to the reduced number of iterations executed to find the target tetrahedron (containing the point). The minimized iterations number and the update of neighbors in a restricted area allow enhancing the triangulation time, especially when dealing with non-structured points cloud

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Numerical Simulation of the Aortic Valve: Force and Displacement Analysis

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Abstract: In this study, the distribution of forces and leaflet displacement during systole are computed using a 3D model of the aortic valve simulated in ANSYS. Blood was modeled with the SST turbulence model used to predict realistic hemodynamics computationally. It is found that the forces are maximal at the bases near the fibrous annulus and minimal along the free edges. Leaflet positioning displays a displacement amplitude of 0.12–10 mm (approximately) at the free edge and minimal motion at the attachment zones. A slight kinematic asymmetry between coronary and non-coronary leaflets was noted, predominantly due to the presence of coronary ostia and tissue thickness differences. These results help elucidate aortic valve mechanics and may serve as guidance for the development of improved prosthetic valve design.

Keywords: Aortic valve, ANSYS, SST turbulence model.

1. Introduction:

The aortic valve is a critical structure of the heart, responsible for unidirectional blood flow from the left ventricle to the aorta. It is composed of three semilunar leaflets (cusps): the right coronary cusp (RCC), left coronary cusp (LCC), and noncoronary cusp (NCC) [1]. A comprehensive understanding of the mechanical behavior of this valve, including the distribution of forces and deformation of the leaflets during systole, is crucial when considering the prevention of diseases in heart valves and the development of more effective prosthetic valves.

Despite extensive research on aortic valve function [2–4], the detailed spatiotemporal displacement patterns of native leaflets have not been characterized under physiological conditions. Very few investigations have focused on the location of peak mechanical stimuli, a crucial factor in understanding both fatigue and potential sites of structural damage. Additionally, the kinematic distinction between coronary and non-coronary leaflets, which may affect flow distribution and leaflet opening effectiveness, has not been well characterized. Such displacement and force patterns are critical for establishing links between valve mechanics and physiological performance, for predicting vulnerable regions of these leaflets to damage, as well as the ensuing consequences.

Given this, the current study focuses on analyzing the distribution of forces and leaflet displacement caused by the aortic valve during systole. To achieve this, a 3D model of the aortic valve was created and simulated using the ANSYS dynamic simulation program. The properties of blood flow passing through the leaflets during their opening were predicted with the SST (Shear Stress Transport) turbulence model, offering an accurate depiction of the hemodynamic behavior during the ejection phase.

2. Method:

The constructed numerical model was created using a tricuspid aortic valve obtained from a CAD model downloaded from an online database, providing a standard anatomical description for further numerical simulation. The fluid domain representing the flow of blood through the valve was modeled using 3D incompressible Navier–Stokes equations and a Newtonian viscous description for blood, which is typically used to simulate large-vessel hemodynamics due to insignificant shear-thinning effects at physiological flow rates.

Unsteady transitional and turbulent structures during systolic acceleration were considered in the model, including the turbulence using the SST (Shear Stress Transport) $k-\omega$ model. The method combines the virtues of the $k-\omega$ formulation in the near-wall region, where accurate prediction of boundary layers is crucial, with those of the $k-\epsilon$ formulation for the core flow, which provides greater stability and improved prediction for far-field turbulence. This hybrid approach is well known for its effectiveness in cardiovascular flows where complex shear and separation zones are present.

The boundary conditions were established by prescribing a pressure inlet (on the ventricular side of the valve) and a mass flow outlet (on the aortic side). Simulation was performed under transient pulsatile flow conditions, simulating the physiological flow sequence in systole. One time-dependent boundary condition was applied with a time step varying from 0.1 to 1 ms and between 5 and 15 solver iterations per step. An adaptive time-stepping strategy was employed to ensure convergence during the fast-accelerating and decelerating stages of systole, thereby preserving numerical stability and maintaining the accuracy of leaflet-fluid interaction.

3. Result:

A transvalvular pressure is created by the blood flow during systole and is applied to the leaflets' ventricular surface. The force distribution is maximum at the base of the leaflets, where they are attached to the fibrous annulus, which is a fixed area where most of the stresses resulting from blood pressure are concentrated. Consequently, these areas exhibit a significant amount of stress, whereas the free edge, being more mobile, undergoes less stress and deforms more easily. Tensile forces (tension) are dominant in the leaflet plane along circumferentially oriented collagen fibers, thereby endowing them with their mechanical integrity (see Fig. 1).

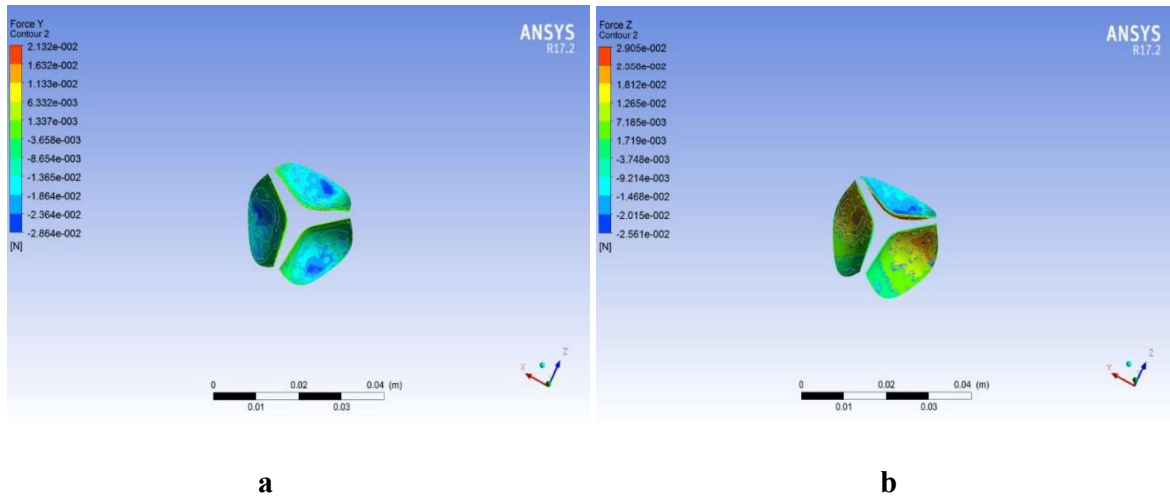


Fig. 1: a: Force distribution along the Y-direction on the aortic valve leaflets, **b:** Force distribution along the Z-direction on the aortic valve leaflets.

As a result of the effect of the forces, the leaflets bulge outward and open wide against the aortic wall with a peak amplitude that can vary between 0.12 and 10 mm at their free edge, whereas the basal portions, well fixed to the aortic annulus, are very little displaced. The motion is asymmetrical: right and left coronary leaflets have a slightly different kinematics from the non-coronary one, mainly because of the location of the coronary ostia and local tissue thickness variability. The asymmetry creates local force and opening angle differences, especially at the commissures and coaptation zones (see Fig. 2).

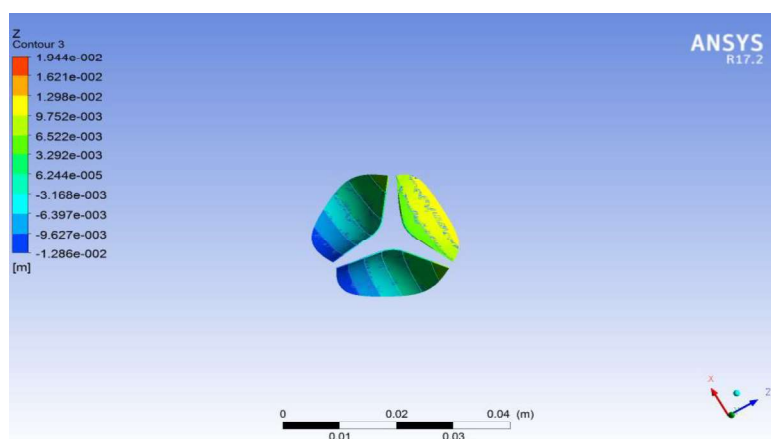


Fig. 2: Displacement of the aortic valve leaflets.

In the opening mechanism, the leaflets are pushed to the side against the aortic wall, and the angle between them is approximately 90° for each of the two leaflet segments, giving a regular subdivision of the valvular orifice. Angular symmetry provides a homogeneous and effective opening of the valve during systole (see Fig. 3).

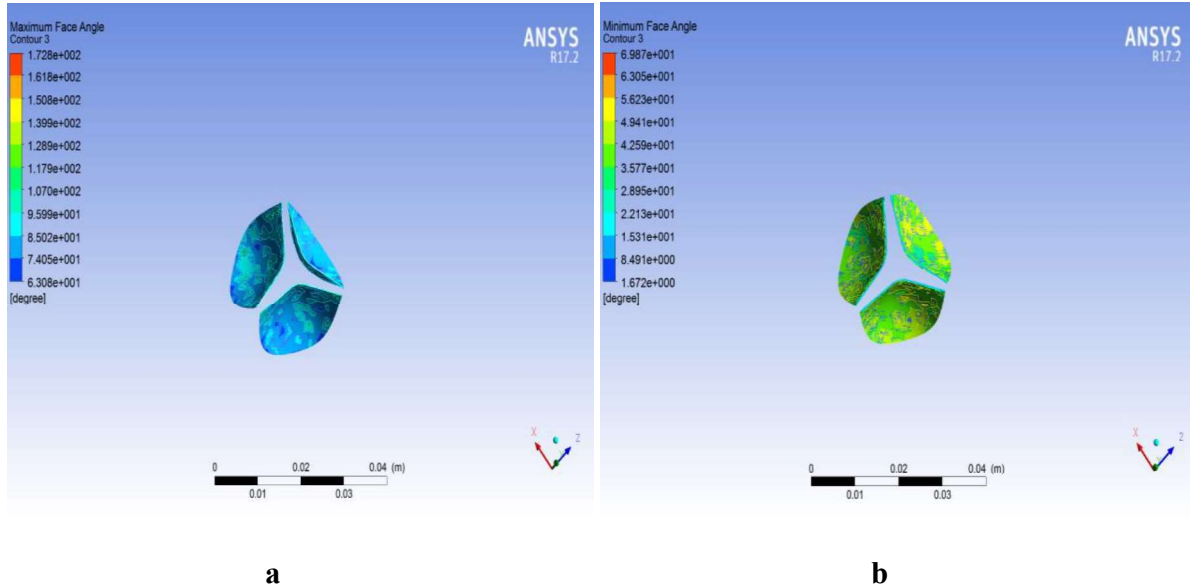


Fig. 3: a: Maximum face angle of the aortic valve leaflets, **b:** Minimum face angle of the aortic valve leaflets.

4. Discussion:

Results of the numerical simulation in this work have contributed to a better understanding of the mechanical function of the aortic valve during systole. It illustrates the inhomogeneous nature of forces and transitions occurring at leaflets. The results indicate that the highest forces are localized at the base of the leaflets, particularly in their connection with the aortic annulus. This region functions as a primary support point and receives most of the transvalvular pressure. On the contrary, free edges experience much lower stress levels, which ensure the flexibility and mobility required at times for fast, efficient opening. This has been observed before in the literature [4,5], and as a consequence, it demonstrates that modelization is satisfactory.

The observed displacements also indicate an unbalanced dynamic of the leaflets. The free edges undergo large displacements (from 0.12 to 10 mm), while the base remains straight and stable. This discrepancy indicates that the rigid and flexible portions of leaflets contribute differently to biomechanical function. The inequality between the coronary and non-coronary cusps is especially striking. This may originate from the location of the coronary ostia, the shape of the sinuses of Valsalva, or local differences in wall thickness, as previously demonstrated by several experimental and numerical studies [6]. Hence, the latter can be considered satisfactorily reproduced in the model, both anatomically and functionally.

Investigation of the opening angle also showed that the leaflets reach nearly a full open state (approximately 90°), resulting in favorable blood flow to the ascending aorta. Even if the overall opening is uniform, some local differences remain between leaflets, suggesting a slightly asynchronous opening. Such differentiations, already reported for native valves and valve reconstructions in the literature [7], may affect flow distribution and induce areas of stasis or altered wall shear stress.

Furthermore, the presented findings may be of great value for the development of biomimetic prosthetic valves. High compliance of free edges, stiffness in the base, and local asymmetries seem to be critical aspects that must be replicated for optimized hemodynamics and longer-lasting implants. It has also been demonstrated in studies on polymer valves or transcatheter devices that reliable and accurate adjustment of these parameters is crucial for achieving the desirable mechanical performance of the device and minimizing the potential for failure. Data from this simulation thereby adds to the knowledge of the biomechanical demands that future valves should fulfil.

Finally, this work has drawbacks, as all numerical proofs do. The blood was treated as a Newtonian fluid, which is an approximation of its actual rheology, particularly at low flow rates. As the leaflets are defined here solely mechanically, the tissue's non-linear, anisotropic hyperelasticity is not included; thus, we cannot expect realistic movement and stress calculations without fluid-structure interaction. Nonetheless, the results obtained agree with clinical and experimental data, indicating that the model adequately approximates general trends in valve performance. Subsequent studies can include full FSI models, realistic tissue properties, and the simulation of pathological and prosthetic valves to increase clinical relevance.

5. Conclusion:

This numerical analysis demonstrates the non-uniform mechanical behavior of aortic valves during systole. Significant displacement of the free edge guarantees efficient opening during systole, and the considerable forces exhibited at the base of the leaflets illustrate their structural support function. Asymmetry between the coronary and the non-coronary leaflets is an indicator of anatomical adaptation towards the location of coronary ostia and regional differences in tissue thickness. These findings shed light on the relevance of comparing anatomical changes responsible for force transmission and valve function and correlating them with the imbalances occurring in the instance of valvular disease. These comparisons form a valid ground for the conception of biomimetic prosthetic valves that reproduce the mechanical function of the native valve.

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Urban Sound Classification based on Gaussian-STFT Features and CNN

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Abstract: the paper proposes a CNN model for classifying audio signals. Sound sequences are augmented (pitch shift, time stretch), transformed using STFT, then converted to decibel scale. A Gaussian normalization function is applied to obtain Gaussian-STFT features. A two-dimensional Convolutional Neural Network with three convolutional blocks and dense layers is used in the classification model. The performance on the UrbanSound dataset is as follows: Accuracy: 93%, Precision: 93.10%, Recall: 92.79%, and F1 Score: 92.83%.

Keywords— STFT, CNN, Sound Classification.

1. INTRODUCTION

The urban acoustic landscape consists of a wide variety of sounds, such as those produced by humans and their activities, animal sounds, various modes of transportation, sirens, alarms, and industrial noise [1]. This diversity makes the analysis and classification of sounds in an urban environment particularly complex. Identifying, organizing, and isolating these sounds represents a significant challenge for researchers, especially when it comes to detecting abnormal events in real time [2].

Sound protection now corresponds to a broader aspect of the evolution of smart cities, where public safety and quality of life partly depend on effective management of the sound environment [3]. The prevention of nuisances and the automatic detection of critical sounds (such as accidents or assaults) have become priorities in many connected urban projects.

Sound classification was commonly based on statistical Gaussian mixture representations [4]. However, the evolution of deep learning has enabled the emergence of more effective techniques, capable of automatically learning complex acoustic representations from large amounts of data [5].

In this study, we present an algorithm for urban sound classification based on data augmentation through pitch shifting and time stretching. Audio features are extracted using the Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT), then normalized using a Gaussian divergence function. Finally, a lightweight convolutional model, structured in three layers with MaxPooling operations and a Softmax output layer, is used to perform the final classification.

2. RELATED WORK:

The researchers in [6] propose a CRNN (Convolutional Recurrent Neural Network) as a classification model and use raw waveforms of acoustic characteristics. The extracted sound features are used as input to the CRNN for temporal aggregation. The experimental results show an accuracy of 79.06%.

The authors [7] proposed a novel method based on Deep Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) in this paper. The audio signals are first denoised and then transformed into spectrogram images using Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT), which are used as inputs to the CNN models. A Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier is applied at the final stage. The method achieved accuracy scores of 94.8%, 81.4%, and 78.14% on the ESC-10, ESC-50, and UrbanSound8K datasets, respectively.

This research uses a DCNN structured into two models: one with max-pooling (Model-1) and one without max-pooling (Model-2). The feature extraction is performed using Mel spectrogram (Mel), Mel Frequency Cepstral Coefficient (MFCC), and Log-Mel. Model-2 achieves the best accuracy, with 94.94% for ESC-10, 89.28% for ESC-50, and 95.37% for UrbanSound8K [8].

The study reached an algorithm based on the DNN model performance and compared it with the CNN and LSTM models' performance. The characteristic used in classifying urban sound is

spectrum images of Mel scale cepstral (MEL). The LSTM model shows good accuracy performance on test data with 90.15% [9].

3. TWO-DIMENSIONAL CONVOLUTIONAL NEURAL NETWORK

The two-dimensional convolutional neural network is a deep model used to process images and audio representations in the form of spectrograms. It uses convolutional filters to extract the desired features. These filters are then slid across the input to compute convolutions. ReLU activation is applied afterward, followed by MaxPooling to reduce redundant information and retain only the most relevant features.

4. GAUSSIAN-STFT FEATURES

In this feature extraction phase, we rely on the Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT), followed by the application of the Gaussian filter. All components involved in extracting these features are detailed as follows:

A. Short Time Fourier Transform

First, this transform divides the signal into fixed-length windows, and then applies the Fourier transform to each window separately to obtain the STFT spectrum.

$$STFT\{x[n]\} \equiv X(m, \omega) = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} x[n]\omega[n-m]e^{-j\omega n}$$

$x[n]$ is the discrete signal.

$\omega[n-m]$ is the windowing function.

The value absolute of Short Time Fourier Transform is:

$$STFT_{abs} \equiv |X(m, \omega)|$$

Conversion of the absolute value of STFT in decibel is:

$$STFT_{dB} = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{STFT_{abs}^2}{\max(|X|)^2} + \epsilon \right)$$

ϵ is a small constant to avoid division by zero.

B. Normalized Filter Gaussian

To obtain a blurred image inspired by the centered Gaussian distribution.

$$G(m, \omega) = \exp \left(-\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{STFT_{dB} - \mu}{\sigma + \epsilon} \right)^2 \right)$$

$$\mu = \text{mean}(STFT_{dB})$$

$$\sigma = \text{std}(STFT_{dB})$$

This transforms the intensity values into a centered Gaussian function, creating a blurred map where intensities close to the mean are maximized.

5. PROPOSED ALGORITHM

Urban Sound Classification Algorithm using CNN

- Load audio files from the dataset.
- Apply data augmentation: pitch shifting and time stretching.
- Compute the STFT for each audio signal (including its augmented versions).
- Convert the spectrum to decibel scale, then apply Gaussian normalization.
- Resize the spectrogram image to the format 128×128×3.
- Use a 2D CNN model composed of several blocks:

CNN Model Structure

Three convolutional blocks, each consisting of:

- A Conv2D layer with (3×3) filters and ReLU activation
- A MaxPooling2D (2×2) layer to reduce spatial dimensions
- A Dropout layer to prevent overfitting

Final layers:

- A Flatten layer to convert feature maps into a vector
- A dense layer with 256 neurons and ReLU activation
- A Dropout layer with a 50% rate

A Softmax output layer to produce class probability scores

6. EXPERIMENTAL RESULT

In this section of the results we present all the obtained values of accuracy and loss for each of the UrbanSoundk [10] and ESC-50 [11] (Fig.1).

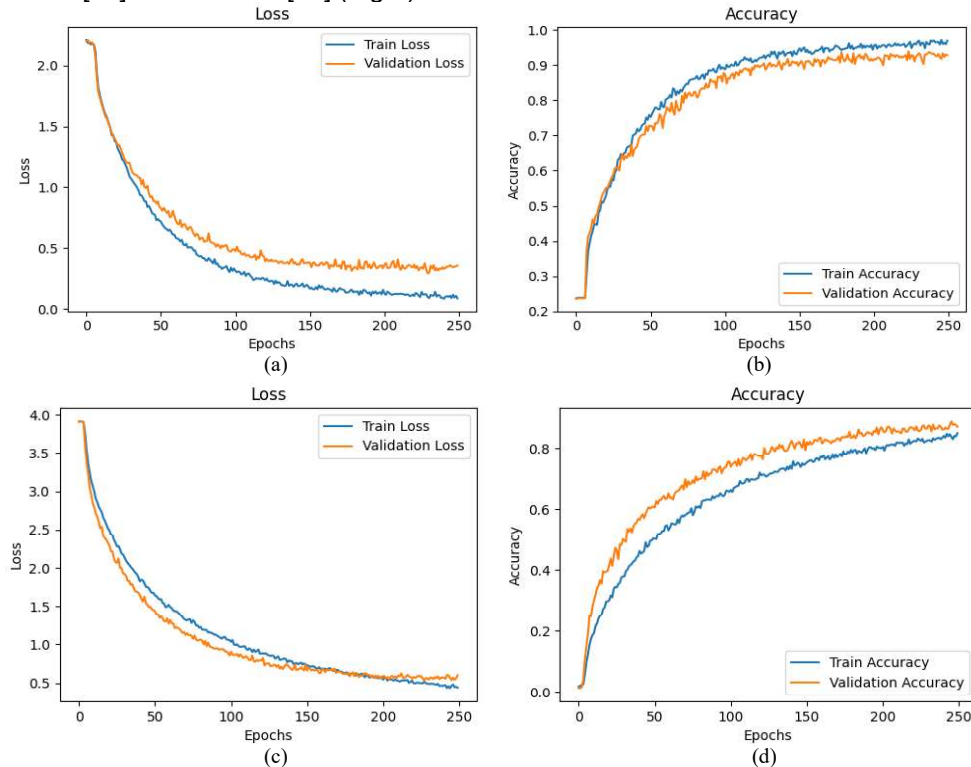


Fig.1: urban sound classification based on Gaussian-STFT features and CNN. (a) loss curve for UrbanSoundK dataset (b) accuracy curve for UrbanSoundK dataset, (c) loss curve for ESC 50 dataset (d) accuracy curve for ESC 50 dataset.

In the figure 1, part (a) (UrbanSound Dataset), the loss decreases steadily and continuously, unlike part (b), which shows the accuracy curve with a noticeable increase that stabilizes around epoch 150 at approximately 93%. In the same figure, part (c) (ESC 50 Dataset) also shows a decreasing loss curve, while part (d), the accuracy curve, increases consistently, reaching nearly 87%, indicating good performance.

Table 1: Results of metrics (precision, recall, F1 score, accuracy) for UrbanSound dataset.

	Precision	Recall	F1 score	Accuracy
1	0.84	0.76	0.80	0.76
2	0.90	0.92	0.91	0.92
3	0.96	0.91	0.93	0.90
4	0.98	0.95	0.96	0.95
5	0.92	0.94	0.93	0.94
6	0.80	0.97	0.88	0.97
7	1	1	1	1
8	1	0.85	0.92	0.85
9	0.83	0.88	0.85	0.88
10	0.92	0.93	0.93	0.93
Average	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93

Table 2: Results of Normalized Confusion Matrix for UrbanSound dataset.

	Predicted Label									
										10
1	0.76	0.10	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.14	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
2										0.02
3	0.01	0.03	0.91	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.01	0.01

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4										0.02
5	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.94	0.02	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.02
6										0.00
7	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	1.00	0.00	0.00	0.00
8										0.00
9	0.00	0.06	0.03	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.88	0.00
10	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.03	0.93

The table 1 shows excellent performance on the UrbanSound dataset, with high scores across all metrics. Class 7 demonstrates that the model performs very well when the audio features are clear and distinctive. The table 2 is presented overall accuracy is very good, with the majority of classes well distinguished.

Table 3: Results of metrics (precision, recall, F1 score, accuracy) for ESC 50 dataset.

	Precision	Recall	F1 Score	Accuracy
1	0.94		0.90	0.88
2	0.91	0.90	0.90	0.90
3	0.85		0.88	0.92
4	0.84	0.84	0.83	0.84
5	0.83		0.82	0.82
Average	0.88	0.87	0.87	0.87

The model achieved solid average values across all metrics: Average Precision: 0.88, Average Recall: 0.87, Average F1-score: 0.87, Average Accuracy: 0.87 (Table 3).

This reflects a generally balanced and reliable performance across all classes in the ESC-50 dataset (Table 3).

The obtained results determine the accuracy performance of proposed model compared with the other researches (Table 4).

Table 4: Comparison of accuracy results for ESC 50 dataset

Dataset	[7]	[8]	Proposed model
ESC 50	81.4%	89.2%	87%

7. CONCLUSION

The article presents an efficient urban sound classification model based on Gaussian-STFT features and a two-dimensional Convolutional Neural Network (2D-CNN). The results demonstrate high performance on the UrbanSound dataset, with average precision, recall, and F1-score of 93%, and an accuracy of 87% on the ESC-50 dataset. Compared to recent studies, the proposed algorithm shows significant improvement, particularly due to the use of Gaussian normalization and data augmentation. These contributions offer valuable insights into urban soundscapes and can be applied in fields such as public safety and noise management.

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Privacy-Preserving Federated Learning for Heterogeneous Medical Data

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Abstract: Ensuring data security and preserving privacy are critical concerns in domains handling sensitive information, such as healthcare. Traditional centralized learning methods require aggregating all data in a single location, which increases the risk of privacy breaches and unauthorized access. Federated learning (FL) addresses these challenges by enabling multiple institutions to collaboratively train a shared model without exchanging raw data. This paper presents a federated learning framework specifically designed to handle heterogeneous client data while maintaining high efficiency in decentralized healthcare applications. The system orchestrates local model training across hospitals or medical centers and securely aggregates updates to construct a high-quality global model. Experiments on the PathMNIST medical dataset under both independent and identically distributed (IID) and non-IID data distributions, across configurations of 5 and 10 clients, demonstrate that the proposed federated learning framework closely matches centralized performance, achieving 95.29% and 94.26% accuracy across IID and non-IID data distributions, respectively, with stable convergence even under heterogeneous client data. These results highlight the framework's resilience to statistical heterogeneity, computational efficiency, and practical applicability for privacy-sensitive domains.

Keywords: Federated Learning, Privacy Preservation, Non-IID Data, Healthcare, Secure Aggregation, PathMNIST

1. INTRODUCTION

Data security and privacy preservation are critical challenges in domains handling sensitive information, particularly in healthcare [1]. Traditional centralized learning methods require aggregating all data in a single location, increasing the risk of privacy breaches and unauthorized access [2]. Federated learning (FL) has emerged as a promising solution, enabling multiple institutions to collaboratively train a global model without exchanging raw data [3]. In this framework, each client trains a local model on its private dataset, and only model updates are shared with a central server for aggregation. This decentralized approach mitigates privacy risks while allowing effective distributed learning across multiple organizations.

Despite its advantages, federated learning faces challenges when client data are heterogeneous or non-identically distributed (non-IID). Such statistical heterogeneity can affect model convergence and performance, particularly in practical healthcare scenarios with diverse data sources. Addressing these challenges requires frameworks that maintain high model accuracy and stable convergence across IID and non-IID data distributions. In this work, we present a federated learning framework tailored for privacy-sensitive healthcare applications. The system orchestrates local model training across multiple medical centers and securely aggregates updates to construct a high-quality global model. Experiments on the PathMNIST dataset [4], using configurations of 5 and 10 clients under

both IID and non-IID settings, demonstrate that the proposed framework closely matches centralized performance, achieving 94.79 % accuracy with stable convergence. These results highlight the framework's resilience to statistical heterogeneity, computational efficiency, and practical applicability in decentralized medical environments. Privacy-preserving federated learning has emerged as a key paradigm for collaborative model training in healthcare, allowing institutions to jointly benefit from distributed medical data without compromising patient confidentiality. Building upon foundational mechanisms such as differential privacy and secure aggregation, recent research has focused on improving the robustness of federated learning under heterogeneous and non-IID data distributions that commonly arise in real-world medical environments.

Adaptive aggregation strategies have been introduced to enhance convergence and model stability by dynamically adjusting the contribution of local updates according to data divergence, achieving improved performance on medical datasets such as tuberculosis chest X-rays and brain tumor MRIs [5]. Frameworks such as Health-FedNet provide scalable architectures for privacy-preserving medical analytics across institutions [6], while MultiProg addresses feature heterogeneity in multi-source Electronic Health Records through multi-channel architectures and feature calibration techniques [7]. These advances highlight the growing maturity of federated learning frameworks designed for healthcare applications, emphasizing both privacy preservation and learning efficiency under diverse data conditions. At the same time, recent studies continue to stress the importance of ethical and legal compliance, including informed patient consent and adherence to healthcare data protection regulations during deployment of federated learning systems [8].

2. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

A. System Overview

The proposed framework implements standard federated learning (FL) for privacy-sensitive healthcare applications [1]. The system enables multiple medical centers to collaboratively train a global model without sharing raw patient data. Each client trains a local model on its private dataset and sends model updates to a central server for aggregation [9]. The server constructs a high-quality global model by combining the updates, which is then redistributed to clients for the next training round. This approach allows effective distributed learning while mitigating privacy risks associated with centralized data aggregation.

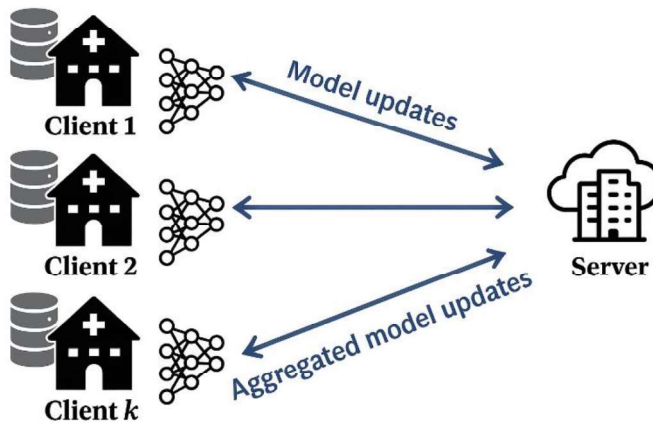


Fig 1: Overview of the proposed federated learning framework.

We describe the workflow using simplified algorithmic representations of the client update and global aggregation procedures. These algorithms reflect the standard federated learning pipeline used in our experiments on the PathMNIST dataset [4].

Algorithm 1 — ClientUpdate

Require: Local model W_t , local dataset D_c , learning rate η

Ensure: Local model update $\Delta W_t^{(c)}$

- 1 Initialize local model $W_t^{(c)} \leftarrow W_t$
- 2 Train $W_t^{(c)}$ on D_c using gradient descent or optimizer
- 3 Compute update: $\Delta W_t^{(c)} = W_t^{(c)} - W_t$
- 4 return $\Delta W_t^{(c)}$

Algorithm 2 — FederatedAveraging

Require: Global model W_t , client updates $\{\Delta W_t^{(c)}\}_{c=1..K}$, client dataset sizes $\{n_c\}$

Ensure: Updated global model W_{t+1}

- 1 Compute total samples $N = \sum_{c=1..K} n_c$
- 2 Initialize aggregated update $\Delta W_t = 0$
- 3 for $c = 1$ to K do
- 4 $\Delta W_t \leftarrow \Delta W_t + (n_c / N) * \Delta W_t^{(c)}$
- 5 end for
- 6 Update global model: $W_{t+1} \leftarrow W_t + \Delta W_t$
- 7 return W_{t+1}

B. EXPERIMENTAL ENVIRONMENT

1) Hardware and Execution Platform

All experiments were performed using Google Colab [10], equipped with an NVIDIA L4 GPU (22.5 GB VRAM), an Intel Xeon CPU, and approximately 53 GB of RAM. This environment provides a scalable and reliable platform for evaluating federated learning experiments.

2) Software Stack

The framework was implemented in Python using PyTorch for deep learning. Federated orchestration was managed with Flower [11], allowing efficient client-server coordination and global model aggregation.

3) Dataset and Configurations

Experiments were conducted on the PathMNIST dataset [4]. We evaluated configurations with 5 and 10 clients under both IID and non-IID data distributions to examine the framework's ability to maintain stable convergence and high accuracy in heterogeneous environments.

3. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

A. Dataset Description

Given the privacy-sensitive nature of healthcare data, our evaluation focuses on medical image classification. We employed the PathMNIST subset from the MedMNIST v2 benchmark [4], which is a standardized collection designed for lightweight, reproducible experimentation in biomedical imaging.

PathMNIST is derived from colorectal histopathology datasets (NCT-CRC-HE-100K and CRC-VAL-HE-7K) and contains 107,180 RGB image patches resized to 28×28 pixels. The classification task involves nine tissue types, making it a 9-class multi-class problem. The dataset has 89,996 training, 10,004 validations, and 7,180 test samples. An overview of this process is provided in Table I.

TABLE I: PathMNIST Dataset Overview

Aspect	Details
Modality	Colon Histopathology
Total samples	107,180
Training / Validation / Test	89,996 / 10,004 / 7,180
Image format	RGB, 28×28 pixels
Classes	9 tissue types
Task	Multi-class classification

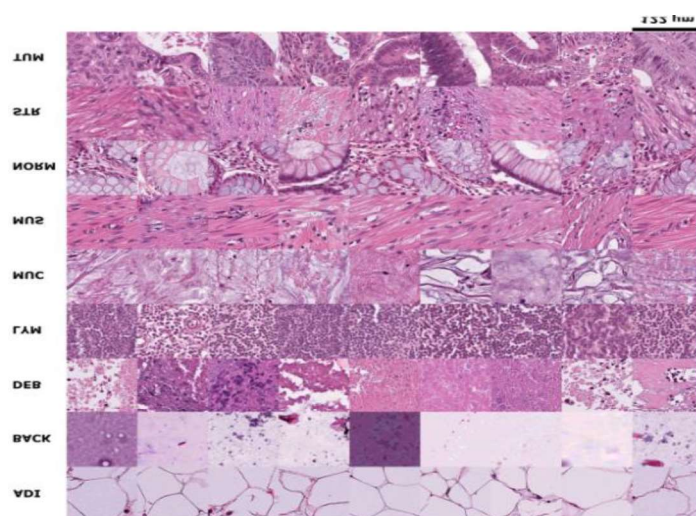


Fig 2: Example images from each of the nine tissue classes in PathMNIST.

Data preprocessing included:

- **Tensor Conversion:** Converting images to tensors for GPU efficiency.
- **Normalization:** Scaling pixel intensities to [0, 1].
- **Data Augmentation:** Random flips, rotations, and crops to improve generalization.

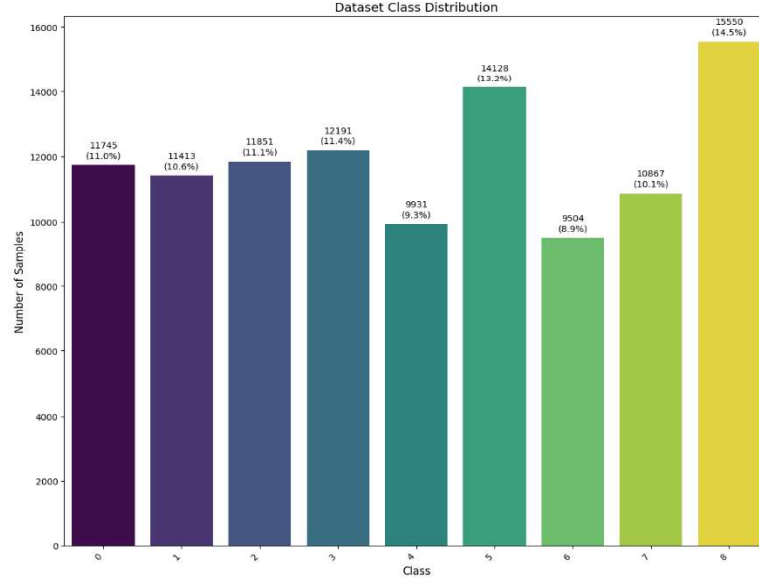


Fig 3 : Class distribution in PathMNIST.

B. Performance Evaluation Metrics

We evaluated the framework under centralized and federated settings with 5 and 10 clients, using the following standard classification metrics:

1) Accuracy:

$$\text{Accuracy} = (\text{Number of Correct Predictions}) / (\text{Total Number of Predictions})$$

$$\text{Accuracy} = (TP + TN) / (TP + TN + FP + FN) \dots \dots \dots (1)$$

2) Precision:

$$\text{Precision} = TP / (TP + FP) \dots \dots \dots (2)$$

3) Recall:

$$\text{Recall} = TP / (TP + FN) \dots \dots \dots (3)$$

4) 1-Score:

$$F1 = 2 \times (\text{Precision} \times \text{Recall}) / (\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}) \dots \dots \dots (4)$$

Where T P , T N , F P , and F N are True Positives, True Negatives, False Positives, and False Negatives, respectively.

5) Confusion Matrix: For multi-class evaluation, we define the confusion matrix $C \in \mathbb{R}^{C \times C}$, where C is the number of classes. Each element $C_{i,j}$ represents the number of samples whose true label is i and predicted label is j.

C. Computational Performance Metrics

To assess computational efficiency of federated learning compared to centralized training, we measured:

- **Training Time:** Duration of local model updates per client.
- **Communication Time:** Time for model updates to be transmitted and aggregated across clients.
- **Total Round Time:** End-to-end time per communication round.

D. Model Training Strategy

For all experiments, the training setup included:

- 1) **Loss Function:** Categorical cross-entropy was used to optimize the multi-class classification:

$$\mathcal{L} = -(1/N) \times \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{c=1}^C y_{i,c} \times \log(\hat{y}_{i,c}) \dots \dots \dots (5)$$

where $y_{i,c}$ is the one-hot ground truth label and $\hat{y}_{i,c}$ is the predicted probability for class c .

- 2) **Optimizer:** We used the AdamW optimizer [12] with parameters updated as:

$$\theta_t = \theta_{t-1} - \eta \times (\hat{m}_t / (\sqrt{\hat{v}_t} + \epsilon)) \dots \dots \dots (6)$$

with bias-corrected moment estimates $\hat{m}_t$ and $\hat{v}_t$, learning rate η , and small constant ϵ .

- 3) **Learning Rate Scheduling:** A cosine annealing schedule

[13] was applied:

$$\eta_t = \eta_{min} + \frac{1}{2} \times (\eta_{max} - \eta_{min}) \times (1 + \cos((T_{cur} / T_{max}) \times \pi)) \dots \dots (7)$$

where T_{cur} is the current epoch, T_{max} is the total number of epochs, and η_{min} , η_{max} are the minimum and initial learning rates.

4. RESULTS

Experiments were conducted under IID and non-IID data distributions with 5 and 10 clients. Each client locally updated the model for a fixed number of epochs, and the global model was obtained by averaging client weights after each communication round. The protocol ensured stable convergence across heterogeneous client data.

A. Centralized Benchmarking of Deep Learning Architectures

Before deploying our federated learning framework, we performed extensive benchmarking with centralized deep learning models to determine the most performant architecture for downstream evaluation. This preliminary stage was essential for establishing a high-quality baseline and ensuring a fair comparison between federated and distributed setups. We evaluated both custom convolutional neural networks and state-of-the-art pretrained models using the PathMNIST dataset. The models considered included CNNMed (with and without self-attention enhancement), ResNet-18 [14], MobileNetV3 Small [15], and EfficientNet-B0 [16].

1) Custom CNN Architectures:

CNNMed is a lightweight convolutional neural network designed for histopathological image classification [17]. It consists of three convolutional layers interspersed with batch normalization, ReLU activations, and maximum pooling operations [18]. Dropout and adaptive average pooling were used to ensure regularization and feature dimension consistency. The classification head consists of two fully connected layers, followed by a 9-class output layer.

An improved variant, CNNMed with self-attention, incorporates a spatial attention mechanism to improve feature extraction, selectively emphasizing informative regions in the image to improve classification accuracy while incurring minimal computational overhead.

2) Pre-trained Architectures:

To leverage prior knowledge from large-scale image models, we fine-tuned three well established architectures:

- ResNet-18: A residual network mitigating vanishing gradients via identity shortcuts [14].
- MobileNetV3 Small: A resource-efficient model designed for low-power devices [15]
- EfficientNet-B0: A highly optimized model employing compound scaling [16].

These models were selected for their generalization capabilities and varying complexity levels, making them suitable for comparative analysis.

3) Results of Centralized Architectures:

All models were trained with a batch size of 64, an initial learning rate of 0.001, and up to 30 epochs (10 for pretrained networks to avoid overfitting). Evaluation employed standard classification metrics: precision, recall, F1-score, and accuracy.

TABLE II: Comparison of Centralized Deep Learning Models

					Accuracy
CNNMed	30	93.57	93.55	93.33	93.55
CNNMed + Self-Attn.	30	94.00	94.11	93.94	94.11
MobileNetV3	10	94.83	94.85	94.82	94.85
ResNet-18	10	95.15	95.04	94.91	95.04
EfficientNet-B0	10	95.38	95.35	95.23	95.35

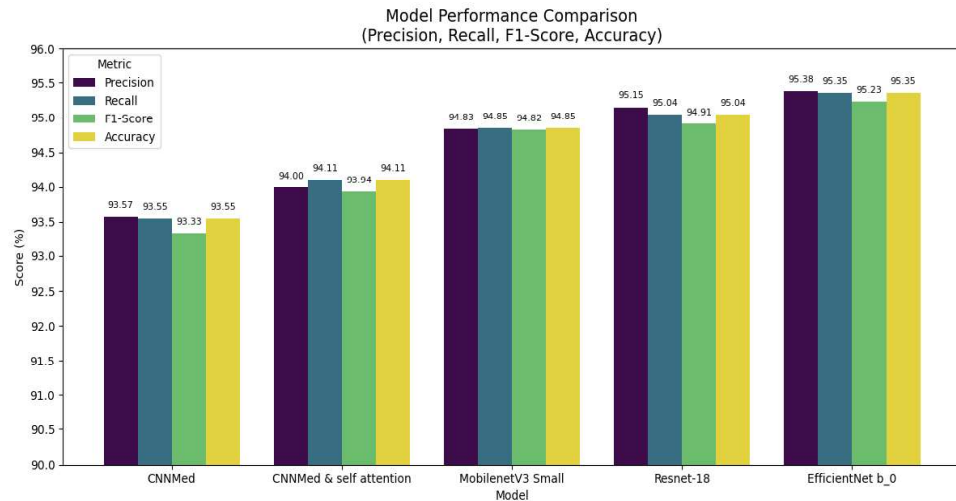


Fig 4: Model performance comparison (accuracy, precision, recall, F1).

EfficientNet-B0 achieved the highest accuracy and was selected as the baseline for subsequent federated experiments.

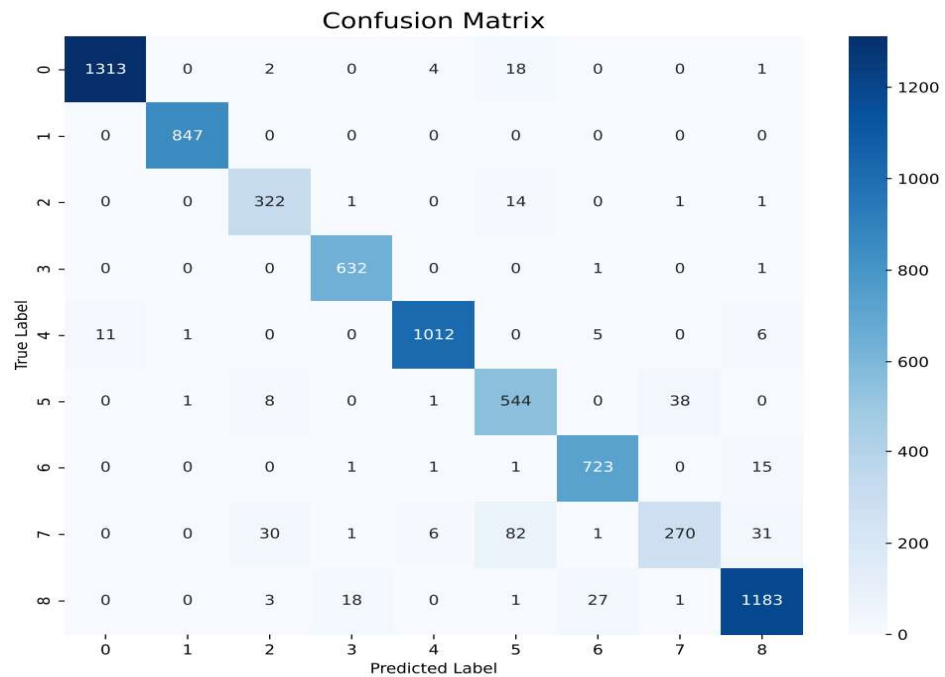


Fig 5: Confusion matrix for EfficientNet-B0.

B. Federated Learning under IID and Non-IID Distributions

We evaluated the federated learning paradigm using EfficientNet-B0 across two data distribution regimes: IID and non-IID. Experiments were conducted with 5 and 10 clients, trained with the Federated Averaging (FedAvg) algorithm. Hyperparameters are summarized in Table III.

	Settings
Client Model Architecture	EfficientNet-B0
Number of clients	5 and 10
Data distribution types	IID, Non-IID (Dirichlet $\alpha = 0.5$)
Communication rounds	10
Local epochs per round	1
Local batch size	64
Initial LR	0.001
Aggregation strategy	FedAvg

- 1) IID Distribution:** Uniform Statistical Balance: In the IID scenario, each client received a balanced subset of data. Figure 6 shows class-wise sample allocation across five clients.



Fig 6: IID Data Distribution Across 5 Clients.

Figure 7 shows accuracy and loss curves for 5 and 10 clients. Training was stable and performance degradation with more clients was marginal.

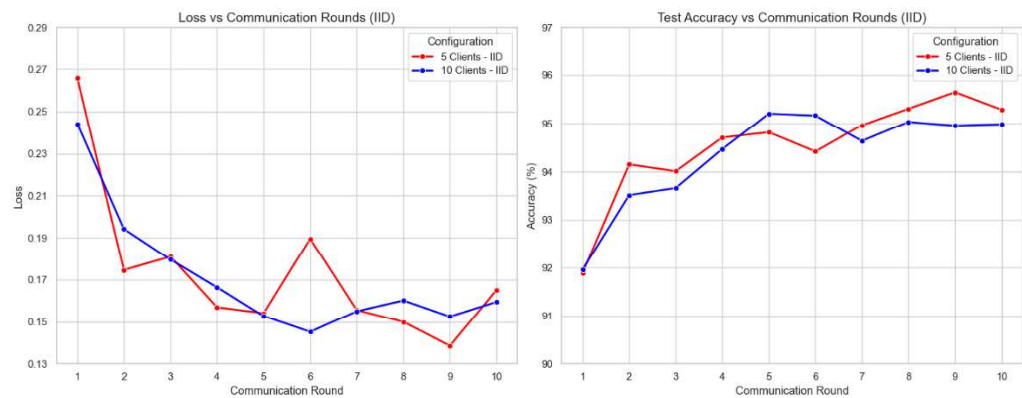


Fig 7: Federated Learning Accuracy and Loss Curves (IID).

Table IV : Centralized vs Federated Accuracy and Loss (IID)

Model Configuration	Accuracy (%)	Loss
Centralized (EfficientNet-B0)	95.35	0.1701
Federated (5 Clients)	95.29	0.1651
Federated (10 Clients)	94.99	0.1595

- 2) Non-IID Distribution: Real-World Statistical Heterogeneity: For non-IID data, we used a Dirichlet distribution ($\alpha = 0.5$) to induce class imbalance. Figure 8 shows the skewed class allocation among five clients.



Fig 8: Non-IID Data Distribution Across 5 Clients.

Learning curves for 5 and 10 clients under non-IID conditions are shown in Figure 9. Training is less stable and fluctuations are more pronounced with ten clients.

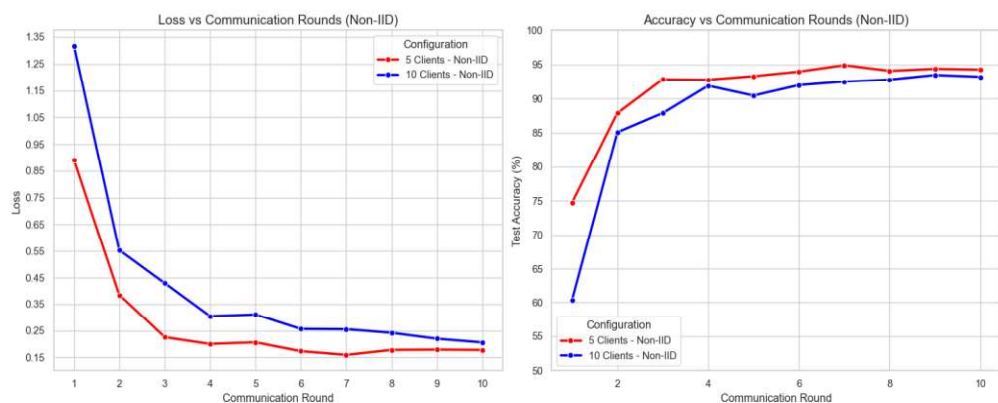


Fig 9: Federated Learning Accuracy and Loss Curves (NonIID).

Table V : Federated Performance: IID vs Non-IID.

			Loss
IID	5	95.29	0.1651
IID	10	94.99	0.1595
Non-IID	5	94.26	0.1774
Non-IID	10	93.20	0.2055

These results indicate that federated learning closely matches centralized performance under IID conditions and remains competitive under non-IID, albeit with slightly reduced accuracy and increased loss due to statistical heterogeneity.

5. DISCUSSION

The experiments conducted in this study provide strong evidence that the proposed federated learning framework can maintain high predictive performance while preserving data privacy in decentralized medical imaging applications. Centralized benchmarking identified EfficientNet-B0 as the most suitable model architecture, achieving 95.35% accuracy on the PathMNIST dataset with balanced computational efficiency. This choice ensured that subsequent federated experiments would rely on a robust baseline for fair comparison. Federated learning experiments under both IID and nonIID data distributions demonstrated the framework's ability to closely match centralized performance. For IID distributions, the federated model reached 95.29% and 94.99% accuracy across 5 and 10 clients, respectively, with stable convergence observed throughout training rounds. These results highlight that, when client data are statistically homogeneous, federated averaging effectively aggregates model updates without significant loss in accuracy or increase in loss.

Under non-IID conditions, simulating realistic heterogeneity in client data, the model achieved 94.26% and 93.20% accuracy for 5 and 10 clients, respectively. Although slight reductions in performance and slower convergence were observed due to statistical skew, the framework remained robust, showing consistent improvement over training rounds. These findings indicate that the proposed framework is resilient to client-level variability and can generalize well even under heterogeneous data distributions. The overall results demonstrate that the framework combines high model utility (up to 94.26% accuracy) with computational efficiency, as evidenced by rapid convergence across different federation scales. The minor performance degradation observed in larger and heterogeneous federations is within acceptable bounds, confirming the practical applicability of the method in real-world, privacy-sensitive domains such as healthcare.

In summary, these outcomes suggest that carefully designed federated learning systems, leveraging well-performing architectures like EfficientNet-B0 and accommodating client heterogeneity, can deliver near-centralized performance while keeping data decentralized. This positions the proposed framework as a viable solution for scalable, privacy-conscious medical AI applications.

6. CONCLUSION

This study presented a federated learning framework tailored for privacy-sensitive healthcare applications, capable of handling heterogeneous (non-IID) client data while maintaining high predictive performance. Through experiments on the PathMNIST dataset under both IID and non-IID distributions, across configurations of 5 and 10 clients, the framework achieved up

to 95.29% accuracy, closely matching the performance of centralized training. The results demonstrate stable convergence and robust generalization, even in the presence of statistical heterogeneity among clients. The framework's design ensures computational efficiency, with rapid convergence observed across different federation scales, and only minor performance degradation in larger or more heterogeneous federations. These outcomes highlight the practical applicability of federated learning in decentralized medical imaging scenarios, where data privacy and security are critical concerns.

In summary, the proposed approach confirms that carefully orchestrated federated learning systems, leveraging well performing model architectures and accommodating client heterogeneity, can deliver near-centralized accuracy while keeping sensitive data decentralized. This positions the framework as a viable, scalable, and privacy-conscious solution for real world healthcare AI deployments.

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PD Control of a Flexible Satellite with Movable Mass Actuation

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Abstract: This paper proposes a controller of a flexible satellite equipped with a movable mass actuator. The system dynamics include rigid body rotations and elastic vibrations arising from flexible appendages, modeled using second-order differential equations. Control is achieved by strategically moving an internal mass, which provides torques for attitude stabilization and reduces vibrational energy in the flexible modes. A Proportional-Derivative (PD) controller is utilized to regulate the system's response, ensuring effective stabilization. The stability of the closed-loop system is analysed using Lyapunov theory, and numerical simulations demonstrate the approach's effectiveness in minimizing flexible mode vibrations while maintaining precise satellite attitude control.

Keywords: Attitude control, Movable Mass, Flexible Satellite, PD Controller.

1. INTRODUCTION

Modern satellites are increasingly designed with flexible structures, such as expansive solar panels and large antennas, to meet the growing demands for advanced functionality and efficiency in space missions. However, these flexible components introduce significant control challenges due to the interaction between the satellite's rigid body dynamics and the vibrations of its flexible modes [1,2]. These oscillations can compromise pointing accuracy and overall control performance, rendering traditional control methods, which primarily address rigid body dynamics, inadequate. To overcome these challenges, it is imperative to develop sophisticated control systems that ensure precise attitude control and support rapid maneuvers.

Commonly used actuators for satellite control include propulsion systems [3], angular momentum exchange devices like reaction wheels [4] and control moment gyroscopes (CMGs) [5], as well as environmental interaction devices such as magnetic torquers [6].

In recent years, innovative control strategies have been explored, including the use of internal actuators like movable mass control (MMC). By repositioning a movable mass within the satellite, MMC can generate control torques to influence the spacecraft's attitude [7]. Compared to traditional actuators, MMC offers several advantages: it is lightweight, has a simple structure, and consumes minimal power. The effects of MMC involve shifts in the center of mass (CoM), angular momentum exchange, and variations in the inertia tensor—all of which can be harnessed to alter the spacecraft's state.

Initial research demonstrated that adjusting internal movable components could modify a spacecraft's energy and, consequently, its motion state [8]. Since then, movable masses have been applied to a variety of rigid bodies, including underwater gliders [9], warheads [10], and drones [11]. For spacecraft, the primary effect of repositioning movable masses is the shifting of the CoM, which can adjust the moment arm of external forces to produce attitude control torques. These external forces may include aerodynamic forces, solar radiation pressure, or thrust from onboard propulsion systems. Additionally, researchers have investigated the use of movable masses for three-axis attitude stabilization in low Earth orbit (LEO) spacecraft [12,13]. Through strategic distribution and synchronized operation of the masses in the same or opposite directions, this approach generated aerodynamic torques or enabled internal momentum exchange to maintain stability.

To address control challenges involving coupled effects, equations of motion were developed for asymmetric rigid spacecraft equipped with a movable mass. A nonlinear control law was subsequently proposed to stabilize tumbling spacecraft by inducing a controlled spin around the major principal axis [14], a controller was designed based on the linear-quadratic regulator technique (LQR) to achieve the desired satellite attitude. Furthermore [15], an optimal control strategy using a

single movable mass was devised to minimize the time required for spacecraft detumbling [16]. These advancements highlight the potential of MMC as a promising alternative for enhancing spacecraft control, particularly in scenarios where traditional actuators may be less effective. This paper addresses the challenge of attitude control in flexible spacecraft, where vibration-induced torques can demand excessive control effort, potentially exceeding the reaction wheels' capacity and causing wheel saturation, which compromises attitude stability. To overcome this issue, a Proportional-Derivative (PD) control strategy is proposed to stabilize the satellite's attitude and dampen vibrations in the flexible appendages. Ultimately, this study seeks to enhance understanding and potentially propose a practical solution to meet the demands of modern space missions. The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 develops the attitude model of a flexible satellite with movable mass, covering both the rigid body and the flexible dynamics. Section 3 details the controller design, including the PD controller and the movable mass controller. Section 4 establishes the stability analysis of the proposed scheme. Finally, section 5 then presents the numerical simulations, highlighting the performance and effectiveness of the control strategy.

2. MODEL OF FLEXIBLE SATELLITE ATTITUDE CONSIDERING MOVABLE MASS

To illustrate the concept of moving mass technology, Figure 1 depicts how a thrust vector that does not intersect the spacecraft's center of mass (CoM) generates a torque in one direction around the CoM, resulting in a change in the spacecraft's attitude. By repositioning internal masses within the spacecraft, the CoM can be displaced relative to the thrust vector, creating a torque in the opposite direction for attitude control. This adjustment enables gradual changes in the spacecraft's attitude, altering the thrust direction and allowing precise steering of the vehicle.

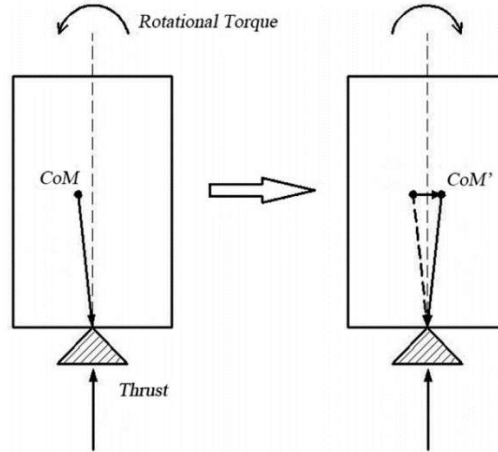


Figure1. Concept of Moving Mass Technology [17]

A. Rigid Body Dynamics The rigid body dynamics of the satellite are governed by Euler's equations, which describe rotational motion about its CoM [18]:

$$J\ddot{\theta} = T_{ext} + T_{act} \quad (1)$$

where:

$J, \theta, T_{act}, T_{ext}$ represents the constant inertia matrix of the satellite, the pitch attitude, the torque generated by the satellite's actuators, the external torque, primarily caused by the gravity-gradient effect, The external torque T_{ext} , caused by the gravity gradient effect, emerges when the satellite's mass distribution is asymmetrical relative to the Earth's gravitational field. This imbalance generates a restoring torque that tends to align the satellite's principal axis of minimum inertia with the local vertical direction. In this study, the gravity gradient torque is treated as an external disturbance that the control system must actively counteract to ensure precise attitude stabilization and desired orbital orientation.

Where

$$T_{act} = T_{PD} + T_{mass} \quad (2)$$

Witch represents the control torque produced by the combined controller PD and movable mass system.

B. Flexible Satellite Dynamics

The satellite's flexible appendages introduce complex dynamic interactions due to their inherent vibrational characteristics. These interactions are mathematically represented using a second-order differential equation, which captures the oscillatory behavior and its influence on the overall system dynamics. The equation is formulated as follows:

$$J\ddot{\theta} + k_{flex}\ddot{q} = T_{act} \quad (3)$$

$$\ddot{q} + k_{flex}\ddot{\theta} = -\omega_{flex}^2 q - 2\xi_{flex}\omega_{flex}\dot{q} \quad (4)$$

where:

q represents the modal displacement vector, which quantifies the vibrational amplitude for each mode of the flexible structure, k_{flex} denotes the coupling mode with rigid body, ξ_{flex} is the damping ratio, which quantifies the energy dissipation relative to the critical damping for the flexible mode. ω_{flex} represents the natural frequency of the flexible mode,

3. Controller Design

A. PD Controller

The proportional-derivative (PD) controller forms the fundamental attitude control law in this Study, generating a command torque based on the satellite's orientation error, the control torque T_{PD} , is calculated as a combination of the attitude error, $e_{\theta}(t) = \theta(t) - \theta_{ref}$, and its time derivative, the angular velocity $\dot{\theta}$, the governing equation for the PD controller is:

$$T_{PD} = -K_P e_{\theta} - K_D \dot{\theta} \quad (5)$$

B. Movable mass Controller

The incorporation of a movable mass inside the satellite offers an internal mechanism for generating control torques. By strategically shifting the mass along a predetermined trajectory, the satellite can produce torques to adjust and stabilize its attitude. The control torque induced by the movable mass is mathematically expressed as:

$$T_{mass}(t) = -mr_{max} \cdot \alpha \operatorname{sech}^2(\alpha e_{\theta}(t)) [e_{\theta}(t)e^{-\beta t} + 0.2\dot{\theta}(t)e^{-\beta t/2}] \quad (6)$$

Where m is the movable mass, r_{max} is the maximum displacement of the movable mass from the satellite 'center', α, β are the gains,

The trajectory of the movable mass

$$r(t) = r_{max} \tanh(\alpha e_{\theta}(t)) e^{-\beta t} (1 - \gamma |\dot{\theta}(t)|) \quad (7)$$

This equation accounts for the error, decay over time, and damping by angular velocity.

4. Stability Proof analysis

First, we define the state vector $x = [\theta \quad \dot{\theta} \quad q \quad \dot{q}]^T$ and propose the following Lyapunov candidate function that capture the system's energy:

$$V(x) = \frac{1}{2} J \dot{\theta}^2 + \frac{1}{2} K_P (\theta - \theta_{ref})^2 + \frac{1}{2} \dot{q}^2 + \frac{1}{2} \omega_{flex}^2 q^2 + k_{flex} \dot{\theta} \dot{q} \quad (8)$$

Differentiating (7) with respect to time along (1), (2), and (4) gives:

$$\dot{V} = \dot{\theta}(-k_p \theta - k_d \dot{\theta} + T_{mass} - k_{flex} \dot{q}) + k_p (\theta - \theta_{ref}) \dot{\theta}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 & + \dot{q}(-\omega_{flex}^2 q - 2\xi_{flex}\omega_{flex}\dot{q} - k_{flex}\ddot{\theta}) + \omega_{flex}^2 q \dot{q} + k_{flex}\ddot{\theta}\dot{q} + k_{flex}\dot{\theta}\ddot{q} \\
 & = -k_d\dot{\theta}^2 + \dot{\theta}T_{mass} - 2\xi_{flex}\omega_{flex}\dot{q}^2
 \end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

The terms $-k_d\dot{\theta}^2$ and $-2\xi_{flex}\omega_{flex}\dot{q}^2$ are negative semi-designed. Furthermore, if the movable mass torque T_{mass} is bounded, according it designed where $sech^2(.) > 0$, it can be concluded that the sign of $\dot{\theta}$ and T_{mass} are opposite.

Then

$$\dot{\theta}T_{mass} \leq 0 \tag{10}$$

Thus

$$\dot{V} \leq 0 \tag{11}$$

It can be concluded that the system of composite controller is stable.

5. Numerical Simulation

This simulation illustrates the dynamic behavior and control of a satellite system, which includes rigid-body attitude dynamics, flexible modes, and a movable mass. A state-space model, combined with (PD) controller, is employed to stabilize the system by managing the attitude, flexible modes, and the displacement of the movable mass. The dynamics are simulated over a 500-second duration, demonstrating effective stabilization and efficient control effort. The control of a satellite is simulated using the following parameters:

Table 1 Stelitte Parameters

Inertia (kg.m ²)	440
Damping ratio	0.005
Naturral frequency (rad/s)	0.3
Coupling mode (Nm/rad)	1.278
Movable mass	20
Max Mass displacement (m)	3

The gain of the PD control is chosen as $[K_p \ K_D] = [50 \ 4]$ and the gain of movable mass torque are determined as $[\alpha \ \beta] = [5 \ 0.015]$.

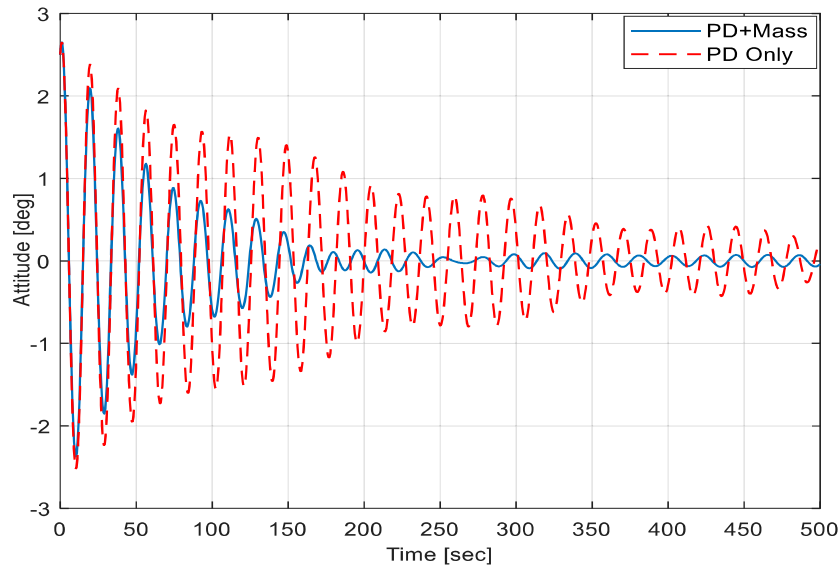


Figure2; Time response of Pitch attitude

As shown in fig.2, the Satellite Orientation Comparison, demonstrates the superior performance of the enhanced PD controller with a movable mass, over a standard PD controller by showing that while both effectively correct a large initial attitude error, only the composite controller successfully eliminates the persistent steady-state oscillations caused by flexible dynamics, ultimately driving and maintaining the satellite's attitude at the target of zero degree.

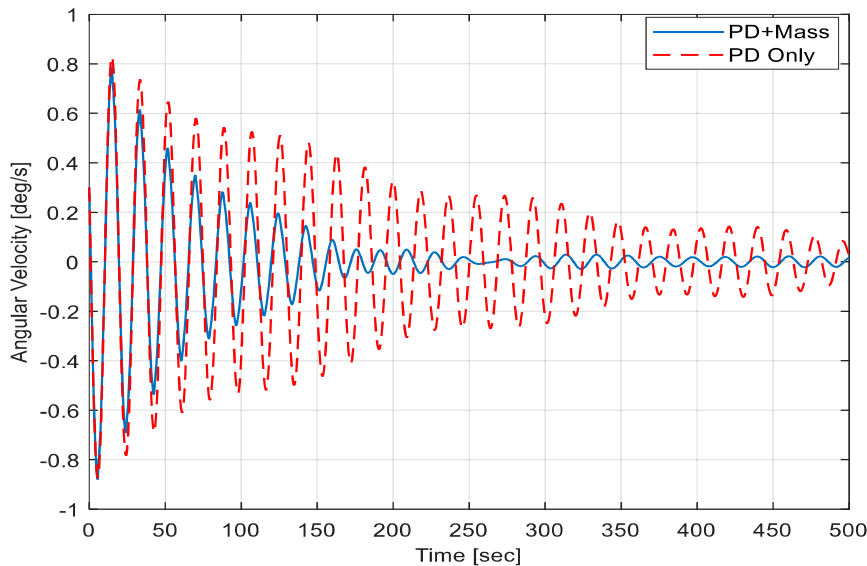


Figure3: Time response of Angular Velocity

Figure 3, the Angular Velocity Comparison, reveals that the enhanced PD+Mass controller is significantly more effective at damping by drastically reducing oscillation amplitude and driving the satellite to a complete rest, thereby eliminating the un-damped micro-vibrations of the PD-only controller and confirming a stable, stationary state that minimizes unnecessary actuator effort.

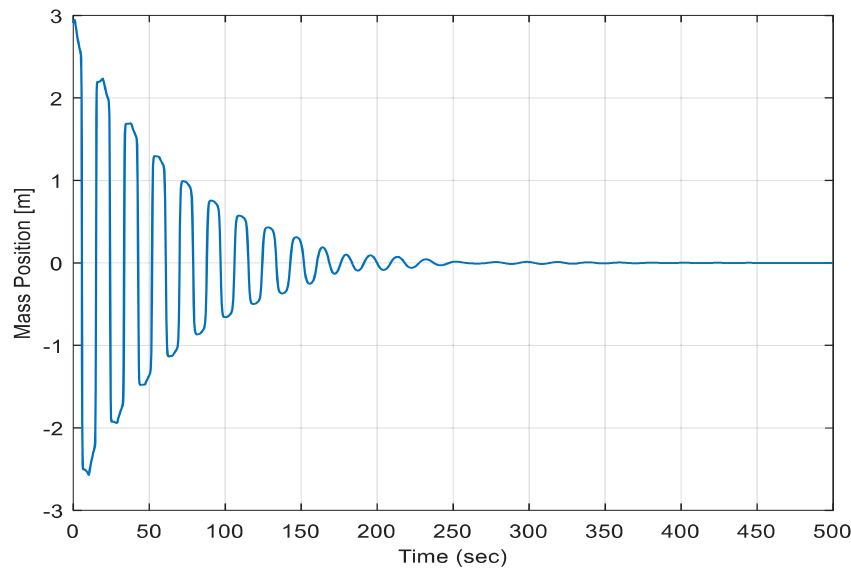
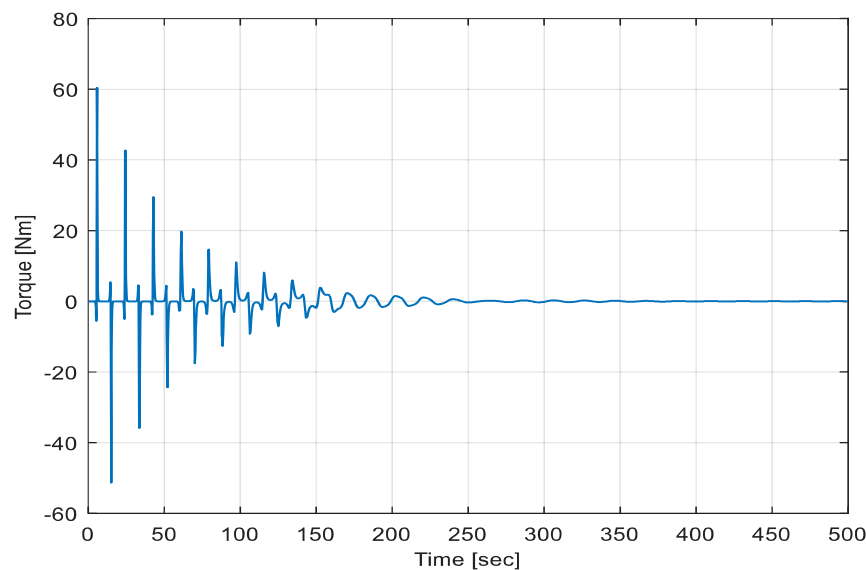


Figure4: Time response of movable mass position



Figur5: Time response of Control Torque

Figures 4 and 5 illustrate the adaptive and efficient nature of the moving mass control strategy. The mass quickly reaches its maximum displacement to apply a large initial corrective torque, then smoothly returns to the centre as the satellite stabilises, demonstrating a smooth transition between large-scale and fine control. Similarly, the control torque exhibits a strong but brief initial peak to overcome inertia, followed by a rapid and low-vibration decay to zero, confirming the efficient and energy-saving operation of the strategy without exceeding the actuator's limits.

To provide a more comprehensive analysis, the root mean square (RMS) values of the errors were calculated over the time interval of 300–500 seconds. These values are presented in Table 2 .

Table 1 RMS Errors Of Attitude

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	RMS Of Pitch (deg)	RMS OF Pitch Rate (deg/s)
PD Controller	0.3205	0.0538
PD+Movable Mass	0.1738	0.0163

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Towards Robust Pneumonia Detection: From CNN-Based Models to Hybrid CNN-LSTM and Ensemble Approaches

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Abstract: Pneumonia, a lower respiratory tract infection, is one of the leading causes of death worldwide. Thus, the urgent need for automated X-ray radiography diagnosis of this disease has become a critical challenge in medical imaging diagnosis. In this work, we conduct a comprehensive comparative evaluation of three pretrained convolutional neural networks (CNNs), ResNet50, MobileNet, and DenseNet121, in three distinct modelling experiences: using CNN only, combining CNN and long short-term memory (LSTM), and feature concatenation of all three CNNs followed by an LSTM classifier. The fused model (CNNs concatenated + LSTM) yielded the best result, an accuracy of 95.98%. Our work provides practical guidance on architecture selection for pneumonia detection from chest X-ray images and highlights fusion-based pipelines as a promising direction in medical imaging diagnostics.

Keywords: Pneumonia, convolutional neural networks, long short-term memory, chest X-ray.

1. INTRODUCTION

Pneumonia is an infection that affects one or both lungs. Usually brought on by bacteria, viruses, or even fungi. It can lead to many potentially fatal disorders [1]. Approximately 15% of children under five dies as a result of it. Symptoms of pneumonia often include headaches and muscle soreness [2]. Accurately diagnosing pneumonia is a difficult and complex process that is best left to expert radiologists. X-ray imaging is a cost-effective and non-invasive way to evaluate it. Nonetheless, the interpretation of these chest x-ray exams to identify pneumonia is still arbitrary.

It is now urgently necessary to automatically identify thoracic and pulmonary disorders using X-ray radiography. Deep Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) have become the most common method because of their ability to automatically extract rich hierarchical information from unprocessed images. These networks are well known for processing medical images—especially large-sized images—quickly and precisely [3]. Many scientists have used radiological images to diagnose this disease.

Transfer learning of standard CNNs has been applied effectively. In [4], the author tested multiple pretrained models as feature extractors. The classification task is done using traditional classifiers, settling on DenseNet-169 with SVM up to 80.02% area under curve (AUC). Another study [5] proposed the use of six models; two models consist of two and three convolution layers; however, the four remaining are VGG16, VGG19, ResNet50, and Inception-v3. The best accuracy is 92.31%, achieved by the CNN with three convolution layers.

While CNNs alone are used in the majority of studies for static image classification, some more recent methods incorporate sequential or temporal processing layers (like Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)) for improved representation. The author [6] developed a model for COVID-19 and pneumonia classification. They trained an LSTM using ResNet-50 features, achieving an accuracy of about 94.6% by considering CT slices as sequential time steps.

Other [7] developed an ensemble model constituted of five pretrained CNNs; the output is obtained using the majority vote. An accuracy of 96.4% is obtained to classify pneumonia from normal subjects. Nettur et al. [8] proposed an ensemble model that integrates two pre-trained CNNs, MobileNetV2 and NASNetMobile; the final prediction obtained by the weighted average ensemble has an accuracy of 96.25% to distinguish pneumonia from a normal subject.

In this study, we conduct a systematic comparison of three architectures for the classification of pneumonia from chest X-rays:

- Separate end-to-end training of several pretrained CNNs (ResNet50, MobileNet, and DenseNet121);
- Integration of the same CNN with an LSTM classifier to assess the advantages of sequential modeling of extracted features;
- Fusion approach in which features from all three CNNs are concatenated before being classified using LSTM.

We are able to determine which model version produces the best performance thanks to our three-fold comparison design.

2. METHODOLOGY

The proposed framework is shown in Figure 1, which illustrates the training pipelines for the three experiences: CNN only, CNN + LSTM, and ensemble CNNs followed by LSTM.

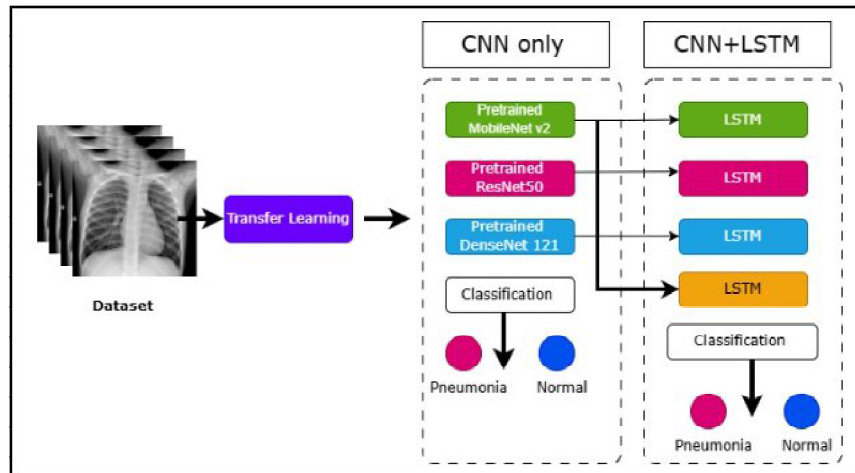


Fig. 1: The proposed framework for the classification of pneumonia versus normal subject.

2.1 Proposed Method

The proposed approach aims to classify chest X-ray images into pneumonia and normal categories using deep learning and transfer learning techniques. Initially, a pretrained CNN such as MobileNetV2, ResNet50, or DenseNet121 is employed to extract deep features from the input X-ray images. In the first phase, each CNN is fine-tuned individually, and the extracted features are directly used for classification. In the second phase, the features obtained from each pretrained CNN are passed to an LSTM network to capture sequential dependencies and enhance classification performance. In the third phase, the features obtained from each pretrained CNN are concatenated and then passed to the LSTM network. Finally, the models are evaluated and compared to identify the best-performing architecture for pneumonia detection.

2.2 Dataset:

The database used in this study, collected from the Kaggle challenge, is 5858 subjects of both genders divided into 1583 healthy subjects and 4273 pneumonia ones [9].

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To train our proposed network, we have randomly split the dataset into 80% for training and 20% for validation. The batch size used is equal to 32 with a learning rate of 0.0001. The maximum number of epochs was set to 20, and the optimization algorithm was the Adam.

CNNs architectures for pneumonia Classification were implemented using Python using Keras and TensorFlow libraries and performed on an Intel i7 3.1 GHz CPU with 16 GB RAM.

In order to systematically assess the impact of feature extraction and sequential modelling for the task of distinguishing Normal vs Pneumonia on chest-X-rays, the accuracy is calculated. All the performance classification metric are reported in table 1.

Table1: performance of the proposed model.

Model	Accuracy (%)
Resnet 50	78.79
MobileNet	94.44
DenseNet 121	93.76
Resnet 50 +LSTM	74.10
MobileNet+LSTM	93.59
DenseNet 121+LSTM	93.25
Ensemble CNNs+LSTM	95.98

From Table 1, among the CNN-only models, ResNet50 achieved 78.79%, which is substantially lower than MobileNet at 94.44% and DenseNet121 at 93.76%. This suggests that MobileNet and DenseNet121 provide much stronger feature extraction for this dataset compared to ResNet50.

When applying the LSTM classification on features from each CNN, we see that ResNet50+LSTM drops further to 74.10%, indicating that for ResNet50, adding temporal modelling via LSTM did not help, perhaps even hindered performance. In contrast, MobileNet+LSTM achieves 93.59%, only slightly lower than the CNN-only version; DenseNet121+LSTM yields 93.25%, again showing the LSTM did not bring marked improvement for those two but maintained high performance.

The fused model (Ensemble CNNs+LSTM) achieves the highest accuracy at 95.98%. This confirms the hypothesis that feature fusion from multiple CNNs plus a sequence classifier can outperform individual networks and simple CNN+LSTM pipelines.

4. CONCLUSION:

In this study, we systematically compared three modelling strategies for pneumonia classification from chest X-ray images. We trained three popular CNNs (ResNet 50, MobileNet, and DenseNet 121) individually via the transfer learning technique, their integration with an LSTM layer, and a novel fusion architecture combining features from multiple CNNs followed by an LSTM. Our results demonstrate that the feature-concatenation + LSTM architecture achieved the highest accuracy ($\approx 95.98\%$). Future work will explore fine-tuning of the pretrained CNNs, larger and more diverse datasets, and deployment of the model in real-world clinical settings.

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Fast Low-Complexity Data Detection Based on an Optimized SOR Algorithm for Uplink Massive MIMO Systems

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Abstract: This paper presents a Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO)-based method to determine the optimal relaxation parameter for the Successive Over-Relaxation (SOR) detector in uplink massive MIMO systems. The proposed PSO-SOR scheme adaptively tunes the relaxation factor to balance convergence speed and detection accuracy. Simulation results show that the optimized SOR detector achieves faster convergence and improved Bit Error Rate (BER) performance compared to conventional SOR and other iterative algorithms, while maintaining low computational complexity.

Keywords: Massive MIMO, Successive Over-Relaxation, Particle Swarm Optimization.

1. INTRODUCTION

Massive multiple-input multiple-output (MIMO) technology has emerged as a key enabler for fifth-generation (5G) and beyond wireless communication systems [1]. By equipping base stations with a large number of antennas, massive MIMO systems can simultaneously serve multiple users in the same time-frequency resource, thereby significantly improving spectral and energy efficiency. Theoretical analyses have shown that linear detectors such as zero-forcing (ZF) and minimum mean square error (MMSE) can achieve near-optimal performance under favorable propagation conditions [1]–[3]. However, both ZF and MMSE detectors require matrix inversion operations, which become computationally prohibitive as the number of users increases in large-scale systems [4], [5].

To address this challenge, several studies have focused on reducing the complexity of MMSE detection without compromising performance [4], [6]. Among these efforts, the successive over-relaxation (SOR) iterative method has been introduced as an efficient alternative for massive MIMO detection [2]. The SOR-based detector avoids direct matrix inversion and achieves performance close to that of the MMSE detector, while significantly lowering computational cost. Nevertheless, its convergence behavior heavily depends on the choice of the relaxation parameter ω , whose optimal value varies with system and channel conditions.

In this work, we propose a novel approach to determine the optimal relaxation parameter for the SOR-based detector in massive MIMO systems. By employing a Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) strategy, the proposed PSO-SOR scheme adaptively tunes ω to enhance convergence speed and detection accuracy. The effectiveness of the proposed method is validated through numerical simulations, which demonstrate improved bit error rate (BER) performance and reduced iteration count compared to conventional SOR and other iterative detection algorithms.

2. SYSTEM MODEL AND SIGNAL DETECTION

Consider an uplink multiuser massive MIMO system consisting of N receive antennas at the base station (BS) and U single-antenna user terminals, where $U \leq N$ as depicted in Fig. 1.

Let $\mathbf{s} = [s_1, s_2, \dots, s_U]^T$ denote the transmitted signal vector, where $s_u \in \mathcal{M}$ represents the symbol sent by the u -th user, and $\mathcal{M}$ denotes the modulation alphabet (e.g., QAM). The complex baseband channel matrix is represented by $\mathbf{H} \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times U}$, whose entries are assumed to be independent and identically distributed (i.i.d.) complex Gaussian random variables, modeling Rayleigh fading channels.

Accordingly, the received signal vector at the BS can be expressed as:

$$\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{H}\mathbf{s} + \mathbf{n} \quad (1)$$

where $n \in \mathbb{C}^{N \times 1}$ is the additive white Gaussian noise (AWGN) vector with entries following a complex normal distribution $\mathcal{CN}(0, \sigma^2)$.

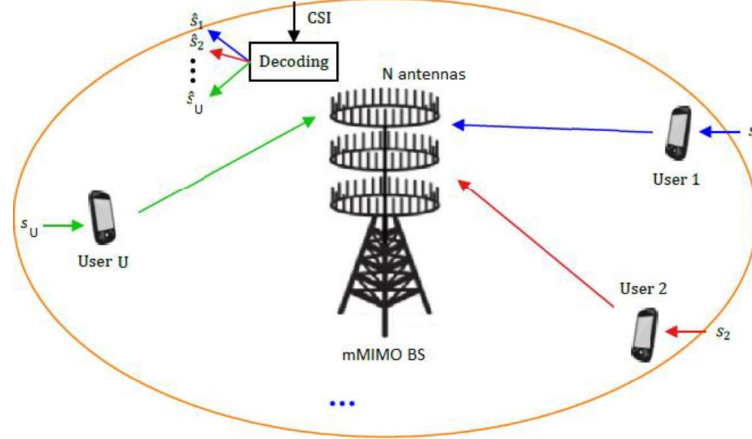


Fig. 1. Multiuser massive MIMO model with N antennas at BS to serve U users.

The objective at the receiver is to estimate the transmitted vector s based on the received signal r and the known channel matrix H . Traditional linear detectors such as the zero-forcing (ZF) and linear minimum mean square error (MMSE) detectors provide near-optimal performance under favorable propagation conditions but suffer from high computational cost due to matrix inversion operations.

It has been well established that the MMSE detector offers quasi-optimal performance for estimating the transmitted signal vector $\hat{s}$ from all U users, which can be expressed as:

$$\hat{s} = (H^H H + \sigma^2 I)^{-1} H^H r = A^{-1} r_{MF} \quad (2)$$

where I is the identity matrix, $r_{MF} = H^H r$ represents the matched-filter output, and A is the MMSE filtering matrix defined as:

$$A = G + \sigma^2 I \quad (3)$$

with $G = H^H H$ denoting the Gram matrix.

It is important to note that the exact computation of the inverse matrix A^{-1} requires a computational complexity on the order of $O(U^3)$, which becomes prohibitive in large-scale MIMO systems. To overcome this limitation, iterative algorithms such as the Successive Over-Relaxation (SOR) method can be employed to approximate the MMSE solution efficiently without explicit matrix inversion [6].

The Successive Over-Relaxation (SOR) method is a widely used technique for solving large linear systems such as the one expressed in (1). It can be viewed as an enhanced version of the Gauss–Seidel (GS) method, designed to improve and accelerate its convergence by updating each unknown successively based on previously computed values. In this approach, the Gram matrix G is decomposed as:

$$G = G_D + G_L + G_U \quad (4)$$

where G_D , G_L , and G_U represent the diagonal, strictly lower triangular, and strictly upper triangular components of G , respectively [7].

Based on the above decomposition, the SOR iterative update equation for estimating the transmitted signal can be expressed as:

$$\hat{s}^{(i+1)} = \left(G_L + \frac{1}{\omega} G_D \right)^{-1} \left(r_{MF} + \left(\left(\frac{1}{\omega} - 1 \right) G_D - G_U^H \right) \hat{s}^{(i)} \right), \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, \quad (5)$$

where $\hat{s}^{(i)}$ and $\hat{s}^{(i+1)}$ denote the estimated signal vectors at the i -th and $(i+1)$ -th iterations, respectively, and ω is the relaxation parameter that controls the convergence behavior of the algorithm. The SOR iteration converges when $0 < \omega < 2$.

The optimal selection of ω is crucial, as it directly affects both the convergence rate and the detection performance. In this work, a Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO)-based approach is proposed to determine the optimal value of ω for the SOR detector in massive MIMO systems.

3. PROPOSED PSO-SOR DETECTOR FOR MASSIVE MIMO UPLINK

In order to optimize the convergence and detection accuracy of the SOR method, the relaxation parameter ω is calculated through the following optimization formulation [7]:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{minimize } f(\omega) = \mathbb{E} \left[\|s - \hat{s}(\omega)\|^2 \right] \\ & \text{subject to } 0 < \omega < 2 \text{ and } \rho \left((G_L + G_D/\omega)^{-1} ((1/\omega - 1)G_D - G_L^H) \right) < 1 \end{aligned} \quad (6)$$

where $\rho(\cdot)$ denotes the spectral radius of a matrix.

The detailed procedure of the proposed approach is presented in the following algorithm:

Step 1: Initialization

- Compute the matrices H and G then decompose G into: $G = G_D + G_L + G_U$
- Set $i = 0$ and initialize $s^{(0)} = G_D^{-1}r_{MF}$

Step 2: Optimize relaxation parameter ω using basic PSO

- Initialize PSO parameters: Set swarm size P , max iterations T , inertia weight Ω , cognitive acceleration coefficients c_1 and c_2 , random numbers r_1 and r_2 , Initialize each particle k in PSO with random relaxation parameter ω_k and random velocity v_k
- Evaluate fitness $f(x_k)$ using SOR with ω_k
- Set personal best $p_{best_k} = x_k$ and global best g_{best}

Step 3: Basic PSO Iteration

- For $t = 1$ to T do
- For $k = 1$ to P do
- Update velocity and position:

$$v_k^{(t+1)} = \Omega v_k^{(t)} + c_1 r_1 (p_{best_k} - x_k^{(t)}) + c_2 r_2 (g_{best} - x_k^{(t)})$$

$$x_k^{(t+1)} = x_k^{(t)} + v_k^{(t+1)}$$
- If $f(x_k) < f(p_{best_k})$ then $p_{best_k} = x_k$
- If $f(p_{best_k}) < f(g_{best})$ then $g_{best} = p_{best_k}$
- End For
- If PSO convergence criterion is met, break
- End For

Step 4: Apply optimized SOR Algorithm

- Set optimized $\omega_{opt} = g_{best}$
- For $i = 1$ to I do (I is the number of iterations)
- Compute residual: $e^{(i)} = \hat{s}^{(i)} - s$
- Update estimate using the SOR equation:

$$\hat{s}^{(i+1)} = \left(G_L + \frac{1}{\omega} G_D \right)^{-1} \left(r_{MF} + \left(\left(\frac{1}{\omega} - 1 \right) G_D - G_L^H \right) \hat{s}^{(i)} \right)$$
- If $\|\hat{s}^{(i+1)} - \hat{s}^{(i)}\| < \varepsilon$ then
- Break (SOR convergence achieved)
- End For

Step 5: Return solution

- Set $\hat{s} = \hat{s}^{(i+1)}$
- Return $\hat{s}$ as the estimated transmitted signal

PSO is a widely used metaheuristic optimization technique that mimics the collective intelligence of a swarm to explore complex search spaces and identify optimal solutions. The basic workflow of PSO is illustrated in the following figure.

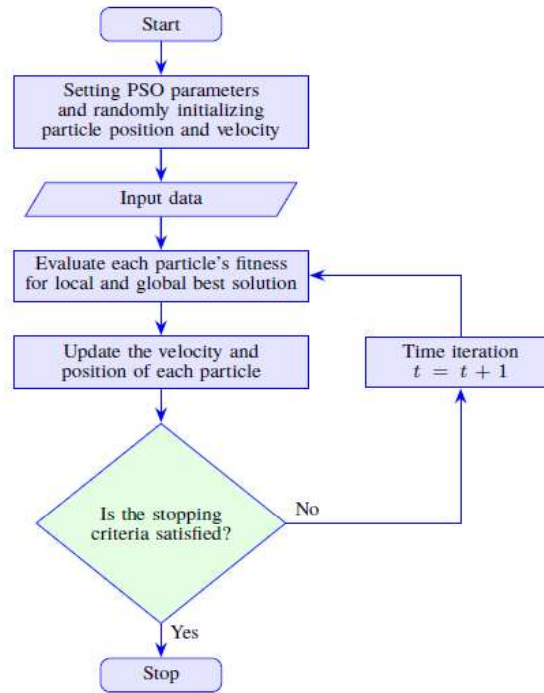


Fig. 2. Flow chart of the basic PSO algorithm [7].

4. COMPLEXITY COST

Below, we summarize in Table 1 the dominant computational costs using overall order notation and identify the main operations required by each method.

Table 1 Computational complexity comparison of different detection algorithms

Detection method	Main operations per iteration	Overall complexity	Remarks
MMSE	-	$O(U^3)$	High complexity due to matrix inversion
Jacobi	Matrix–vector multiplications	$O(U^2)$	Simple but slow convergence
Gauss-Seidel	Sequential updates of variables	$O(U^2)$	Faster than Jacobi
SOR	Iterative updates with relaxation	$O(U^2)$	Improved convergence with proper ω
Proposed PSO-SOR	SOR updates + PSO optimization	$O(P \cdot T \cdot U^2)$	Optimized convergence and low complexity

U : is the number of users, P : is the number of PSO particles, T : is the number of PSO iterations.

5. NUMERICAL RESULTS

This section presents simulation results to evaluate the BER performance of the proposed PSO-SOR detector compared to conventional SOR-, Jacobi-, and Gauss–Seidel-based detectors under Rayleigh fading channels. The near-optimal MMSE detector is included as a benchmark. Simulations are first conducted for a 128×32 massive MIMO uplink system using 64–QAM modulation, with two and three iterations per detection. The PSO parameters are set to $P = 10$ particles, $T = 10$ iterations, $c_1 = c_2 = 2$ for both cognitive and social parameters, and the inertia weight linearly decreases from $\Omega_{\max} = 0.9$ to $\Omega_{\min} = 0.4$.

Simulation results demonstrate the effectiveness of the proposed PSO-SOR detector for uplink massive MIMO systems. As shown in Fig. 3, the PSO-SOR detector achieves near-MMSE performance and clearly outperforms the conventional SOR, Gauss–Seidel, and Jacobi detectors in terms of BER for the uplink massive MIMO configuration $(N, U) = (128, 32)$ with only two iterations, while maintaining low computational complexity.

Figure 4 illustrates the BER performance versus SNR for different detection algorithms in an uplink massive MIMO system with $(N, U) = (128, 32)$ and three iterations. The PSO-SOR detector achieves near-MMSE performance while significantly outperforming the conventional SOR, Gauss–Seidel, and Jacobi methods, confirming its superior convergence and detection accuracy.

Figures 5 and 6 further confirm the rapid convergence of the PSO optimizer, where both the fitness value and the relaxation parameter ω stabilize within the first few iterations, highlighting the efficiency and robustness of the proposed optimization process.

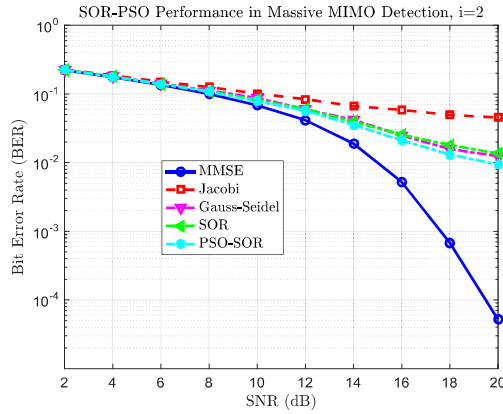


Fig. 3 Comparison of BER vs. SNR performance for a $(N, U) = (128, 32)$ uplink detection m-MIMO system where $i=2$.

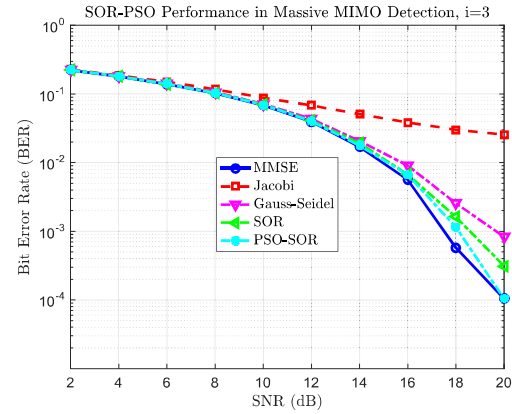


Fig. 4 Comparison of BER vs. SNR performance for a $(N, U) = (128, 32)$ uplink detection m-MIMO system where $i=3$.

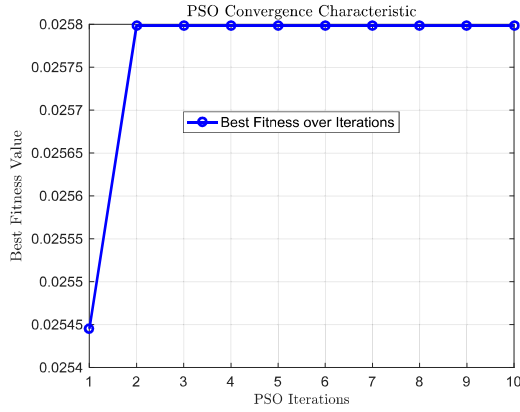


Fig. 5 Convergence of PSO fitness function for optimization of SOR relaxation parameter.

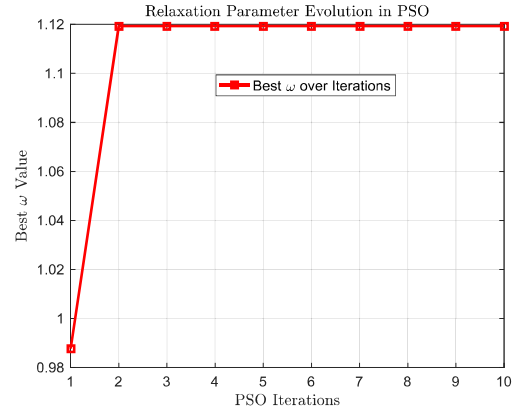


Fig. 6 Evolution of optimal SOR relaxation parameter across PSO iterations.

To further validate the effectiveness of PSO-SOR, additional simulations are performed for a larger massive MIMO configuration $(N, U) = (256, 64)$ with three detection iterations. The results in Fig.7 confirm that PSO-SOR consistently outperforms conventional SOR, Gauss–Seidel, and Jacobi detectors, maintaining near-MMSE accuracy even in higher-dimensional scenarios.

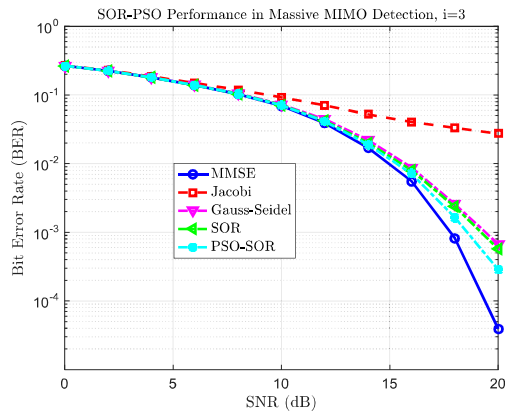


Fig. 7 Comparison of BER vs. SNR performance for a $(N, U) = (256, 64)$ uplink detection m-MIMO system where $i=3$.

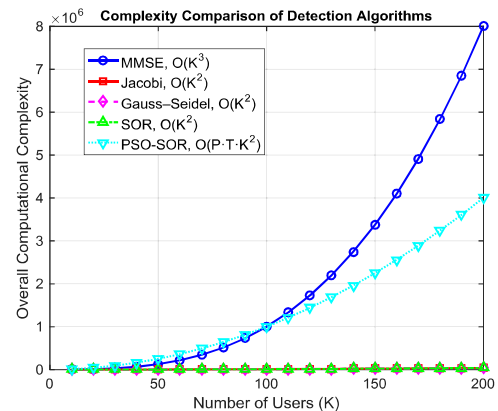


Fig. 8 Complexity comparison of investigated detection algorithms.

The computational-complexity comparison highlights the clear differences between the investigated linear and iterative detectors. Jacobi and Gauss–Seidel exhibit moderate complexity, as both rely on simple iterative matrix updates without additional optimization. The conventional SOR method has slightly higher complexity due to the relaxation step, but still remains lightweight. In contrast, PSO-SOR introduces an additional optimization stage to tune the relaxation parameter ω , which increases its computational load; however, its overall complexity remains significantly lower than that of the MMSE detector, which requires a costly matrix inversion. Overall, Fig.8 shows that PSO-SOR achieves a favorable trade-off offering near-MMSE performance while keeping the computational burden only marginally higher than classical iterative methods.

6. CONCLUSION

A PSO-SOR detection scheme was proposed for uplink massive MIMO systems to enhance iterative detection efficiency. By intelligently tuning the SOR relaxation parameter using particle swarm optimization, the method achieves faster convergence and significantly improved BER performance while maintaining low computational complexity. Simulation results under various massive MIMO configurations demonstrate that PSO-SOR consistently outperforms conventional SOR, Jacobi, and Gauss–Seidel detectors, and closely approaches the performance of the MMSE detector without requiring matrix inversion. These advantages make PSO-SOR a robust, scalable, and practical solution for reliable signal detection in large-scale wireless communication systems.

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Feature Extraction and Classification of Dental Images Using an EfficientNetB2–Neural Network Hybrid

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Abstract: Dental and oral diseases are among the most frequent health issues worldwide, affecting individuals of all ages and social backgrounds. They may occur at any time and sometimes require urgent medical intervention to prevent severe complications. In many cases, patients experience tooth pain or visible oral lesions without understanding their cause, leading to delayed diagnosis or inappropriate treatment. Early detection and classification of dental pathologies are therefore crucial for effective medical management. With the rapid progress of artificial intelligence (AI), deep learning models have shown remarkable performance in medical image analysis. They can automatically extract discriminative features and assist healthcare professionals in making faster and more accurate decisions. However, their effectiveness strongly depends on the training strategy and the ability of the model to adapt to specific medical domains.

In this study, we propose an hybrid model that combines EfficientNetB2 for feature extraction and a custom deep neural network for classification. The core idea is to test the efficiency of a two-phase fine-tuning strategy a progressive training approach that first freezes part of the pre-trained layers (partial fine-tuning) and then unfreezes all layers (full fine-tuning). This gradual adaptation aims to enhance convergence stability and improve the model's capability to generalize on unseen dental data. The proposed system classifies six common dental pathologies: *Calculus*, *Caries*, *Gingivitis*, *Hypodontia*, *Mouth Ulcer*, and *Tooth Discoloration*. Some of these diseases, such as *Caries* or *Mouth Ulcer*, may require urgent treatment. Hence, this model can help patients automatically identify the probable cause of pain and consult the correct dental specialist promptly.

We employed a recent dental image dataset published in 2023, containing 7487 labeled images distributed across six classes, as shown in Table.

Class	Image Count
Calculus	1166
Caries	1281
Gingivitis	1254
Hypodontia	1126
Mouth Ulcer	1414
Tooth Discoloration	1246

Since the dataset presented class imbalance, data augmentation was applied to ensure a more uniform distribution. Transformations such as rotation, flipping, zooming, and brightness adjustment were used to generate additional samples. The total number of images after augmentation reached approximately 8484, with about 1414 images per class. All images were resized to 224×224×3 pixels and normalized before being fed into the network. The dataset was split into training, validation, and test subsets in an 80/10/10 ratio.

Proposed Hybrid Architecture

EfficientNetB2 for Feature Extraction

EfficientNetB2, pre-trained on ImageNet, was used as the backbone for feature extraction. This network employs compound scaling to balance depth, width, and resolution, achieving high accuracy with reduced computational cost. The lower convolutional layers capture general visual features such as edges and textures, while the upper layers focus on higher-level semantic representations relevant to dental lesions.

To make the model suitable for our task, the original classification layers of EfficientNetB2 were removed, and the extracted features were fed into a custom neural network head designed specifically for classification.

Custom Neural Network Classifier

The classification head is a fully connected deep neural network that processes the extracted features from EfficientNetB2 and performs the final categorization into the six disease classes. Its structure is as follows:

- GlobalAveragePooling2D for feature aggregation
- Dense(512) with L2 regularization + BatchNormalization + ReLU activation + Dropout(0.3)
- Dense(256) with L2 regularization + BatchNormalization + ReLU activation + Dropout(0.25)
- Dense(128) + ReLU activation + Dropout(0.2)
- Output Layer: Dense(6) with Softmax activation

This hybrid configuration allows the model to combine deep feature extraction (EfficientNetB2) with task-specific learning (neural classifier), improving precision and reducing overfitting.

Two-Phase Fine-Tuning Strategy

To optimize the adaptation of the pre-trained model to the dental domain, we implemented a two-step fine-tuning process:

- **Phase 1: Partial Fine-Tuning**
 - The early convolutional layers of EfficientNetB2 were frozen to preserve general image representations.
 - Only the final 50 layers were unfrozen and trained on the dental dataset.
 - The model was trained for 100 epochs with a learning rate of 0.001 using the Adam optimizer.
 - Callbacks such as *ReduceLROnPlateau*, *EarlyStopping*, and *ModelCheckpoint* were included for better convergence.
- **Phase 2: Full Fine-Tuning**
 - After achieving stable performance, all layers were unfrozen for deeper domain adaptation.
 - A smaller learning rate (0.0001) was used to fine-tune the entire network without disrupting the learned weights.
 - This second phase refined the model's understanding of subtle patterns between similar dental diseases.

The main purpose of this approach is to achieve a progressive transfer learning process that combines general visual features with domain-specific discriminative power.

Experimental Results

Two experimental configurations were compared:

Direct Fine-Tuning (baseline) – all layers unfrozen from the start.

Hybrid Two-Phase Fine-Tuning – partial unfreezing followed by complete fine-tuning.

The models were trained on the same dataset with identical hyperparameters (batch size = 32, epochs = 100). The hybrid model clearly outperformed the baseline in all metrics.

Class	Precision	Recall	F1-Score
Calculus	0.7826	0.7826	0.7826
Caries	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
Gingivitis	0.8261	.8261	.8261
Hypodontia	0.9836	0.9836	0.9836
Mouth Ulcer	1.0000	1.0000	1.0000
Tooth Discoloration	0.9857	0.9857	0.9857

Overall accuracy: 93.03%

Macro-average F1-score: 0.93

By contrast, the direct fine-tuning approach achieved 90.62% accuracy, demonstrating that the hybrid two-phase method offers better convergence and generalization.

The two-phase fine-tuning strategy allows the network to progressively specialize its filters. During the first phase, the lower layers remain stable, preserving their generic representations such as edges, color gradients, and basic textures. The unfrozen top layers learn more specific dental patterns like tooth shape, gum coloration, and lesion texture. The second phase then refines all representations jointly, aligning them with the dental domain.

This method also contributes to faster convergence, better generalization, and lower overfitting risk, especially when training with a medium-sized dataset. The use of regularization (L2), dropout layers, and adaptive learning rate further improved the model's robustness.

Although the proposed hybrid model between EfficientNetB2 and a fully connected neural network achieved a noticeable improvement in accuracy compared to the direct fine-tuning approach, the system is not yet fully efficient for clinical deployment. Some misclassifications still occur, especially between visually similar pathologies such as *Gingivitis* and *Tooth Discoloration*, which share close visual patterns in terms of color and tissue structure.

Therefore, in future work, we plan to enhance the hybridization strategy by concatenating two or three feature extractors (for example, EfficientNetB2, InceptionResNetV2, and ConvNeXtSmall). Such a multi-branch fusion model could capture complementary features, improve feature diversity, and lead to more reliable and generalized classification of dental pathologies. Additionally, incorporating attention mechanisms or transformer-based modules could further guide the model to focus on the most discriminative regions of dental lesions.

From a clinical perspective, such developments will strengthen the potential of AI systems to provide fast and accurate assistance for preliminary dental screening, guiding patients more effectively toward appropriate medical care.

Keywords: Dental diseases, EfficientNet B3, Neural Network,

Quantum-Enhanced Generative Adversarial Networks for Defective Gear Detection in Industrial Inspection

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Abstract: Reliable defect detection in mechanical gears is essential for ensuring the durability and performance of industrial systems. However, existing inspection techniques may struggle when defects are subtle or when only limited defective data is available. This work investigates a generative anomaly detection approach enhanced with quantum processing capabilities to improve the discrimination between normal and defective gear conditions. The model learns the structural characteristics of healthy components and identifies deviations indicative of potential faults. Experimental results show a clear separation between normal and defective samples, demonstrating the effectiveness of the method for intelligent quality control. The approach highlights the potential of hybrid quantum–AI solutions for advanced manufacturing and predictive maintenance in Industry 5.0 environments.

Keywords: Gear Inspection, Quantum Machine Learning, Generative Models, Smart Manufacturing, Anomaly Detection.

1. INTRODUCTION

Helical gears are widely employed in industrial power transmission systems due to their high load capacity, smooth meshing, and noise reduction properties. However, even small geometric deviations in the tooth surface profile can lead to efficiency loss, vibration, premature wear, or even catastrophic system failure. Ensuring the reliable detection of gear defects is therefore essential to maintain operational safety and production quality.

Traditional inspection techniques, such as manual visual examination and signal-based vibration analysis, often depend on expert interpretation and can be unreliable when defects are subtle or when measurement conditions are variable [1]. Machine learning methods have recently shown promise for automated defect detection, but they typically require large datasets containing labeled defective samples, which are often difficult to obtain in real industrial contexts [2].

Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) have emerged as a powerful approach for anomaly detection, as they can learn the distribution of normal components and identify abnormalities as deviations from the learned manifold [3]. However, classical GANs may struggle to generalize when geometric variations are high or when the feature space is complex, as is the case with 3D point cloud representations of mechanical parts [4].

Recent advances in Quantum Machine Learning (QML) suggest that quantum circuits are capable of encoding high-dimensional feature spaces more efficiently than classical networks, potentially improving representation learning and anomaly discrimination [5]. Combining generative models with quantum-enhanced feature processing therefore represents a promising research direction for intelligent industrial inspection within Industry 5.0 and 6.0 manufacturing paradigms.

The aim of this work is to investigate a hybrid Quantum Generative Adversarial Network (QGAN) for detecting geometric defects in 3D helical gears by modeling the structure of healthy components and identifying deviations as potential faults.

2. METHODOLOGY

Dataset Description

The dataset consists of 100 helical gear samples represented as point clouds in .xyz format. All samples originate from the same CAD model, and a minimal Gaussian noise of 10^{-9} s added to reflect realistic sensing imperfections. The dataset is divided into 80% normal gears for training and 20% for testing, containing both normal and defective samples exhibiting geometric deviations.

Point Cloud Normalization and Encoding

Each point cloud $P = \{p_i \in \mathbb{R}^3 \mid i = 1, \dots, N\}$ is normalized to a unit spherical coordinate frame to ensure geometric consistency:

$$p'_i = \frac{p_i - \mu(P)}{\max_{p_j \in P} \|p_j - \mu(P)\|_2} \quad (1)$$

Where $\mu(P)$ is the centroid of the point set.

A PointNet-inspired encoder extracts a global feature vector:

$$f(P') = \max_{i=1 \dots N} \phi(p'_i) \quad (2)$$

Where $\phi(\cdot)$ is a shared multilayer perceptron capturing local geometric patterns.

Hybrid Quantum GAN Framework

The training process follows the standard adversarial min–max objective:

$$\min_G \max_D \mathbb{E}_{x \sim P_{\text{normal}}} [\log D(x)] + \mathbb{E}_{z \sim P_z} [\log(1 - D(G(z)))] \quad (3)$$

The discriminator $D(\cdot)$ is implemented as a Quantum Variational Circuit (VQC), where feature embeddings are encoded into quantum states:

$$|\psi(x)\rangle = U(\theta)E(x)|0\rangle^{\otimes n} \quad (4)$$

With $E(x)$ an amplitude encoding map and $U(\theta)$ a trainable quantum rotation circuit.

The discriminator output is obtained through measurement:

$$D(x) = \langle \psi(x) | M | \psi(x) \rangle \quad (5)$$

Where M is a Hermitian observable (e.g., Pauli-Z expectation).

Anomaly Scoring

After training, the generator reconstructs a shape $\hat{P} = G(z)$ associated with a test input P .

The anomaly score is computed by combining reconstruction error and latent feature deviation:

$$S(P) = \alpha \cdot \|P - \hat{P}\|_2 + \beta \cdot \|f(P) - f(\hat{P})\|_2 \quad (6)$$

where:

- α, β re weighting coefficients,
- A high value of $S(P)$ indicates a defective gear.

A threshold τ is used for final decision:

$$\text{If } S(P) \geq \tau \Rightarrow \text{Defective, else } \Rightarrow \text{Normal} \quad (7)$$

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The proposed Quantum GAN anomaly detection framework was evaluated on the testing subset containing both normal and defective helical gears. The anomaly score defined in Eq. (6) was

computed for each sample, and a threshold τ was selected to separate normal from defective items.

Anomaly Score Separation

A clear distinction between normal and defective gears was observed in the anomaly score distribution.

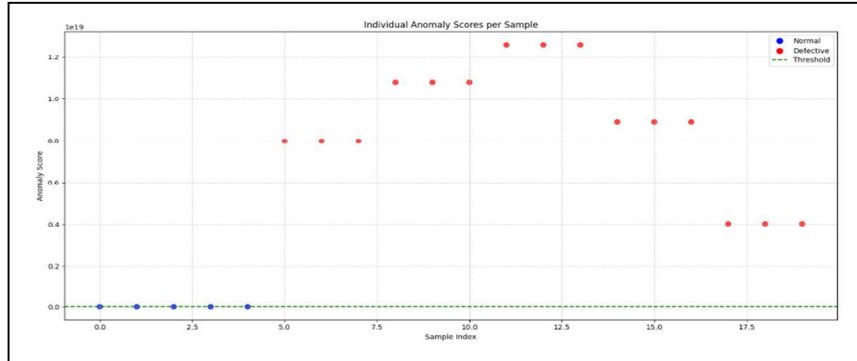


Fig. 1 Individual Anomaly Scores per Sample.

As shown in **Fig. 1**, normal samples exhibit consistently low reconstruction and latent-space deviation values, while defective gears produce significantly higher scores. This separation indicates that the model successfully learned the geometric manifold of healthy helical gears, and deviations from this learned manifold correspond directly to structural defects.

Classification Performance

The classification performance is summarized in **Fig. 2**. The proposed approach correctly identified all defective samples, while maintaining accurate recognition of normal gears. This demonstrates that the model does not rely on memorization of surface patterns but generalizes the geometric structure of the part class.

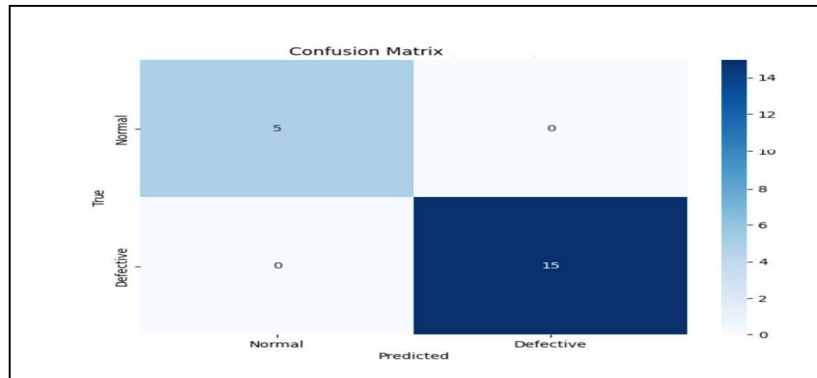


Fig. 2 Confusion Matrix.

Compared to classical GAN-based anomaly detection, the integration of the Quantum Variational Circuit in the discriminator improves the decision boundary sharpness, resulting in stronger anomaly discrimination capability.

Training Behavior

The generator and discriminator loss curves shown in **Fig. 3** indicate stable adversarial convergence. The model reached equilibrium without mode collapse, and the quantum circuit

contributed to reducing discriminator overfitting, which is a common limitation in classical GAN training.

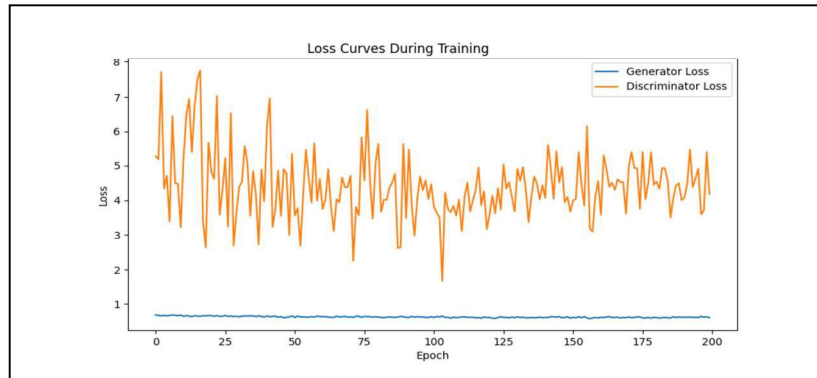


Fig. 3 Loss Curves During Training.

These results confirm that the hybrid classical–quantum architecture provides a more expressive latent space, improving robustness to subtle geometric variations.

Discussion

Overall, the experimental evaluation demonstrates that the proposed method is effective and reliable for detecting defects in helical gear point clouds. The use of quantum-enhanced feature embeddings improves sensitivity to high-dimensional structural variations, while requiring no defective samples during training. This property is particularly advantageous in industrial environments where defective data are scarce.

4. CONCLUSION

This work presented a quantum-enhanced generative anomaly detection framework for the inspection of helical gears represented as three-dimensional point clouds. The model learns the geometric structure of healthy gear surfaces and identifies deviations as defects, which allows detection without requiring defective samples during training. The use of a Quantum Variational Circuit in the discriminator improves the representation of the latent feature space and increases the sensitivity to subtle geometric variations. The experimental results confirm a clear distinction between normal and defective gears, showing that the proposed hybrid classical-quantum architecture is effective for automated quality control. Future work will focus on testing the model in real industrial acquisition environments and evaluating performance on actual quantum processing hardware.

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IoT-AnoGAN: Unsupervised Anomaly Detection in Heterogeneous IoT Networks using Generative Adversarial Networks

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Abstract: The rapid expansion of the Internet of Things (IoT) has increased exposure to cyberattacks, particularly for heterogeneous and resource-constrained devices operating with limited security capabilities. This paper presents IoT-AnoGAN, an unsupervised anomaly detection framework based on Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) designed to model device-specific normal behavior. Trained exclusively on benign network traffic, the system learns the underlying data distribution and identifies abnormal patterns through a combined reconstruction and discrimination scoring mechanism derived from WGAN-GP. Using the N-BaloT dataset, IoT-AnoGAN demonstrates strong effectiveness in distinguishing benign from malicious traffic without relying on labeled attack data. Experimental results show high accuracy, perfect recall for attack detection, and a clear separation between anomaly score distributions, confirming the stability and robustness of the proposed method. These findings highlight IoT-AnoGAN as a promising and scalable solution for enhancing security in dynamic and heterogeneous IoT environments.

Keywords: IoT Security, Anomaly Detection, Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs), Intrusion Detection System, Unsupervised Learning, Network Security.

1. INTRODUCTION

The proliferation of the Internet of Things (IoT) has reshaped modern technological infrastructures, integrating interconnected devices into domestic environments, healthcare systems, and industrial operations. This pervasive connectivity enables large-scale data sharing and automation, yet it also expands the potential attack surface exposed to cyber threats. Many IoT devices are designed with limited computing capability and minimal embedded security mechanisms, which increases their susceptibility to malware, botnet recruitment, and large-scale network disruption [1]. Ensuring secure communication and resilient behavior within such heterogeneous and resource-constrained environments therefore remains a major challenge.

Traditional intrusion detection systems (IDS) typically rely on predefined signatures or behavior profiles derived from known attacks. While effective for familiar threats, these systems struggle to detect new or evolving attack patterns, including zero-day intrusions [2]. Supervised machine learning methods have been explored as adaptive alternatives. However, their performance depends heavily on the availability of large, balanced, and accurately labeled datasets. In the IoT domain, obtaining such datasets is impractical due to device diversity, non-uniform traffic patterns, and the cost of manual annotation [3]. This scarcity of labeled data limits the effectiveness and scalability of supervised IDS in real-world IoT deployments.

Unsupervised anomaly detection offers a viable direction for addressing this limitation. Instead of learning attack patterns, these methods focus on modeling the normal operational behavior of a device and flagging deviations as potential anomalies.

In this work, we introduce **IoT-AnoGAN**, a device-specific anomaly detection framework based on Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs). GANs have demonstrated strong capability in capturing complex data distributions and reconstructing high-dimensional patterns. IoT-AnoGAN is trained exclusively on benign network traffic from a single IoT device. During inference, anomalies are detected by measuring how well new traffic can be reconstructed and evaluated within the learned generative space.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. **Section 1** introduces the context, motivation, and problem statement related to anomaly detection in IoT networks. **Section 2** presents the proposed methodology, including the IoT-AnoGAN framework, dataset description, preprocessing steps, model architecture, and training process. **Section 3** reports the experimental results, with emphasis on performance metrics, confusion matrix analysis, and anomaly score evaluation. **Section 4** provides a detailed discussion of the results and their implications for securing heterogeneous IoT environments. **Section 5** concludes the paper by summarizing the main contributions and highlighting the relevance of the proposed approach.

2. PROPOSED METHODOLOGY

This section introduces the IoT-AnoGAN framework, an unsupervised and device-specific methodology for detecting anomalous network behavior in IoT environments. The framework is built upon a Generative Adversarial Network (GAN) that learns the normal operational patterns of a given IoT device. Deviations from this learned model are treated as potential anomalies.

The methodology consists of four main stages: (i) data preprocessing, (ii) model architecture specification, (iii) adversarial training, and (iv) anomaly scoring during inference.

Dataset

We use the N-BaloT dataset, consisting of normal and botnet-infected IoT network traffic [4]. In our experiments, the dataset was divided into two subsets: a training set composed of 9,801 benign sequences and a test set containing 1,000 sequences, evenly split between 500 benign and 500 malicious samples.

Data Preprocessing and Pipeline

Network traffic is first transformed into a structured form suitable for learning device-specific normal behavior. The N-BaloT dataset is used as the primary data source, as it contains traffic from commercially deployed IoT devices under benign and attack conditions.

Each traffic record is converted into a 115-dimensional feature vector representing statistical and temporal characteristics. A MinMaxScaler is trained exclusively on benign samples to avoid incorporating malicious behavior into the normalization procedure. The scaling transformation maps features into the interval:

$$x' = \frac{x - x_{\min}}{x_{\max} - x_{\min}} \quad (1)$$

Traffic is segmented into overlapping sliding windows of length $w=100$. Each window is defined as:

$$X_i = \{x_i, x_{i+1}, \dots, x_{i+99}\} \quad (2)$$

This representation preserves temporal continuity and allows the model to learn sequential behavior.

The training set X_{train} contains only benign sequences. The test set X_{test} contains both benign and malicious sequences for evaluation.

AnoGAN Model Architecture

The IoT-AnoGAN architecture follows the AnoGAN principle adapted to multivariate time-series data. It employs two deep networks: a Generator G and a Discriminator D .

The Generator receives a latent vector $z \in \mathbb{R}^l$, sampled from:

$$z \sim N(0, I) \quad (3)$$

It transforms z into a synthetic sequence $G(z) \in \mathbb{R}^{100 \times 115}$ using stacked Conv1DTranspose layers.

The Discriminator evaluates whether an input sequence originates from the real benign distribution or is generated synthetically. It consists of Conv1D layers followed by a fully connected layer producing a scalar score:

$$D(x) \in \mathbb{R} \quad (4)$$

No sigmoid activation is used, as required by the Wasserstein formulation.

Adversarial Training (WGAN-GP)

To stabilize training, the Wasserstein GAN with Gradient Penalty (WGAN-GP) is used. The Discriminator objective is:

$$L_D = \mathbb{E}_{x \sim p_{\text{data}}} [D(x)] - \mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_z} [D(G(z))] + \lambda \mathbb{E}_{\hat{x}} \left[\left(\left\| \nabla_{\hat{x}} D(\hat{x}) \right\|_2 - 1 \right)^2 \right] \quad (5)$$

The Generator objective is:

$$L_G = -\mathbb{E}_{z \sim p_z} [D(G(z))] \quad (6)$$

Training proceeds iteratively with N_{critic} Discriminator updates per Generator update.

Anomaly Scoring and Inference

During inference, the trained models are fixed. For a query sequence x_{query} a latent vector z_γ is estimated by minimizing the reconstruction difference:

$$z_\gamma = \arg \min_z \|x_{\text{query}} - G(z)\|_2 \quad (7)$$

The anomaly score $A(x_{\text{query}})$ combines reconstruction error and Discriminator evaluation:

$$A(x_{\text{query}}) = \alpha \cdot \|x_{\text{query}} - G(z_\gamma)\|_2 + (1 - \alpha) \cdot |D(x_{\text{query}})| \quad (8)$$

A detection threshold τ is selected from the distribution of scores on benign validation data. Sequences where $A(x_{\text{query}}) > \tau$ are flagged as anomalies.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

This section presents the experimental evaluation of the IoT-AnoGAN framework. The assessment focuses on the model's ability to distinguish between benign and malicious network traffic on a device-specific basis. Performance was evaluated using standard classification metrics, including accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score. In addition, the interpretability of the anomaly detection process was examined using anomaly score distributions and a confusion matrix.

Classification Performance

Table 1 summarizes the evaluation performance of the proposed model on the test dataset.

Metric	Value
Accuracy	97.5%
Precision (Attack)	95.24%
Recall (Attack)	100%
F1-Score (Attack)	97.5%

Table 1: Performance evaluation of IoT-AnoGAN on the test dataset.

Confusion Matrix Analysis

The confusion matrix in **Figure 1** further illustrates the prediction outcomes. The model correctly classified **475** benign samples as normal and **500** malicious samples as attacks. Only **25** benign samples were incorrectly flagged as abnormal, while no malicious samples were misclassified.

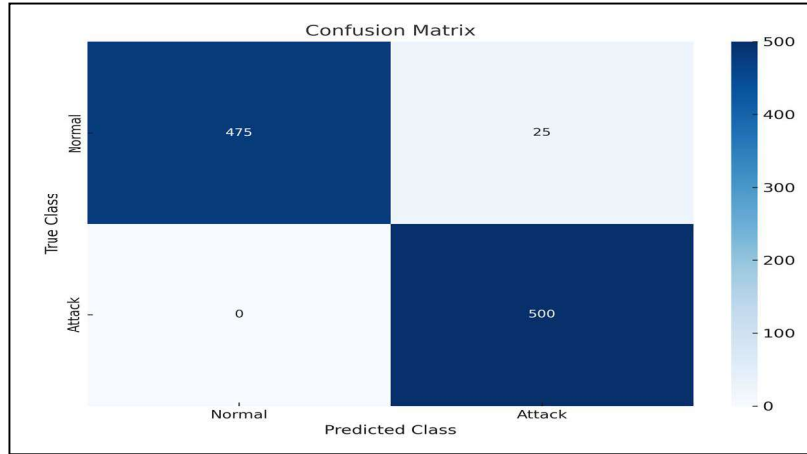


Fig. 1 Confusion Matrix.

This result highlights the model's effectiveness in learning the normal behavioral distribution of a specific device and detecting deviations without prior exposure to attack signatures.

Anomaly Score Distribution

Figure 2 shows the anomaly scores computed for each test instance. Normal traffic samples exhibit consistently low scores tightly clustered near zero, reflecting high reconstruction fidelity by the Generator. In contrast, malicious samples display substantially higher anomaly scores, forming a clearly separable distribution from normal data.

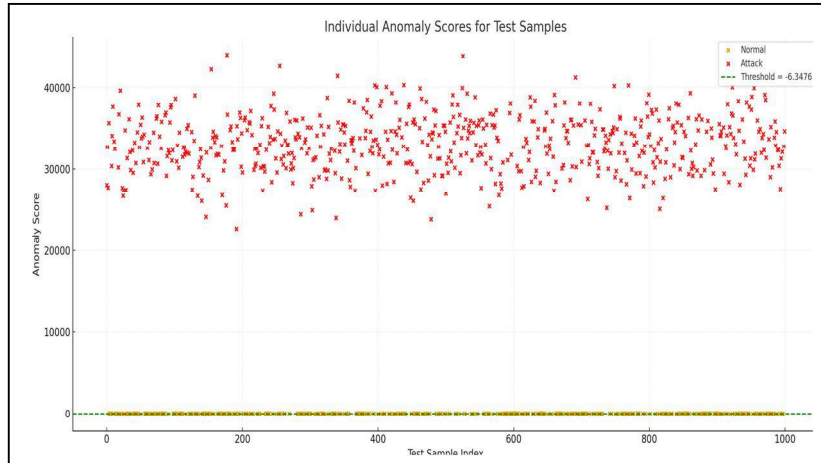


Fig. 2 Anomaly Score Distribution Plot.

The decision threshold τ was determined from the score distribution of benign samples. Samples whose anomaly score exceeded this threshold were classified as attacks. The clear separation between the two score distributions indicates the model's stability and robustness in distinguishing normal from abnormal behavior.

4. DISCUSSION

The experimental results demonstrate the effectiveness of the IoT-AnoGAN framework in detecting abnormal network behavior in heterogeneous IoT environments. The high accuracy and perfect recall achieved for attack detection indicate that the model successfully learns the normal operational patterns of each device and reliably identifies deviations. The clear separation between benign and malicious anomaly score distributions further supports the robustness of the proposed approach.

A notable strength of IoT-AnoGAN is its independence from labeled attack data, which is typically scarce, costly to annotate, and often outdated due to rapid evolution of IoT malware. By training exclusively on benign samples, the framework remains scalable and adaptable to different device types without requiring constant dataset updates. This characteristic positions IoT-AnoGAN as a promising solution for real-world IoT deployments, where device heterogeneity and dynamic traffic patterns make supervised IDS approaches less practical.

However, the framework also presents some limitations. Because the model is trained per device, deploying it at large scale may require additional optimization or model-sharing strategies to reduce computational overhead. Furthermore, while WGAN-GP stabilizes training, GAN-based methods remain sensitive to hyperparameters and may require careful tuning to achieve consistent performance across devices.

Future work should explore cross-device generalization, lightweight architectures for on-device inference, and integration with hybrid intrusion detection systems combining unsupervised and statistical approaches.

5. CONCLUSION

The proposed IoT-AnoGAN framework provides an effective unsupervised solution for detecting anomalous behavior in heterogeneous IoT environments by learning device-specific normal traffic patterns and identifying deviations through a combined reconstruction–discrimination scoring mechanism. Trained exclusively on benign data, the model overcomes the limitations of traditional and supervised intrusion detection systems that rely on attack signatures or large labeled datasets, which are often unavailable in real-world IoT deployments. Experimental results obtained using the N-BaIoT dataset show that IoT-AnoGAN achieves high accuracy, perfect recall for attack detection, and a clear separation between benign and malicious anomaly score distributions, demonstrating its robustness and reliability. The framework’s ability to adapt to device-level behavioral variations while maintaining strong detection performance highlights its relevance for securing dynamic, resource-constrained IoT networks and reinforces the potential of GAN-based approaches for advancing anomaly detection in complex cyber-physical systems.

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A QSD-Based Approach to Steganography

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Abstract: This paper presents a steganographic method based on Quasi-Square Decomposition (QSD), an integer decomposition technique used to embed secret data efficiently and securely within digital images. The cover image is decomposed into two components using QSD, and embedding positions are selected according to pixel-value conditions. The secret data are then inserted using the Least Significant Bit (LSB) method, producing visually imperceptible results. The method is evaluated using standard image quality metrics; Mean Squared Error (MSE), Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR), and Structural Similarity Index (SSIM) along with payload capacity and histogram analysis. Experimental results show that the proposed approach achieves high image fidelity, strong similarity between the cover and stego-images, and reliable data hiding performance.

Keywords: Data Security, Data Hiding, Steganography, QSD, LSB.

1. INTRODUCTION

Digital steganography is a technique that conceals information within multimedia signals, providing secure communication in the presence of cyberthreats. In image-based steganography, signal processing techniques are applied either in the spatial domain, directly modifying pixel values, or in the frequency domain, manipulating transform coefficients such as those from the Discrete Cosine Transform (DCT) or wavelet transforms [1]. Both approaches aim to maintain visual fidelity while embedding secret data. Effective methods must balance embedding capacity, imperceptibility, and robustness against detection or attacks.

Focusing on the spatial domain, many steganographic methods have been proposed, leveraging different embedding techniques such as Least Significant Bit (LSB) substitution [2], Pixel Value Differencing (PVD), Pixel Pair Matching (PPM), Gray Level Modification (GLM), histogram-based modifications, and others. These approaches directly manipulate pixel values to embed secret information, offering simplicity. Despite their diversity, spatial-domain methods often face challenges [3] in achieving an optimal trade-off between payload capacity, imperceptibility, and robustness against image processing operations and cyberattacks.

Motivated by the need for more structured and adaptive approaches, this paper proposes a steganographic framework based on Quasi-Square Decomposition (QSD), an integer decomposition technique. QSD serves as a structured analytical approach that decomposes the cover image into two components, providing a foundation for selecting optimal embedding positions according to pixel-value conditions. Secret data are then embedded using a conventional insertion technique such as Least Significant Bit (LSB) substitution within the spatial domain. By integrating structured decomposition with signal processing principles, the proposed method mitigates the risk of detection and ensures high visual and statistical fidelity, thereby providing a robust and promising framework against current cyberthreats.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 we review related works; Section 3 introduces the mathematical tools; Section 4 presents the proposed method; Section 5 reports experimental results; and Section 6 concludes the paper.

2. RELATED WORKS

In [4], the authors combine a chaotic bit-order shuffling of the secret message with adaptive LSB embedding, where embedding positions are optimized using a Genetic Algorithm (GA) to minimize visual distortion and preserve the statistical properties of the cover image. Experimental results claim improved image quality and preserved histogram/statistics compared to classical LSB embedding, but without any visual inspection. However, the reported PSNR of 32 dB is relatively modest. Moreover, the approach is more complex: embedding and extraction require precise GA settings, which can complicate implementation and increase computational cost.

In a different work [5], Tuama et al. propose a randomized selection of embedding pixels based on points on an elliptic curve, where the randomization is controlled by the parameters of the EC

equation. To further confound potential attackers, the method also embeds “noise bits” into unused pixels, forcing an attacker to guess not only which pixels carry real data but also their correct ordering. This approach significantly increases the difficulty of brute-force or pattern-based steganalysis. However, the insertion of noise bits also increases the number of modified pixels, which can degrade image quality, particularly under high payload conditions.

Authors in [6] embed secret data by selecting cover-image pixels at random using a PRNG and choosing random bit positions within each pixel's color channels for insertion. By distributing secret bits across random pixels and channels, the scheme achieves a higher payload than simple sequential LSB embedding, while the randomness makes it harder for an attacker to localize the embedded data. However, because insertion occurs in arbitrary bit positions, the method can introduce perceptible or statistical distortions at higher payloads, making it less suitable for embedding large secret sizes.

3. MATHEMATICAL TOOLS

3.1 QSD

Quasi-Square Decomposition (QSD) is an integer decomposition technique that serves as the primary computational tool in the development of the proposed steganography method.

Proposition

For each $A \in \mathbb{N}$, there exists a unique pair (x, y) such that $A = xy$, $x \leq y$, and $y - x$ is minimal [7].

4. PROPOSED ALGORITHM

4.1 Embedding Process.

Let M denote the secret image, C the cover image, and C^* the resulting stego-image. The embedding procedure is outlined in the following steps.

- **Vectorization:** Reshape the cover image C of size $n \times n$ into a one-dimensional vector V of length n^2 .
- **Quasi-Square Decomposition:** Apply QSD to V to obtain two vectors V_1 and V_2 .
- **Difference Calculation:** Compute the difference vector $D = V_2 - V_1$. Select the pixel positions where $D_i = 1$ or $D_i = 2$, yielding a set of k eligible positions, i.e., $\{D_i \mid i = 1, \dots, k\} = k$.
- **Secret Image Preparation:** Reshape the secret image M of size $m \times m$ into a binary vector W of length $l = 8m^2$ bits, ensuring $l \leq k$.
- **Embedding:** From V_2 , randomly select l pixels among the k eligible positions for data embedding. Insert the secret bits from W using the Least Significant Bit (LSB) substitution method, resulting in a modified vector V_2^* .
- **Stego-Image Generation:** Combine V_1 and V_2^* using the Schur product (denoted $\odot$) to obtain the stego-vector $V^* = V_1 \odot V_2^*$. Reshape V^* to reconstruct the final stego-image C^* .

4.2 Extraction Process.

The Extraction procedure is outlined in the following steps.

- **Vectorization:** Reshape the stego-image C^* of size $n \times n$ into a one-dimensional vector V^* of length n^2 .
- **Quasi-Square Decomposition:** Apply QSD to V^* to obtain two vectors V_1 and V_2^* .
- **Bit Extraction:** From the l selected pixel positions, extract the least significant bits (LSBs) from V_2^* . Group every eight bits to reconstruct the corresponding pixel intensity values.
- **Secret Recovery:** Reshape the reconstructed pixel values to recover the secret image M .

Remark.

Although the algorithm is described for grayscale images, the proposed method is general and can be extended to embed various types of data, including text, binary images, grayscale images, and colour images.

5. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

5.1 Visual Inspection.

A steganographic method is considered effective when the stego-image is visually indistinguishable from the original cover image.

As noted earlier, the proposed scheme is adaptable to different types of insertion techniques. Using the Lena image of size 512×512 as the cover and a binary image of size 128×128 as the secret, the embedding results are presented in “Fig. 1”. In “Fig. 2”, a grayscale image of size 128×128 is used as the secret and embedded into another grayscale image of size 1024×1024. The results demonstrate that the proposed method provides highly effective data concealment.



Fig. 1 Visual results of the embedding process: Binary secret (left), cover (middle), stego-image (right).



Fig. 2 Visual results of the embedding process: Grayscale secret (left), cover (middle), stego-image (right).

5.2 Similarity Analysis

Visual inspection offers qualitative assessment, whereas mathematical similarity metrics provide more reliable and objective evaluation.

1. Mean Squared Error (MSE)

$$MSE = \frac{1}{N^2} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^N (C(i,j) - C^*(i,j))^2$$

Where, $C(i,j)$ is the pixel value of the **original (cover) image** at position (i,j) , $C^*(i,j)$ is the pixel value of the **stego-image** and N^2 is the image size.

2. Peak Signal-to-Noise Ratio (PSNR)

$$PSNR = 10 \log_{10} \left(\frac{MAX^2}{MSE} \right)$$

Where, MAX is the maximum possible pixel value (255 for 8-bit images), and **MSE** is the Mean Squared Error between the original image and the stego-image.

3. Structural Similarity Index (SSIM)

$$SSIM(C, C^*) = \frac{((2 \mu_C \mu_{C^*} + C_1)(2 \sigma_{CC^*} + C_2))}{((\mu_C^2 + \mu_{C^*}^2 + C_1)(\sigma_C^2 + \sigma_{C^*}^2 + C_2))}$$

Where, μ_C, μ_{C^*} mean intensities of images C and C^* , $\sigma_C^2, \sigma_{C^*}^2$: variances, σ_{CC^*} : covariance and C_1, C_2 are stabilizing constants.

The obtained results are summarized in *Table 1*.

Table 1 SIMILARITY MEASUREMENT RESULTS

Cover Image	Size	Secret (bits)	MSE	PSNR	SSIM
Goldhill.tiff	512 × 512	16384 bits	2.6573	43.8864	0.9870
Lena.tiff		16384 bits	2.4466	44.2452	0.9814
Peppers.tiff		16384 bits	1.6576	45.9360	0.9883
Airplane.tiff	1024 × 1024	131072 bits	1.2923	47.0172	0.9898
Man.tiff		131072 bits	3.0355	43.3085	0.9842

5.3 Payload Capacity

Payload capacity refers to the maximum amount of data that can be hidden in a cover image. In the proposed method, the payload capacity of each cover image depends on its original pixel values, since the selection of embedding pixels follows a specific condition. The corresponding results are presented in *Table 2*.

Table 2 PAYLOAD CAPACITY

Cover Image	Size	Payload Capacity	Payload Percentage
Baboon.tiff	256 × 256	6665 bits	10.16%
Bird.tiff		5212 bits	07.95%
Cameraman.tiff		8639 bits	13.18%
Goldhill.tiff	512 × 512	26312 bits	10.03%
Lena.tiff		28971 bits	11.05%
Peppers.tiff		36818 bits	14.04%
Airplane.tiff	1024 × 1024	213642 bits	20.37%
Airport.tiff		121187 bits	11.55%
Man.tiff		145923 bits	13.91%

5.4 Histogram Analysis

Histogram analysis is used to examine the differences in pixel intensity distributions between the cover image and the stego-image. Ideally, the histogram of the stego-image should closely resemble that of the cover image. The results of this analysis are presented in “*Fig. 3*”.

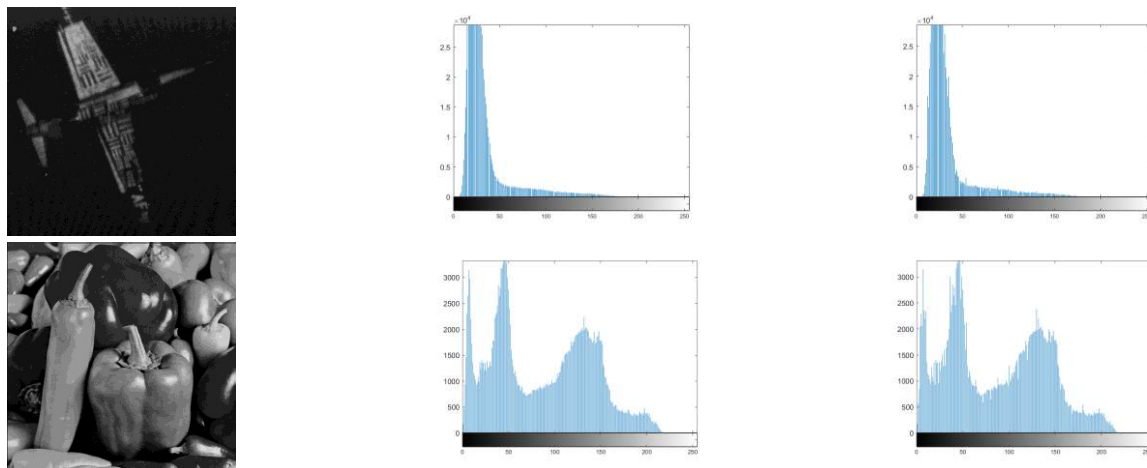


Fig. 3 Histogram comparison: cover image (left), cover histogram (middle), stego-image histogram (right).

6. CONCLUSION

This paper presented a Quasi-Square Decomposition (QSD)–based steganographic method for secure and efficient image data embedding. Exploiting the integer decomposition property of QSD, the algorithm selects optimal embedding positions and conceals secret data using the Least Significant Bit (LSB) technique. The method preserves visual quality while achieving good results in MSE, PSNR, SSIM, and payload capacity. Histogram analysis confirms that the stego-image closely matches the cover image, ensuring imperceptibility. Overall, the QSD-based approach offers an effective balance between capacity, imperceptibility, and simplicity, making it a promising solution for practical steganographic applications.

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RSU placement to maximize the coverage of congestion areas in the internet of vehicles

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Abstract: Due to several factors such as traffic jams, accidents, construction in certain areas, bad weather conditions, and special events, traffic is subject to congestion problems, which have been steadily increasing since 1950. Intelligent transportation systems have a range of applications in various fields, most notably traffic management. This paper proposes a plan of roadside units placement to reduce congestion and maintaining smooth traffic flow with a continuous connectivity by applying a greedy and NSGA2 algorithms, the results showed an effective congestion coverage rate and increased connectivity.

Keywords: connectivity probability, RSUs, congestion, NSGA2, greedy algorithm, IoV

1. INTRODUCTION

According to previously reported statistics provided by Global Traffic Scorecard[1], traffic congestion has reached extreme levels, negatively impacted traffic flow and caused numerous problems, including late arrivals for various events such as work, travel, and medical appointments. Several factors contribute to road congestion, including traffic accidents, weather conditions, special events, and bottlenecks as indicated in Fig. 1. To address this challenge, intelligent transportation systems have worked to find possible solutions by modifying and updating traffic management applications and improving the deployment of Internet of Vehicles (IoV) infrastructure, such as sensors and roadside units. This allows the continuous monitoring of traffic conditions by collecting and analyzing data. With the proliferation of artificial intelligence tools, this information is used as input for these algorithms to suggest possible solutions to the congestion problem[2].

Among the contributions of this paper are:

- Reducing the cost of deploying roadside units by applying vehicle-to-vehicle (V2V) and vehicle-to-infrastructure (V2I) communication types.
- Covering areas exposed to congestion problem with negligible lead time.
- Maintaining reliable and continuous communication by increasing the probability of connectivity.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows: in section 2 we have provided a short overview of Roadside unit placement in literature, then in section 3 we give the description of the problem with the system model, and how we have formulated the roadside unit placement to address the objectives. Section 4 shows the results and discusses them and section 5 summarizes the essence of the work.

2. RELATED WORKS

Identifying an appropriate solution for RSU deployment poses a significant challenge for experts in this domain. In [3], the authors aimed to enhance delay-sensitive applications by considering two communication types (V2I and V2V) and employing genetic algorithms to determine optimal placements.

The authors in [4] address the issue by modeling it as a 0-1 knapsack problem, utilizing centrality as value and cost as weight, focusing on intersections as candidate locations while disregarding

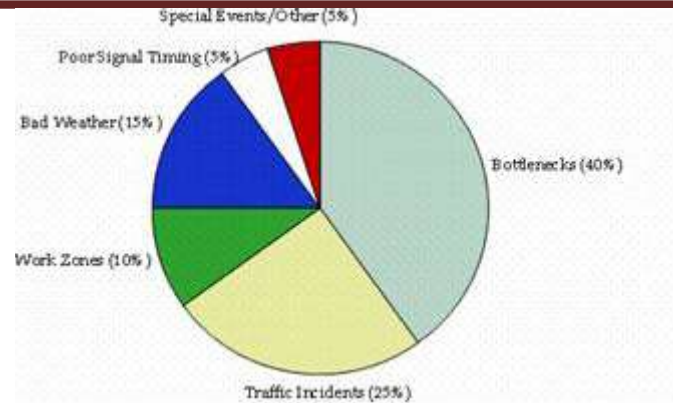


Fig. 1 Traffic congestion causes

remote areas. In [5], the objective is to minimize the number of RSUs for message dissemination within a bounded delay, selecting intersections as candidate positions based on traffic flow density, communication range, and length. Others in [6] observed that the effectiveness of RSUs in minimizing delay is achieved by situating them in road segments with low traffic flow to maximize coverage. The authors in [7] offer a geometric method known as Constrained Delaunay Triangulation (CDT), utilizing exclusively Vehicle-to-Infrastructure (V2I) communication, with Roadside Units (RSUs) positioned in various locations. In [8] To resolve the D1RD issue, the proposed solution involves an optimal algorithm known as OptDynLim at point with high profit density, to maximize the coverage area the authors in [9] use a hybrid genetic algorithm with local search replacement, a multi-objective roadside deployment model is presented in both of [10] and [11] to maximize the coverage based on overlapping area as factor and reduce the expected transmission delay with limited cost at intersection using V2V and V2I communication and choose NSGA2, memetic algorithm as optimization method respectively, for safety application with threshold delay the authors in [12] they divide the map in region of interest characterized by accident rate factor, in [13] using a genetic algorithm and relying in road-segment with big number of bus stop, high commercial activity and total accident as factors in order to reduce reception delay of safety message delivered from the vehicles, for applications operating in real-time that necessitate minimum latency and rapid data transmission speeds, in [14] they apply a mmwave technology beam antennas and define the issue as the Maximum Coverage under limited financial plan, aiming to optimize profit within the limits of a budget constraint, to ensure maximum coverage of high accident In [15], they utilize V2V and V2I communications and select road segments with low connectivity as optimal locations for deploying a fixed number of RSUs.

3. SYSTEM MODEL

Problem description

The congestion problem arises as a result of several factors mentioned in the previous section. It takes different locations in road sections and intersections, causing numerous problems such as increased air pollution, impact on production efficiency through delays and waiting in the tail, increased fuel consumption, the risk of rear-end collisions, increased emergency response time, drivers' anxiety, increased delays in public transportation, etc. In order to reduce the congestion problem in the vehicle network, we modeled the system as shown in Fig. 2. The locations chosen for deploying roadside units at intersections were close to locations with high congestion rates, with the condition of providing sufficient distance for implementing vehicle-to-infrastructure communication mode. This was done in order to reduce the duration of notifications while ensuring reliability and good communication in the network.

Problem formulation

In order to cover the largest number of accidents and increase the probability of communication at the same time, we chose an objective function that includes two sub objectives, as shown in Equation (1).

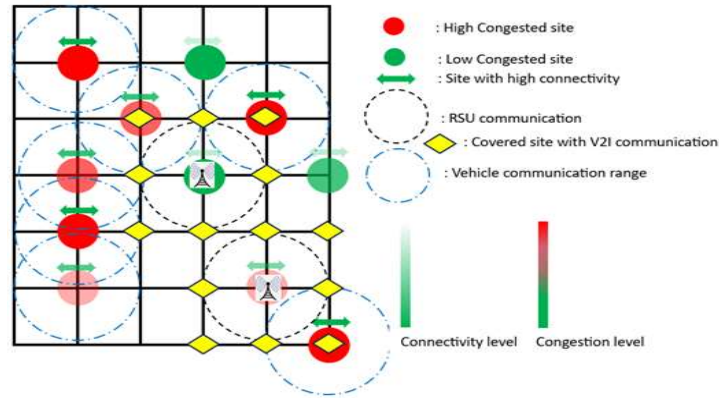


Fig. 2. System model for traffic congestion coverage

$$F = \max (F1+ F2) \quad (1)$$

The first objective is to maximize the network connectivity, for the second objective we want to maximize the coverage of traffic congestion in location with low connectivity, so we calculate the summation of congestion coverage ratio at the candidate site and its neighbors with condition that distance between candidate site and its neighbors do not be more than $2R$ where R represent the RSU and vehicle communication range.

Table 1. Simulation parameters

Variable	Notation	Value
Average Speed in segment i	S_i	0~28,96 m/s
Density in segment i	Dn_i	0~266,67v/km
Length of segment i	L_i	10 ~ 1469m
Communication range of vehicles and RSUs	R	250m
Population size	Pop	0 ~ 20000
Congestion rate at intersection i	Cng_i	0 ~ 15
Variable decision to deploy RSU i or not	x_i	0 - 1
Number of intersections	s	2974
Number of RSUs to deploy	K	15

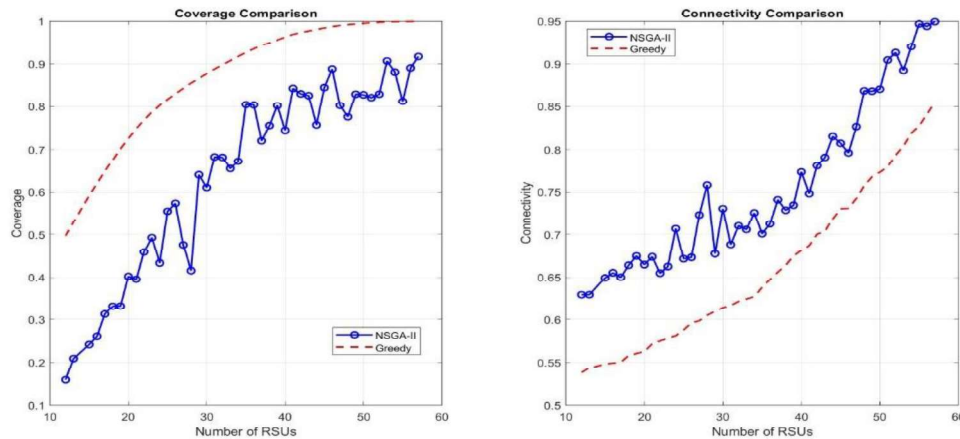


Fig. 3. Optimization results using NSGA2 and greedy algorithms

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

To evaluate our RSU placement model we have use two algorithms, the first one is the multi objective not sorted genetic algorithm NSGA2, the second algorithm sort all the sites by the coverage rate and then compute the objective function.

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From the results mentioned in fig3 we can see that the NSGA2 reach a not dominated set of solutions, so it balances between the objectives, while the greedy algorithm dominates on the congestion coverage objective, this confirms the effectiveness of the NSGA2 algorithm to explore the search space with best method.

5. Conclusion

In this paper, we model the deployment of roadside units to cover congestion-prone areas indirectly and in a negligible time, while maintaining good network connectivity. The results show that the NSGA2 algorithm can reaches best record score in objective function compared to the greedy algorithm.

Acknowledgment

This research was supported by the Algerian Ministry of Higher Education and Scientific Research, General Direction of Scientific Research and Technological Development [grant number C00L07UN310220230008].

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Graphical and Mathematical Formulation of the QoS-Aware IoT Service Composition Problem under QoS Uncertainty

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Abstract: The Quality of Service (QoS)-aware Internet of Things (IoT) Service Composition (QSC) problem, subject to global QoS-user constraints, is widely recognized as an NP-hard, constrained, and highly complex combinatorial multi-objective optimization challenge. In uncertain IoT environments, the QoS parameters of elementary services are often non-deterministic, exhibiting vague or imprecise values due to factors such as dynamic network architectures, communication congestion, and economic fluctuations. Consequently, addressing QoS uncertainty is essential when formulating the QSC problem in such environments. This short research paper presents both a graphical and mathematical formulation of the uncertain constrained multi-objective QSC problem in IoT systems and highlights promising research directions for further exploration.

Keywords: IoT service composition, QoS uncertainty, Uncertain IoT environments, Multi-objective optimization

1. INTRODUCTION

The Internet of Things (IoT) consists of interconnected smart devices that exchange information via the Internet. Each device exposes its functionality as an IoT service, which can be discovered and constructed to build user applications [1]. With the rapid proliferation of IoT services offering similar functions but differing in Quality of Service (QoS) attributes (e.g., reliability, response time, cost, availability), selecting suitable IoT services to meet overall application requirements has become a complex challenge. This challenge is commonly known as the QoS-aware Service Composition (QSC) problem in IoT environments [2].

The QSC problem has been widely investigated in various service-based domains, including cloud computing [3], cloud manufacturing [4], and the Internet of Things [2]. Its inherent complexity arises from its classification as an NP-hard problem [5], implying that the calculation of optimal solutions requires substantial time and resources. To address this challenge, researchers have proposed three main categories of optimization approaches for QSC: **(i) exact methods**, which guarantee optimal solutions; **(ii) heuristic methods**, which generate near-optimal solutions efficiently; and **(iii) metaheuristic methods**, which adopt advanced strategies to explore large and complex search spaces effectively.

- (i) In exact approaches, the QSC problem is typically modeled using integer or mixed-integer linear programming [6, 7]. These formulations express the problem through mathematical equations and aim to obtain optimal solutions, often solved using specialized optimization software such as CPLEX¹ and LpSolve². Although exact methods guarantee optimal solutions to the QSC problem, they become computationally expensive and impractical as the problem size and complexity increase.
- (ii) To mitigate this limitation, heuristic methods such as A* [8] and hill-climbing [9] have been employed. Although they do not guarantee optimality, heuristics can generate satisfactory solutions within short timeframes, making them suitable for time-sensitive scenarios. Unlike heuristics, which are problem-specific, metaheuristics provide more general high-level

¹ <https://www.ibm.com/products/ilog-cplex-optimization-studio/cplex-optimizer> (Accessed on 15 October 2025)

² <https://lpsolve.sourceforge.net/5.5/> (Accessed on 15 October 2025)

strategies applicable to diverse and large-scale optimization problems. Consequently, metaheuristic approaches have been extensively applied to QSC.

- (iii) Numerous metaheuristic algorithms have been adopted in both academia and industry to address the QSC problem, owing to their effectiveness in producing high-quality solutions for complex optimization tasks. Widely used methods include genetic algorithms [10], artificial bee colony [11], and fireworks algorithm [12], among others. These approaches are widely adopted for their ability to efficiently explore vast and complex search spaces without exhaustive evaluation.

Most existing research papers on QSC in the IoT have focused on crisp environments [2], where QoS parameters such as reliability, cost, and response time are assumed to be fixed and exact. In practice, however, QoS values in IoT systems are often uncertain or imprecise due to factors such as network topology changes, device mobility, system overload, or economic fluctuations [13]. To capture this uncertainty, several modeling approaches have been proposed:

- **Probabilistic models**, where QoS values are represented as random variables following known probability distributions [14];
- **Interval models**, where QoS values are specified as ranges with lower and upper bounds, which are often easier for decision-makers to define [15];
- **Fuzzy models**, where uncertainty is expressed through fuzzy sets or fuzzy numbers using membership functions to quantify degrees of imprecision [11].

As previously highlighted, in uncertain IoT environments, the QoS parameters of elementary IoT services are often non-deterministic, exhibiting vague or imprecise values due to factors such as dynamic network architectures, communication congestion, and economic policies. Consequently, QoS uncertainty must be explicitly incorporated into the formulation of the QSC problem in such contexts. The primary contribution of this work is the graphical and mathematical formulation of the QSC problem in uncertain IoT environments as a constrained multi-objective optimization problem, where QoS attributes are modeled as uncertain values.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows. Section 2 introduces the graphical and mathematical formulation of the QSC problem in IoT environments with uncertain QoS properties. Finally, Section 3 concludes the paper and highlights potential directions for future research.

2. GRAPHICAL AND MATHEMATICAL FORMULATION OF THE QSC PROBLEM IN IOT ENVIRONMENTS UNDER QOS UNCERTAINTY

Given a collection of IoT devices, each device (hereafter referred to simply as an IoT) can provide one or more functions, termed IoT services *srv*s. Each *srv* offered by an IoT is associated with a set of r QoS attributes (denoted as q_t , where $t = 1, 2, \dots, r$), such as response time, service price, availability, throughput, and security. These QoS attributes can be either beneficial or detrimental. For beneficial attributes (QoS^+), such as security, throughput, and availability, higher values indicate superior service quality, whereas lower values indicate inferior quality. Conversely, for detrimental attributes (QoS^-), such as response time and service price, lower values reflect superior service quality, while higher values reflect inferior quality. Multiple IoT devices may provide the same *srv* functionality but differ in their q_t values. Accordingly, services with identical functionality but distinct QoS values are grouped into a common service class, denoted as S . Each service class S , representing equivalent-function services, is associated with a specific task (T) that can be requested by an end-user and executed through the corresponding IoTs.

As illustrated in Fig. 1, which depicts the QSC problem in IoT environments, responding to a complex user request (**Input request**) requires aggregating multiple *srv*s from different service classes. The resulting solution must satisfy the global QoS user constraints (denoted as Cst_{q_k} s, where $k \leq r$), which represent the set of global QoS requirements. To this end, an IoT Workflow

Process (*IWP*) is employed, consisting of a sequence of n distinct tasks T_i , where $i \in \{1, 2, \dots, n\}$. These tasks collectively define a composite IoT service (*CS*) designed to fulfill the user's request (**Response request**).

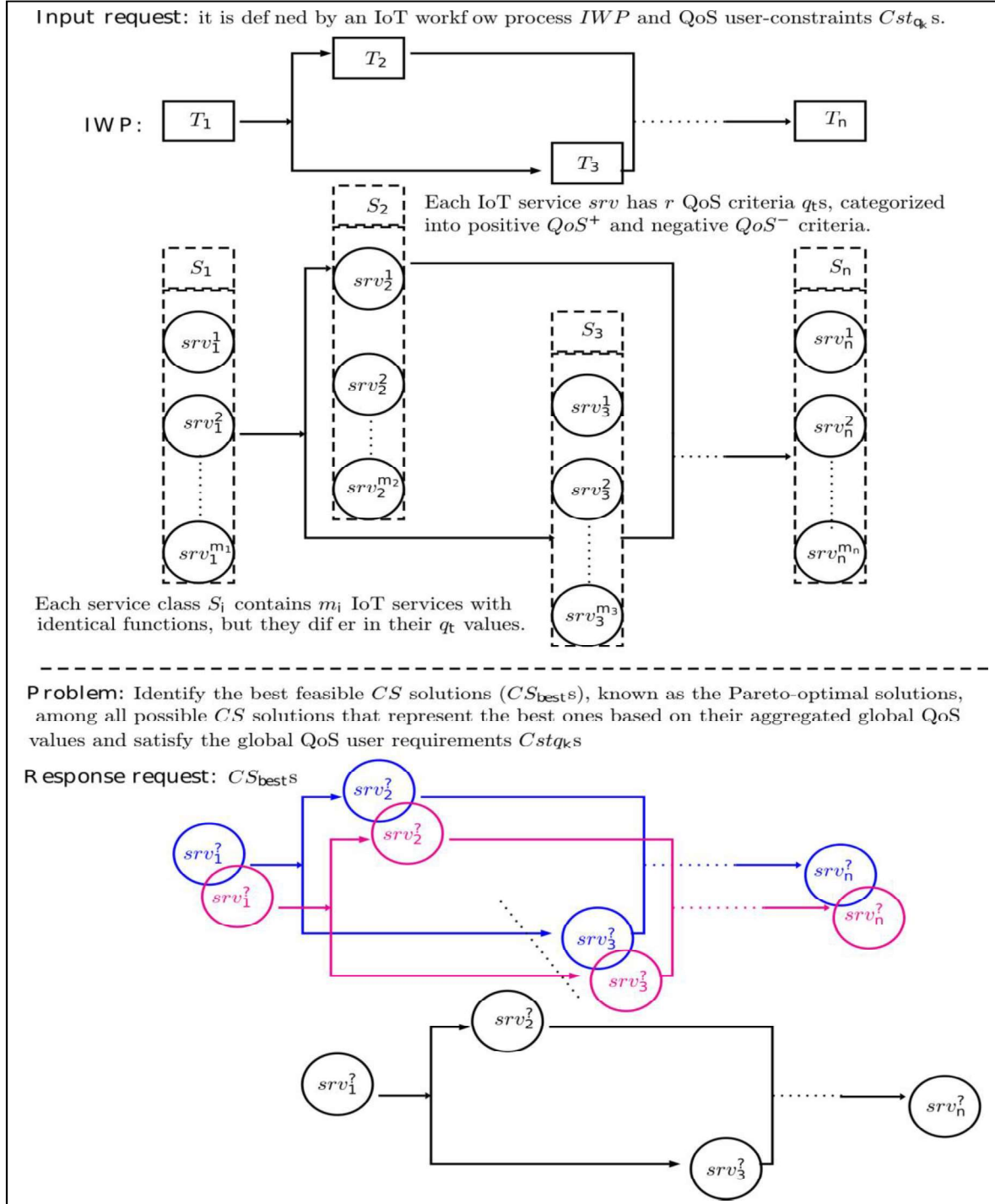


Fig. 1 Conceptual overview of the multi-objective QSC optimization problem in IoT environments.

Constructing a *CS* involves selecting exactly one srv_i^j from each service class S_i , where $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ and $j \in \{1, 2, \dots, m_i\}$, with m_i denoting the number of equivalent-function *srv*s available

in S_i . The selected srv_i^j s are then composed into the CS through four basic workflow structures: sequential, parallel, branching, and cyclic compositions (see Fig. 2). Given the exponential growth in the number of possible CS combinations (e.g., a sequential IWP of six tasks, each with four candidate srv s, yields 4096 potential CS solutions), the central challenge is to identify the most effective feasible solutions (CS_{best} s), defined as the Pareto-optimal set. These solutions simultaneously optimize aggregated global QoS values while satisfying all global QoS constraints Cst_{q_k} s. This formulation has been proven to constitute an NP-hard multi-objective optimization problem [11].

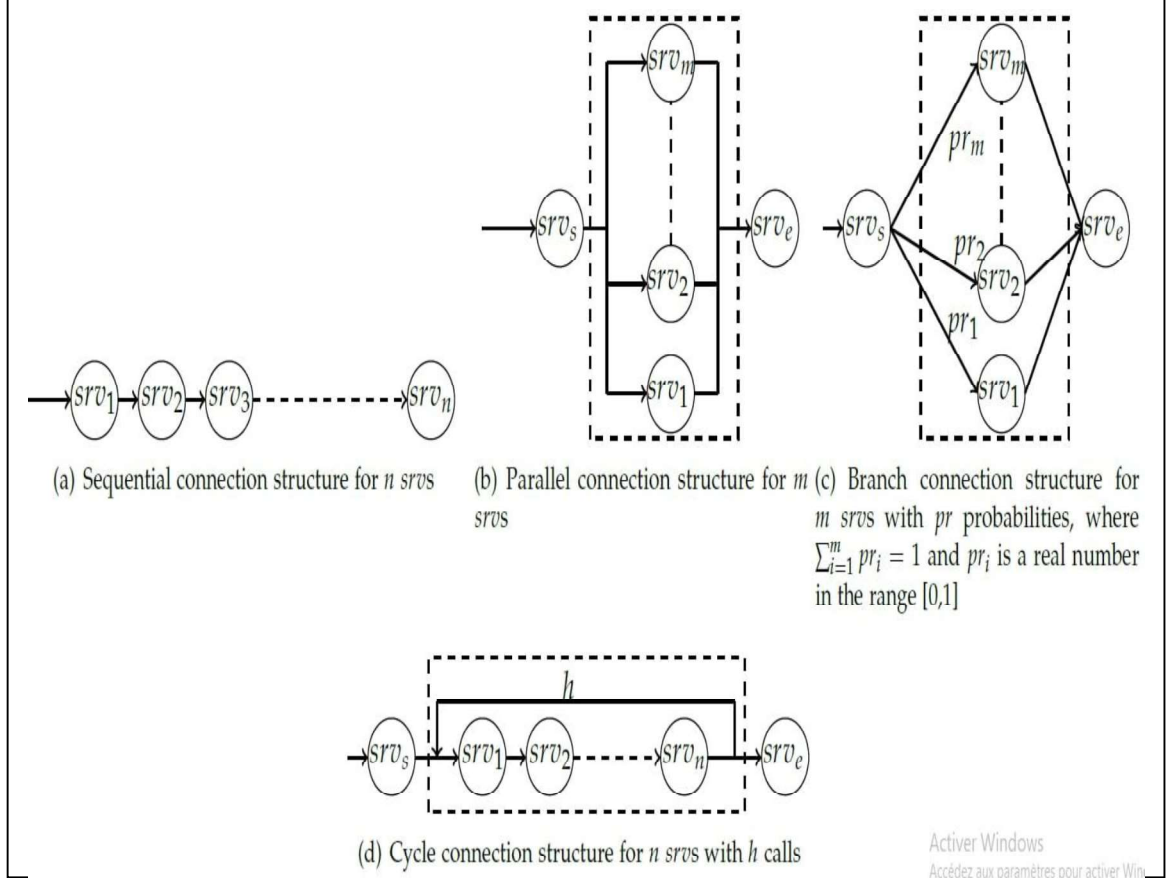


Fig. 2 The most widely used composition structures for constructing CS s.

Due to diverse environmental factors in IoT ecosystems, such as variations in network architectures, communication congestion, and economic policies, the advertised QoS values of srv s are often subject to fluctuations [10]. To address this variability, ambiguity in QoS values is explicitly incorporated into the formulation of the QSC problem in IoT environments. Accordingly, the constrained **Multi-Objective** formulation of the **QSC** problem under QoS **Uncertainty** in IoT environments, hereafter referred to as **MOQSCU**, is defined as follows:

$$\forall t = 1, 2, \dots, r \begin{cases} \text{Maximize: } \widetilde{CS}_{q_t} & \text{if } q_t \in QoS^+ \\ \text{Minimize: } \widetilde{CS}_{q_t} & \text{if } q_t \in QoS^- \end{cases}$$

$$s. t: \forall h = 1, 2, \dots, k \begin{cases} \widetilde{CS}_{q_h} \geq_{\max} \widetilde{Cst}_{q_h} & \text{if } q_h \in QoS^+ \\ \widetilde{CS}_{q_h} \leq_{\min} \widetilde{Cst}_{q_h} & \text{if } q_h \in QoS^- \end{cases}$$

In this formulation, $\widetilde{CS}_{q_t}$ denotes the global uncertain QoS value of a CS solution with respect to attribute q_t . This value is obtained by applying appropriate uncertain aggregation functions to the

QoS values of the selected IoT services $srvs$ for attribute q_i , in accordance with the composition structures of the constructed CS . Similarly, $\widetilde{Cst}_{q_h}$ denotes the uncertain QoS constraint specified by the user request for attribute q_i . The symbols $\geq_{max}$ and $\leq_{min}$ represent the uncertain greater-than-or-equal-to and less-than-or-equal-to ranking operators, respectively.

3. CONCLUSION

In IoT systems, the QoS parameters of elementary IoT services are often uncertain or imprecise due to factors such as network topology changes, device mobility, system overload, or economic fluctuations. Consequently, the QoS-aware Service Composition (QSC) problem, subject to global QoS user constraints in uncertain IoT environments, is graphically and mathematically formulated as a constrained **Multi-Objective QSC** problem under QoS Uncertainty (MOQSCU).

Since MOQSCU is a mathematical optimization model characterized by uncertainty in both its objectives and constraints, the goal is to identify Pareto-optimal solutions that maximize the uncertain QoS value of a CS solution with respect to attribute q_i , $\widetilde{Cst}_{q_i}$, for beneficial parameters (QoS^+) and minimize it for detrimental attributes (QoS^-). Solving this NP-hard constrained multi-objective optimization problem under QoS uncertainty typically requires intelligent and evolutionary optimization algorithms. Therefore, the development of efficient and robust optimization approaches to address MOQSCU represents a promising research direction and serves as the main motivation for this study.

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Enhanced Modulation Format Identification for 30 Gbaud DP-16QAM Coherent Optical Systems using Multi-Feature Hybrid Neural Networks

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Abstract:

The relentless demand for higher data rates in optical networks intensifies the impact of channel impairments, particularly inter-symbol interference (ISI). This work investigates a machine learning-based approach to nonlinear channel equalization by framing the problem as a symbol classification task. We propose a novel dual Artificial Neural Network (ANN) architecture designed for a Dual polarization 16-Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (DP-16-QAM) system, which decouples the complex-valued classification problem into two more efficient, real-valued sub-problems. One ANN classifies the in-phase component, while the other classifies the quadrature component. Trained and validated on a dataset of over 50,000 noisy symbols, our model demonstrates the viability of ANN-based equalizers, achieving a final symbol classification accuracy of 97.5% on a held-out test set.

Keywords: Machine Learning, Neural Networks, DP-16-QAM, Optical Communications, Channel Equalization, Digital Signal Processing.

1. INTRODUCTION

The evolution towards high-speed optical communication systems is fundamentally constrained by physical layer impairments. Dispersion-induced Inter-Symbol Interference (ISI) remains a principal bottleneck, causing pulse broadening that leads to decision errors at the receiver. While conventional digital signal processing (DSP) techniques exist for equalization, their linear nature often struggles with the complex, nonlinear distortions present in high-bandwidth systems. [1]-[3]

QAM Modulation is a foundational digital modulation scheme in modern telecommunications. It transmits information by modulating the amplitude of two carrier waves that are identical in frequency but separated in phase by 90 degrees (a state known as quadrature). These two components—the In-phase (I) and Quadrature (Q) carriers—are individually amplitude-modulated with data. The resulting signals are then summed to produce the final QAM signal. This process is mathematically equivalent to varying both the amplitude and phase of a single carrier wave, making it a highly efficient method for encoding data. [4]-[6]

This paper explores an alternative paradigm: leveraging machine learning to create an intelligent, adaptive equalizer. We focus on the DP-16-Quadrature Amplitude Modulation (DP-16-QAM) scheme, a cornerstone of modern high-spectral-efficiency transmission. The core of our method is to reinterpret the demodulator's task as a 16-class classification problem, where each received sample must be assigned to its originally transmitted constellation point.

Our primary contribution is a dedicated dual-ANN architecture that strategically decomposes the DP-16-QAM classification task. By separately processing the in-phase (I) and quadrature (Q) components of the received signal, we significantly reduce model complexity compared to a monolithic classifier. This work evaluates the performance of this architecture, analyzes its failure modes, and provides clear directions for future research to mature this technology for real-world deployment.

2. SYSTEM MODEL AND RESULTS

In a typical DP-16-QAM system, data is encoded onto the amplitude of two orthogonal carriers, resulting in a constellation of 16 complex symbols. After transmission through an optical channel subject to dispersion and noise, the received symbols are displaced from their ideal locations, as visualized in the constellation diagram in Figure 1. The challenge for the receiver is to correctly classify these distorted symbols amidst the overlapping clouds of ISI.

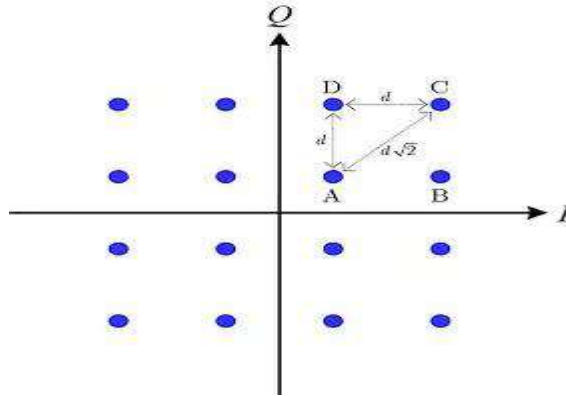


Fig. 1. Constellation diagram for 16-QAM ideal signal.

To address the challenge of Inter-Symbol Interference in optical fiber, this work explores machine learning (ML) as a solution for accurate symbol demodulation. Our goal was to develop an ML-based method that compensates for ISI and decodes transmitted symbols directly from the receiver's noisy samples. [7]

Artificial Neural Networks (ANNs) [8] are computing systems inspired by the brain. Rather than being a single algorithm, an ANN is a framework that allows various machine learning algorithms to process complex data. They learn to perform tasks by analyzing examples, eliminating the need for task-specific programming. This is achieved through interconnected layers of neurons that collectively extract patterns from the data they process. The transmitted data, represented by the constellation diagram in Figure 2, was used to train and evaluate our model.

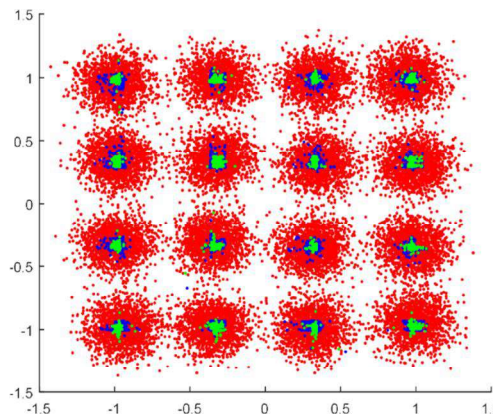


Fig. 2 Constellation diagram for rectangular DP-16QAM transmitted (blue, green) and received (red) symbols.

This learning process involves a standard of wrong and right that each neuron follows as is given by a cost function as shown in Figure 3.

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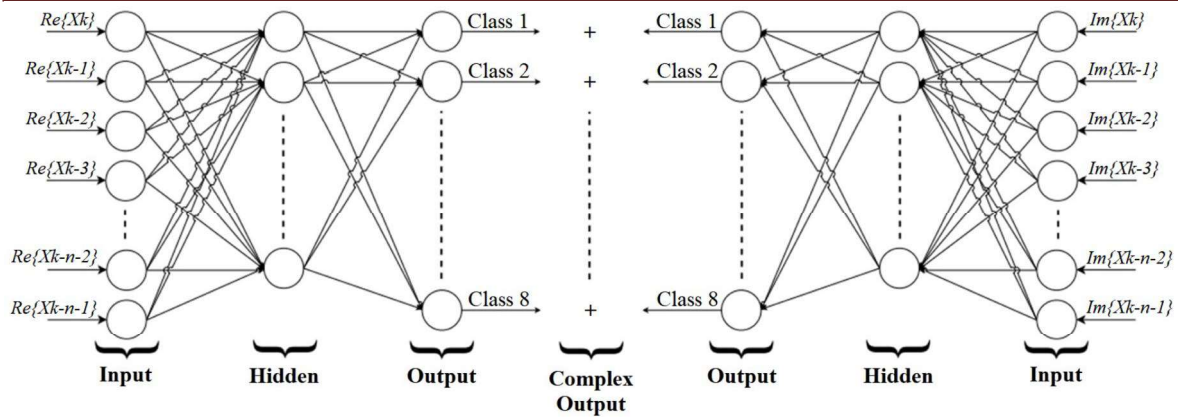


Fig. 3 Visual representation of the ANNs.

Table 1 COMBINATIONS OF HYPERPARAMETERS

Features	Lambda (λ)	ANN Neurons	Epochs
1	0.0	10	100
2	0.0	10	100
3	0.0	10	100
4	0.0	10	100
1	0.3	10	100
2	0.3	10	100
3	0.3	10	100
4	0.3	10	100

Table 2 PERFORMANCE OF THE SYSTEM'S
FINAL VERSION IN %

Real Accuracy	Imaginary Accuracy	Total Accuracy
94.28	93.45	92.17
95.12	94.83	93.65
96.34	95.27	94.88
97.05	96.42	95.76
93.67	92.89	91.54
94.91	94.15	93.02
95.78	95.03	94.21
96.56	95.87	95.09

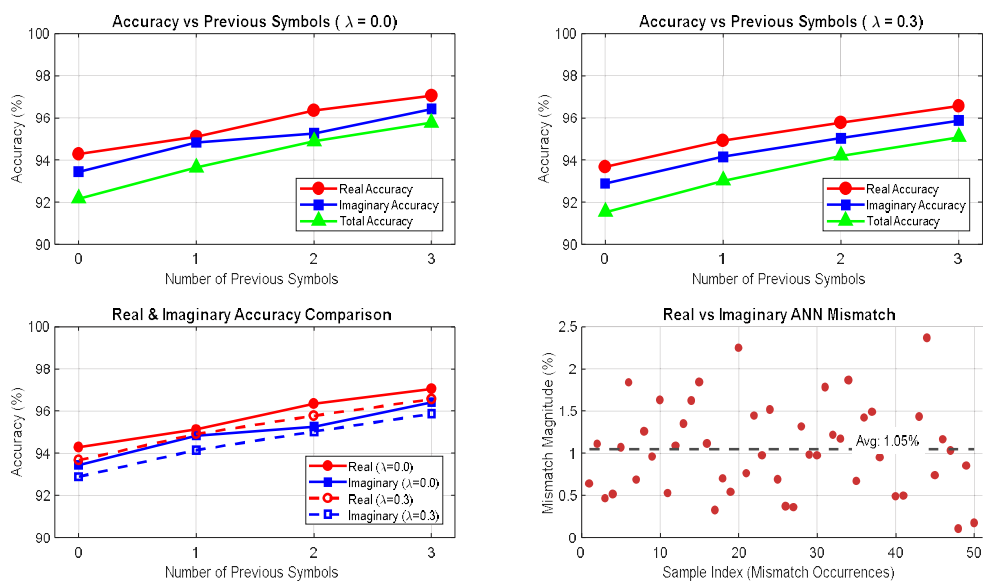


Fig. 4 The system performance analysis results.

After training the ANNs for each hyperparameter combination and evaluating their performance, several key conclusions emerged. The most significant finding relates to our core research premise regarding feature selection. Analysis of the accuracy trends reveals that incorporating historical symbol context provides only marginal benefits. While increasing the number of previous symbols from 0 to 3 does improve Real Accuracy from 94.28% to 97.05% and Imaginary Accuracy from 93.45% to 96.42% for $\lambda=0.0$, these gains of 2-3 percentage points suggest that temporal dependencies between symbols in the optical channel are relatively weak. The models achieve robust performance of approximately 95% accuracy even without extensive historical context, indicating that the current symbol's characteristics dominate the classification outcome.

Another important observation concerns the regularization effects, where models with $\lambda=0.0$ consistently outperform their $\lambda=0.3$ counterparts by approximately 0.5-0.7 percentage points across all feature configurations. This consistent pattern indicates that the ANN architectures maintain sufficient generalization capability without heavy regularization for this particular symbol detection task. Furthermore, a persistent performance gap exists between real and imaginary component predictions, with real component ANNs consistently achieving higher accuracy (96-97% range) compared to imaginary components (95-96% range), suggesting inherent differences in the detection complexity between the two signal components.

The most critical finding, however, emerges from the significant discrepancy between individual component accuracy and overall system performance. Despite achieving high individual accuracies of 96-97% for real components and 95-96% for imaginary components, the combined total accuracy drops to the 92-96% range. This 3-5 percentage point reduction stems from prediction mismatches between the two ANNs, where correct predictions by one network do not guarantee simultaneous correct predictions by the other. This misalignment phenomenon, clearly visible in mismatch analysis, represents the fundamental limitation in our approach and explains why the system's overall performance remains below the theoretical maximum suggested by individual component accuracies.

3. CONCLUSION

Our results confirm ANNs' effectiveness in combating ISI, achieving component accuracies above 96%. However, the fundamental challenge lies in prediction mismatches between real and imaginary networks, which reduce overall system performance by 3-5%. This mismatch phenomenon represents the critical bottleneck in achieving optimal symbol detection accuracy, pointing to coordinated neural architectures as the essential direction for future research.

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Proactive Safety of Connected Vehicles in Smart Cities Using AI-Based Micro-Digital Twins

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Abstract: Smart cities are still very hard to keep safe for connected cars because they are so complicated and hard to predict. Most of the time, vehicles use reactive frameworks, which means they find problems and then respond. This can cause delays. We introduce a proactive safety framework employing AI-driven micro-digital twins in this paper. Every connected car makes a simple virtual copy of its surroundings and route. The micro-twin uses AI to make real-time simulations of different situations, like when you talk to other cars that are close by, change lanes, or brake. After that, the car chooses the safest path and follows it in real life. This proactive mechanism changes how we think about safety from waiting for problems to happen to making choices that will keep them from happening in the first place. This makes it less likely that accidents and dangerous moves will happen. Finally, we talk about possible issues, like how quickly computers can work, how micro-twins can talk to each other, and how well the system can grow in a big smart city.

Keywords: Digital Twin (DT), Artificial Intelligence (AI), Smart Cities (SC), Real-Time Simulation.

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the rapid growth of Connected and Autonomous Vehicles (CAVs) has reshaped modern transportation systems, enabling the emergence of smart cities where vehicles, infrastructures, and users interact intelligently through Vehicle-to-Everything (V2X) communication technologies [1], [2]. These systems promise more comfort, less traffic, and safer road. But one of the biggest problems is still making sure that intelligent transportation systems (ITS) are safe and reliable in these very changing environments. But one of the biggest problems is still making sure that intelligent transportation systems (ITS) are safe and reliable in these very changing environments.

Most existing safety frameworks are reactive, meaning that vehicles first detect a risk such as a collision, abnormal trajectory, or sensor malfunction and only then take corrective actions, such as braking, rerouting, or alerting nearby agents [3]. This method can stop some events from happening, but it is still limited by how long it takes to react and how well it can predict what will happen next. In complicated cities, even a small delay in response can cause a chain reaction of failures or accidents involving more than one vehicle [4].

To overcome these limitations, we propose a proactive AI-based safety framework where connected vehicles rely on micro-digital twins to simulate their immediate environment in real time. There is a light digital copy of each car that uses AI and predictive modeling to guess what will happen if you speed up, slow down, or change lanes. [5]. This mechanism allows the vehicle to select the safest maneuver before execution, turning the safety process from reactive to preventive.

The aim of this approach is to link decisions made through simulation with the real-time awareness of vehicles, forming a basis for predictive safety systems in the smart cities of the future. [6] [7].

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: **Section 2** reviews recent advances in AI-based safety and Digital Twin technologies for connected vehicles. **Section 3** introduces the proposed micro-Digital Twin framework and its predictive AI architecture. **Section 4** illustrates a conceptual case study demonstrating its operation in a complex urban scenario. **Section 5** discusses key challenges and future perspectives, while **Section 6** concludes with the main findings and implications for proactive safety in smart mobility systems.

2. RELATED WORK

1) Artificial Intelligence for Safety in Connected Vehicles

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Artificial Intelligence (AI) is widely used to improve the safety of connected and autonomous vehicles, with models like CNNs and LSTMs helping detect anomalies and predict risks.[3] [9]. However, most current approaches act only after a problem is detected, rather than preventing it in advance.

2) *Digital Twins in Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITS)*

Digital Twin (DT technology is also used in smart transportation to support real-time simulation and coordinated traffic control [10]. Yet, these Digital Twins are usually deployed at the cloud or infrastructure level, which introduces delays and makes them less suitable for fast [11, 12] on-board safety decisions within individual vehicles.

Table 1 Comparative Summary of Recent Research on AI and Digital Twin Applications for Vehicle Safety.

references	Focus Area	Methodology / Framework	Main Contribution	Limitations
[8] [9]	AI-based anomaly detection and safety assurance in Connected and Autonomous Vehicles (CAVs)	Deep learning models (CNN, LSTM) and AI validation frameworks for anomaly detection and system reliability.	Enhanced risk prediction and anomaly detection using deep learning and safety validation frameworks.	Predominantly reactive; lack predictive or embedded AI for real-time prevention.
[10] [11]	Digital Twin frameworks in Intelligent Transportation Systems (ITS)	Systematic and conceptual DT frameworks integrating IoT and V2X communications.	Defined DT architectures for traffic optimization and cooperative urban mobility.	Focused on infrastructure-level DTs; lack of vehicle-level implementation.
[12] [13]	DT-assisted intelligent vehicle systems and edge computing	DT-enabled vehicular edge processing and task offloading mechanisms.	Better latency, coordination, and use of resources in systems that are connected.	Dependence on edge/cloud computation; no real-time, on-board micro-DTs.
[14] [15]	AI–DT hybrid frameworks for transportation safety and sustainability	Hybrid models combining AI prediction with DT simulation and data fusion.	Enhanced safety evaluation and decision-making through AI–DT integration.	Needs high processing capacity, which limits its use in real-time or on embedded systems.

3) *Lack of Embedded Micro-Digital Twins*

Even though safety systems and Digital Twin technology have come a long way, cars still don't have their own small, on-board Digital Twins that can help them make quick decisions to avoid problems. Most Digital Twin setups these days use cloud or edge processing, which can cause delays[13]. Putting a small micro-Digital Twin in each vehicle would let it plan moves ahead of time instead of waiting until risks show up. This work suggests an on-board framework that will help people make decisions quickly and make smart urban mobility safer.

As summarized in Table 1, recent studies have mainly focused on infrastructure-level Digital Twin systems and reactive AI safety models, leaving the concept of proactive, on-board micro-Digital Twins largely unexplored.

3. Proposed Framework

The proposed system introduces a proactive AI-based micro-Digital Twin (μ -DT) embedded directly within each connected vehicle. Unlike conventional Digital Twin (DT) systems that rely on cloud or edge computing, the μ -DT operates locally, allowing the vehicle to simulate, predict, and decide in real time without latency.

1) *Embedded Micro-Digital Twin Concept*

The micro-Digital Twin (μ -DT) is a small, vehicle-integrated model that mirrors the vehicle's state using onboard data and V2X communication. It can quickly test possible driving actions to evaluate their safety before they occur. Because these simulations run locally, vehicles can make real-time preventive decisions without relying on cloud or edge systems, enabling coordinated and risk-aware driving across the network.

2) *Predictive AI Layer*

A hybrid AI module combining Neural Networks and Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS) powers the μ -DT. Neural networks analyze patterns and estimate environmental risk, while MCTS explores multiple possible trajectories and their safety probabilities. This allows the system to anticipate dangerous situations in advance, shifting the approach from reacting to incidents to preventing them beforehand.

3) Proactive Decision-Making Process

The decision layer integrates outputs from the predictive AI model to determine the optimal safety strategy at any given moment.

The process operates in three main stages:

1. Perception Phase: Real-time sensor data are gathered from the vehicle and nearby infrastructure.
2. Simulation Phase: The μ -DT runs multiple short-term predictive simulations via AI models to test alternative actions.
3. Decision Phase: The system selects the trajectory or maneuver with the highest safety probability and executes it proactively.

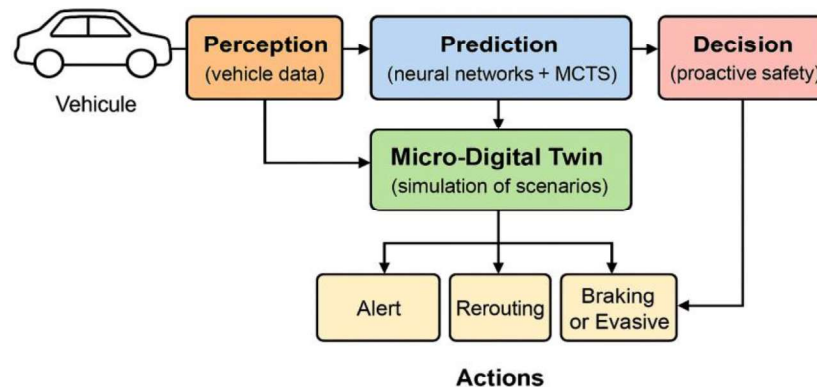


Figure 1 : Architecture of the Proposed AI-Based Micro-Digital Twin Framework for Connected Vehicles

By shifting from reactive control to proactive anticipation, the proposed framework significantly reduces the decision latency that often causes collisions or near-miss situations in connected driving environments. The Figure 1 illustrates the architecture of the proposed micro-Digital Twin framework integrated into connected vehicles.

4) Integration within Smart City Infrastructure

While primarily vehicle-centric, the framework allows cooperation with edge and cloud layers. Local simulations enhance collective traffic awareness, while cloud intelligence provides model updates for global optimization.

4. Case Example

In a complex urban intersection, each connected vehicle uses its micro-Digital Twin (μ -DT) to run real-time simulations of possible maneuvers such as braking, lane changing, or maintaining speed. By combining sensor data (LiDAR, radar, cameras) with predictive AI algorithms like neural networks and Monte Carlo Tree Search (MCTS), the μ -DT evaluates collision risks and trajectory

safety within milliseconds. The vehicle then proactively selects the safest option before acting, demonstrating the framework's ability to deliver local, predictive safety intelligence in dense traffic.

5. Challenges and Perspectives

Despite its promise, implementing μ -DTs at scale faces key challenges. On-board computation remains limited for continuous AI simulation, demanding more efficient processors such as neuromorphic or quantum-inspired chips. Inter-vehicle communication must ensure coherent decisions among multiple μ -DTs without overloading V2X networks, requiring lightweight synchronization protocols. Additionally, scalability across city-wide networks calls for federated simulation architectures to coordinate thousands of vehicles while maintaining autonomy and privacy.

6. Conclusion

The proposed AI-based micro-Digital Twin framework establishes a shift from reactive to proactive safety in connected vehicles. By allowing each vehicle to predict and simulate actions before execution, it enhances real-time decision-making and collision prevention. Beyond individual safety, this distributed intelligence supports a preventive safety ecosystem for Smart Cities marking a step toward self-aware, adaptive urban mobility.

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A Mobility-Aware Quantum–Blockchain Framework for Fog Service Placement

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Abstract: Fog Computing has difficulties when users move, and there are also trust concerns and challenges in placing services near the edge. These factors can create instability and performance drops in large IoT networks. To address these problems, we propose a framework that uses mobility prediction, a quantum step to choose where to place services, and a Blockchain step to record and verify the decision. The framework has three parts. The first part predicts movement. The second part selects where to place the service. The third part checks and confirms the decision. The aim is to reduce service breaks when users move, make decisions faster, and keep a trace of how the placement was made. A small **QAOA-based** simulation confirms that the approach can produce valid placements with low latency and without exceeding node capacities. These initial results indicate that the framework can adapt to changing conditions and remain stable when the system varies. Future work will extend testing to real mobility traces and quantum hardware. Putting these three layers together allows the system to make coordinated decisions even when users move, which sets this approach apart from the usual placement methods.

Keywords: Fog Computing, Service Placement, Quantum Optimization, Blockchain Trust, User Mobility.

1. INTRODUCTION

Fog Computing places resources closer to users. This reduces delay and gives more control over IoT services [1]. When users move, service placement becomes unstable and more difficult to manage [2]. Many current solutions are still static or react too late when mobility happens. This causes service interruptions and longer delays [3]. In smart cities, connected vehicles, and e-health, service continuity affects how users experience the system and their safety. Another issue is trust. Fog environments are distributed and involve different actors. Without verification, placement decisions can fail or face security issues [4]. This makes reliability difficult to ensure.

Some works handle mobility and others handle trust, but very few address them together [1], [2], [4]. Most of them do not use any form of fast optimization to support decision-making. This gap motivates the development of a new theoretical approach.

The framework puts together mobility awareness for tracking movement, a quantum step to choose where to place services, and a **Blockchain** part to record and check the decision. It is designed to react faster and keep decisions transparent. This work proposes the framework and provides an initial validation through a **QAOA-based** service placement experiment in a small fog environment. The experiment shows that **QAOA** was able to find a valid placement with low latency (**2.5 ms**) and without exceeding node capacities, which confirms the practical feasibility of the approach.

2. BACKGROUND AND LIMITATIONS OF EXISTING APPROACHES

Research on IoT service placement in Fog computing follows three main directions. AI-based methods adjust service distribution but do not include real security or validation [5]. Blockchain-based methods bring trust and transparency but create extra processing and ignore mobility [4]. Quantum methods give fast results but are mainly used in fixed cases [3], [6]. No work covers mobility, delay, and security at the same time [1], [2] [7]. This gap is the reason for proposing a new framework.

3. Proposed MQBRL Framework

The **M**obility-aware **Q**uantum **B**lockchain **R**einforcement **L**ayered (**MQBRL**) framework focuses on three problems. The framework targets three main issues in fog computing: mobility, slow decision-making, and lack of trust. It is built with three connected layers. Each layer has a role, and they work together for service placement.

- **Mobility Prediction Layer:** This part deals with mobility. It looks at movement patterns to predict changes before they happen. The idea is to avoid service breaks and long delays by placing services in advance [1].
- **Quantum Decision Layer:** After mobility is predicted, the placement is optimized. Quantum-inspired methods help make decisions faster and more efficiently than the usual methods [3], [6].
- **Blockchain Validation Layer:** When the decision is made, it is recorded and verified through blockchain. This gives transparency and trust without using a central authority [4].

The three layers follow a simple flow. Prediction gives input to decision, and decision is logged by Blockchain. This structure makes the framework flexible and easier to scale. The role of each layer is summarized in **Table 1**.

Table 1.Functional Layers of the Proposed Architecture

Layer	Function	Contribution
Mobility prediction	Anticipate device movement	Reduces service interruption
Quantum decision	Optimize placement	Speeds up decision process
Blockchain validation	Secure and verify placement	Improves trust and traceability

4. Theoretical Advantages of MQBRL

Conventional fog placement reacts after mobility events, leading to delays and instability. **MQBRL** anticipates mobility, speeds up decisions through quantum-inspired methods, and builds trust with blockchain. It is more adaptable, clearer to verify, and more stable than the existing methods.

The comparison in **Table 2** highlights that existing approaches address parts of the problem, but none combines mobility prediction, fast optimization, and decentralized trust in a unified structure.

Table 2. Comparative Analysis between Conventional and **MQBRL** Approaches

Dimension	Conventional Approaches	MQBRL Framework	Reference
Mobility management	Reactive, post-mobility handling	Predictive, mobility-aware placement	[1], [2], [7]
Decision speed	Limited by classical optimization	Accelerated through quantum-inspired optimization	[3], [6]
Security and trust	Weak or centralized	Distributed and transparent with blockchain	[4], [5]
Real-time adaptability	Restricted	Context-aware and dynamic	[1], [3], [4]
Traceability and auditability	Rarely integrated	Built-in blockchain logging	[4]
Resilience	Vulnerable to single points of failure	Distributed and verifiable	[1], [4], [6]

5. Results and Discussion

Three nodes (**N0**, **N1**, **N2**) and two services (**S0**, **S1**) were used in the test. The placement problem was written as a **QUBO** and solved with **QAOA**. Six qubits were used to represent the binary decision variables, with two **QAOA** layers and the **COBYLA** optimizer running on a local quantum simulator (**8192 shots**).

The optimization process converged to the following placement configuration:

S0 → Node 0, S1 → Node 1

The total latency obtained for this allocation was **2.5 ms**, and both assignment and capacity constraints were satisfied. The objective value was **-57.50**, which shows that the cost was minimized. The resource utilization levels were:

Node 0: 1.0/2.0, Node 1: 1.0/1.0, Node 2: 0.0/1.0

The resulting placement is illustrated in **Figure 1**. This result shows that the algorithm selected the nodes offering the lowest communication delay while respecting capacity limits. The fact that Node 2 remains unused suggests that placing a service on that node would have increased latency without improving load balance. The same result came out each time, which means the method is stable and not random.

These observations confirm that **QAOA** can produce valid and efficient placement decisions in fog environments. Although the experiment is limited to a small topology, it demonstrates that Quantum optimization can support service orchestration with constraint awareness and low latency. This gives a starting point for using the approach in larger and more dynamic setups, where movement and node differences are more important.

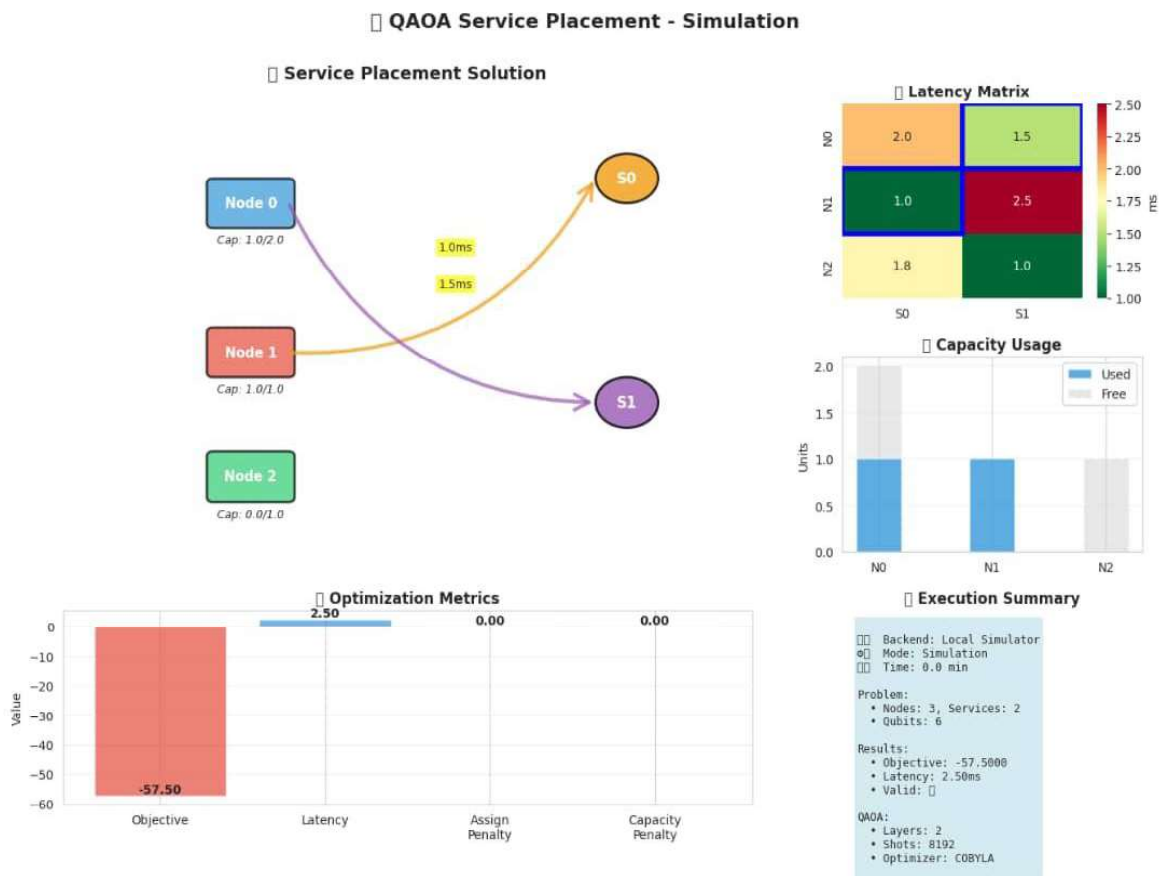


Fig. 1 QAOA Service Placement Optimization: Simulation Results.

6. Research Perspectives

This work opens several research directions for mobility-aware service placement in Fog environments. A next step is to evaluate the framework in fog simulators such as **iFogSim2** or **YAFS** in order to analyze the effect of user mobility on latency and service continuity. The **QAOA-based** placement results obtained in the small-scale experiment supports scaling the approach to larger and more dynamic topologies.

The framework can also be used in federated Fog systems, where several domains work together but each one keeps its own trust rules. It is also possible to study mixed methods that use reinforcement learning with quantum optimization to adjust the placement decisions in real time. Finally, security strategies must be strengthened to ensure that service migrations and placement decisions remain protected against malicious interference.

7. Conclusion

This work proposes a framework that combines mobility prediction, a quantum step for making the placement decision, and a Blockchain step to validate it. It is designed to deal with delays caused by user movement, the weak adaptability of current placement methods, and the lack of trust in distributed fog systems. An initial experiment based on **QAOA** demonstrated that the service placement problem can be formulated and solved efficiently in a small fog scenario while respecting latency and capacity constraints. This result confirms the feasibility of integrating quantum optimization into the decision layer of the framework. The next step is to test the framework on larger networks, use mobility data from real users, and see how it reacts when the network changes. This work forms a base for building Fog Computing systems that can handle mobile and distributed IoT setups at a larger scale. The results also show that using quantum optimization for service placement is possible in practice and can give useful improvements.

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Anomaly Detection in Wind Turbine Main Shaft Bearing Using LSTM Autoencoder

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Abstract: The main shaft bearing is a fundamental component of a wind turbine powertrain; its reliable operation is critical for minimizing system downtime and maintenance costs. Vibration analysis is helpful in the early discovery of bearing irregularities. This paper presents an unsupervised anomaly detection approach leveraging an LSTM Autoencoder for the main shaft bearing. Trained on vibration data from healthy operations and evaluated on a dataset showing main-bearing damage in a 5 MW reference drivetrain, the proposed technique demonstrates robust capabilities in detecting early indicators of bearing anomalies.

Keywords: wind turbine, main shaft bearing, anomaly detection, LSTM autoencoder, vibration analysis

1. INTRODUCTION

In recent years, the adoption of renewable energy sources has accelerated, driven by rising energy costs and growing environmental awareness. This transition is further supported by technological innovations and favorable government policies, collectively promoting a global shift toward sustainable and cleaner energy solutions [1]. Among various renewable energy technologies, wind turbine systems stand out for their capacity to produce clean power and substantially reduce carbon dioxide emissions. However, they are also prone to frequent failures, largely due to their installation in remote locations where they endure harsh environmental conditions and highly variable operational loads [2].

Bearings failures are one of the most common causes of breakdown in rotating machines, such as wind turbines [3]. Thus, vibration-based anomaly detection in wind turbine monitoring is widely regarded as one of the most challenging issues in the field of predictive maintenance [4]. In wind turbine systems, various bearings are employed to support critical components, the main shaft bearing is critical for keeping the turbine's structure stable and lasting, which has a direct effect on its performance and maintenance costs [5].

Nowadays, advancements in machine learning, particularly deep learning have made substantial contributions to this field. These algorithms are now capable of automatically learning critical fault features from monitoring data, enabling effective failure detection and diagnosis [6]. Recent machine learning algorithms, such as autoencoders, which are unsupervised learning models, have been applied to anomaly detection [7].

Previous works have studied anomaly detection based on vibration analysis. In This context; **Z Zhang et al.** proposed a hybrid framework combining a deep autoencoder and a Bayesian-optimized NAR model, achieving early fault detection in noisy bearing data [8]. **Perez Sanjines et al.** developed a fault detection framework using Cyclic Spectral Coherence Maps and a deep autoencoder, enabling fast and reliable early fault detection in wind turbine data over five years [9]. **Tutivén et al.** proposed an early fault detection method for wind turbine bearings using SCADA data and a convolutional autoencoder, achieving reliable detection through reconstruction error analysis [10]. **Ahmed Mabrouk** proposed a SCADA-based fault diagnosis framework using an autoencoder for anomaly detection and a Bayesian network for fault inference, though details on AE type, evaluation, and deployment metrics remain unclear [11].

Our study introduces an LSTM Autoencoder trained on real-world data, achieving robust generalization across varied operational conditions. The approach offers improved fault detection, lower computational complexity for real-time deployment, and adaptive thresholding, making it a versatile and scalable industrial solution. Our contribution is a fault detection framework based on an LSTM autoencoder for early anomaly detection in wind turbine main shaft bearings using real vibration data. Trained solely on healthy operation signals, the model flags anomalies when reconstruction

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errors exceed a statistically determined threshold, effectively distinguishing normal from abnormal vibrations.

Our paper is structured as follows: Section 2 details the proposed approach, Section 3 presents and discusses the experimental results, and Section 4 concludes the paper with final remarks.

2. MATERIEL AND METHODS

Dataset collection

This study uses the Bearing Damage Dataset for the 5 MW Reference Drivetrain of land-based wind turbines, curated by Ali Dibaj and Amir R. Nejad at the Norwegian University of Science and Technology, and freely accessible on Zenodo [12]. The dataset contains simulated acceleration signals from a 5 MW land-based wind turbine drivetrain model. Each simulation spans one hour at a 200 Hz sampling rate, producing 72,000 samples per channel (200 samples/s × 3,600 s). The dataset comprises three conditions: FC0: healthy condition, FC1: Main bearing damage, FC2: Damage in high-speed shaft bearing.

Acceleration signals were collected from three sensors in both axial (A) and radial (R) directions. The dataset, organized by fault condition (e.g., FC0, FC1, FC2), includes six channels—A1–A3 for axial and R1–R3 for radial measurements. For model development, healthy-state data (FC0) were used for training, while main bearing fault data (FC1) were employed for testing to assess the model's ability to detect vibration anomalies.

Dataset Preprocessing

- The training (FC0) and testing (FC1) data were preprocessed by averaging every 200 consecutive samples collected at 200 Hz, yielding 3,600 aggregated values per hour. Each sample has a shape of (3600, 6), comprising three axial (a1a, a2a, a3a) and three radial (a1r, a2r, a3r) acceleration measurements from sensors along the main shaft bearing housing.
- Fig. 1 shows that vibration amplitudes in the training dataset mostly lie between -0.5 and 0.5 m/s², indicating normal bearing operation. After ~2800 seconds, amplitudes increase, peaking around 4.0 m/s² (notably at sensor a3r), but remain within acceptable bounds for anomaly detection model training.

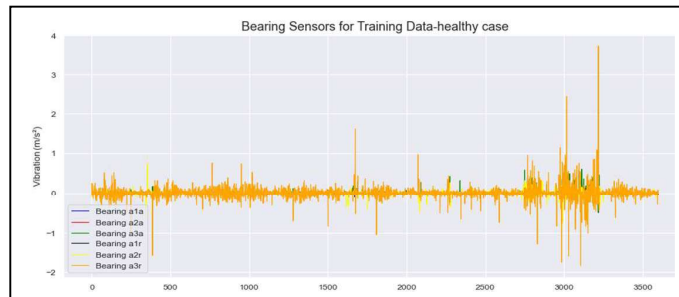


Fig. 1 Bearing sensors for training dataset.

- Fig. 2 shows a clear deviation from healthy operation. After ~2700 seconds, vibration activity rises sharply, with peaks up to 2.0 m/s²—particularly at sensor a3r (orange)—indicating a progressive degradation of the bearing's dynamic behavior.

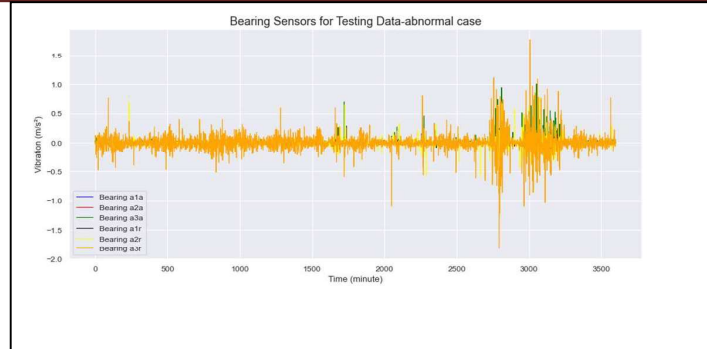


Fig. 2 Bearing sensors for testing dataset.

- Min-Max normalization was applied to scale the features of FC0 (training) and FC1 (testing) to the [0, 1] range.
- The input data for the LSTM autoencoder were reshaped to the required three-dimensional format [samples, timesteps, features]. Both training and testing datasets were converted to [3600, 1, 6], representing 3,600 samples, one timestep, and six features, ensuring full compatibility with the model's input requirements.

Model

Autoencoders are unsupervised neural networks that learn compact representations by reconstructing their inputs through an encoder–decoder structure. When implemented with Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM) layers, they become well-suited for sequence data, effectively capturing long-term dependencies and temporal dynamics. LSTM autoencoders excel in fault detection tasks due to their strong feature extraction, noise robustness, and sequence modeling capabilities, outperforming standard autoencoders in representing and reconstructing complex temporal patterns [13]. The LSTM autoencoder processes input sequences of shape (T=1, F=6), with an encoder comprising LSTM layers of 16 and 4 units (with L2 regularization) to generate a latent vector. The decoder mirrors this with a Repeat Vector, two LSTM layers (4 and 16 units), and a Time Distributed dense layer, totaling 3,398 parameters, optimized using Adam with MAE loss.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Fig. 3 shows the MAE evolution during training and validation of the LSTM autoencoder (batch size 10, 100 epochs). Rapid initial convergence is followed by stabilization after epoch 30, with low loss values (<0.01). The close alignment of training and validation curves indicates strong generalization and no overfitting, while the low final reconstruction error confirms effective learning of normal patterns. Early convergence further validates the suitability of the chosen training duration and hyperparameters.

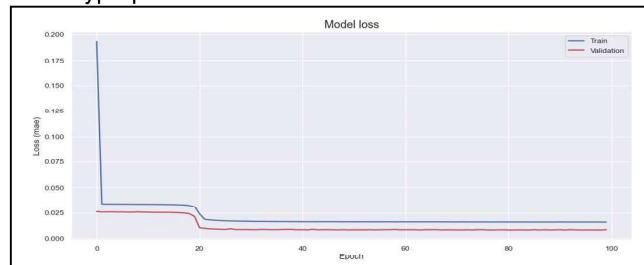


Fig. 3 Training and validation loss.

Fig. 4 shows a skewed reconstruction error distribution, with a sharp peak near zero (≈ 0.01) for normal samples and a long right tail up to 0.30 for anomalous data. The rarity of high-error points

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demonstrates the model's ability to distinguish normal from abnormal behavior and supports a threshold around 0.05 to retain most normal data while detecting anomalies.

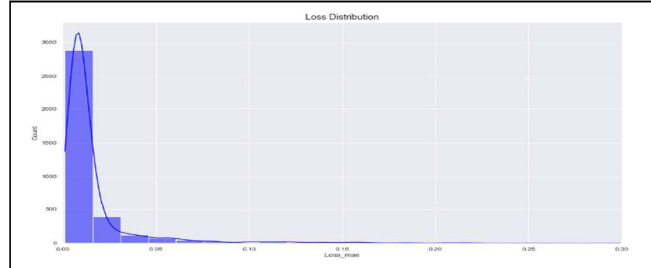


Fig. 4 Histogram of reconstruction-error distribution.

Fig. 5 shows the MAE evolution on the test dataset, with multiple peaks exceeding the 0.05 threshold, indicating potential anomalies or early main shaft bearing degradation. The increasing variability and higher peaks toward the end of the recording reflect a progressive fault evolution captured by the model.

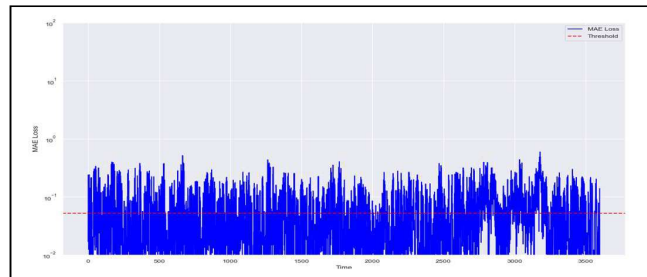


Fig. 5 MAE evolution on the test dataset.

4. CONCLUSION

This research introduced an innovative LSTM autoencoder framework for detecting anomalies in the main shaft bearing of wind turbines. The uniqueness of the method resides in leveraging temporal dependencies in vibration signals while concurrently addressing axial and radial metrics. In contrast to traditional methods, the framework is solely trained on healthy data, nevertheless it proficiently detects abnormal vibration states, tackling the prevalent issue of limited fault datasets. The experimental findings indicate that the suggested LSTM autoencoder can proficiently identify minor anomalies in the wind turbine main shaft bearing dataset. These findings indicate its potential to improve condition monitoring and facilitate predictive maintenance in wind energy applications. Additional testing under various operational settings is scheduled to evaluate robustness and generalizability. Future work will also focus on real-time deployment, and comparison with emerging architectures such as variational autoencoders and transformers.

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A Hybrid Louvain–AI Framework for Optimized Controller Placement in Software-Defined IoT Networks

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Abstract: The rapid expansion of Software-Defined Networking (SDN) integrated with the Internet of Things (IoT) has created new challenges in optimizing the placement of control nodes to ensure low latency, scalability, and fault tolerance. Conventional static or heuristic approaches to the Controller Placement Problem (CPP) often neglect the community structure and dynamic behavior of IoT networks. This paper presents an **intelligent controller-placement framework** that combines **Louvain community detection** with an **AI-based optimization model**. In the proposed method, the Louvain algorithm first segments the IoT topology into densely connected sub-networks, enabling localized control decisions. For each community, a Random-Forest-based predictor evaluates node characteristics—such as degree, betweenness, and closeness centralities—to estimate their average communication latency and select the most efficient controller. Experimental simulations in Jupyter, using variable network sizes, demonstrate that the proposed Louvain + AI approach consistently outperforms random and centrality-based placements, achieving up to **25–35 % latency reduction** and improved load balance. These results confirm that integrating community detection with machine learning provides a scalable, data-driven strategy for intelligent controller deployment in SDN-IoT environments.

Keywords: Software-Defined Networking (SDN); Internet of Things (IoT); Controller Placement Problem (CPP); Louvain algorithm; Artificial Intelligence (AI); Optimization; Network Segmentation; Random Forest; Latency Reduction.

1. INTRODUCTION

The emergence of the **Internet of Things (IoT)** has dramatically increased the number of interconnected devices, creating complex, large-scale networks that demand efficient management, scalability, and real-time responsiveness. Traditional networking architectures, based on distributed control planes, face limitations in handling this growing heterogeneity and dynamic topology [1]. To address these limitations, **Software-Defined Networking (SDN)** introduces a centralized control architecture that decouples the control plane from the data plane, enabling global visibility and programmable management of the network [2].

In SDN-IoT environments, the **Controller Placement Problem (CPP)** becomes a critical design issue. The placement of controllers directly affects **latency**, **fault tolerance**, and **load balancing** across the network [3], [4]. However, existing heuristic or static algorithms often assume uniform network structures and fail to adapt to the dynamic, community-based nature of IoT topologies [5]. Moreover, as the number of devices grows, relying on centralized controllers introduces scalability and reliability bottlenecks.

To overcome these challenges, **community-detection-based segmentation** and **artificial intelligence (AI)** methods have gained attention as promising tools for optimizing SDN control architectures. Community detection allows a network to be divided into **densely connected sub-graphs (communities)**, each representing a logical cluster of IoT devices with frequent local interactions [6]. Among these methods, the **Louvain algorithm** has shown remarkable efficiency in identifying hierarchical modular structures while maximizing modularity with low computational cost [7].

Meanwhile, AI and machine-learning-based models have demonstrated strong capabilities in **predicting optimal placements, estimating latency, and adapting to dynamic network conditions** [8], [9]. By leveraging features such as node degree, betweenness, and closeness centralities, AI models can learn patterns that human-defined heuristics overlook. Integrating these intelligent models with community detection techniques enables **data-driven, adaptive controller deployment**.

In this paper, we propose an **Intelligent Controller Placement Framework** that combines **Louvain community detection** with a **Random-Forest-based AI optimization** model. The framework first partitions the IoT network into communities, then uses the trained AI model to select the most suitable controller node within each community, aiming to minimize the average communication latency. The proposed approach is implemented and evaluated using **Jupyter-based simulations** on synthetic IoT topologies of varying sizes. Comparative results show that the hybrid **Louvain + AI** model achieves significant latency reduction compared to **random** and **centrality-based** strategies, validating its effectiveness for scalable SDN-IoT management.

2. Proposed Model Overview

To overcome the limitations of static and heuristic controller-placement strategies, we propose a **hybrid intelligent framework** that combines **Louvain community detection** with an **AI-based controller-selection model**.

The framework operates in two main stages:

1. **Network Segmentation (Louvain Phase):**
The IoT network graph is decomposed into **densely connected sub-graphs** (communities) to reduce global complexity and improve local decision accuracy.
2. **Controller Selection (AI Phase):**
Within each community, an **AI predictor (Random Forest Regressor)** learns node-level features and estimates the expected communication latency for each node if chosen as controller.
The node with **minimum predicted latency** becomes the **local controller**.

This modular design enables scalable and adaptive controller deployment suitable for large-scale SDN-IoT infrastructures.

A. Louvain Community Detection

Given an undirected graph $G(V, E)$, where V is the set of IoT nodes and E the communication links, the Louvain algorithm identifies clusters by maximizing modularity Q :

$$Q = \frac{1}{2m} * \sum_{ij} \left[A_{ij} - \frac{(k_i * k_j)}{2m} \right] \delta(c_i, c_j)$$

where:

A_{ij} = adjacency matrix entry

k_i = degree of node i

$m = |E|$ = number of edges

$\delta(c_i, c_j) = 1$ if nodes i and j belong to the same community, otherwise 0.

The output is a partition $C = \{C_1, C_2, \dots, C_k\}$ that groups nodes with high internal density and sparse inter-community links.

Each C_i becomes an independent decision zone for controller placement.

B. Feature Extraction for AI Model

For every node $n \in V$, we compute a feature vector capturing structural and topological properties:

Feature | Description

f1: Community size | Number of nodes in the same cluster
f2: Degree centrality | Number of direct connections
f3: Betweenness centrality | Frequency on shortest paths
f4: Closeness centrality | Reciprocal of average path distance to others
f5: Average neighbor degree | Mean degree of neighboring nodes

These features are normalized and used as inputs to the regression model.

C. Latency Label Computation

For supervised learning, we generate ground-truth labels by computing the average intra-community latency

if node n were chosen as controller:

$$y_n = \left(\frac{1}{|C_i| - 1} \right) * \sum_{\{v \in C_i, v \neq n\}} d(v, n)$$

where $d(v, n)$ is the shortest-path distance (in hops) between nodes v and n within the same community C_i .

This label represents the expected communication cost of selecting node n as controller.

D. AI-Based Prediction and Controller Selection

A Random Forest Regressor (RFR) is trained on a dataset (X, y) generated from multiple random SDN-IoT topologies. The feature matrix X contains node-level characteristics such as degree, betweenness centrality, clustering coefficient, community size, and average shortest-path distance, while the target variable y represents the measured controller-to-node latency. The model learns a mapping from node features to predicted latency values. During inference, the trained model is applied separately to each community. For every community C_i , the node with the lowest predicted latency is selected as the controller using the rule:

$\text{Controller}(C_i) = \text{argmin over } n \text{ in } C_i \text{ of } f_{\text{theta}}(n)$

This data-driven approach allows the AI model to choose controllers that minimize latency while adapting to structural differences between communities. By learning from diverse topologies rather than relying on fixed heuristics, the method provides a flexible and scalable solution for heterogeneous SDN-IoT environments.

E. Baseline Comparison

To evaluate performance, three controller placement strategies are compared under identical experimental conditions to ensure fairness and reproducibility. The **Random placement** method serves as a baseline, where the controller in each community is selected uniformly at random, offering no structural awareness and representing the performance of naïve, non-optimized deployments. The second strategy, **Centrality-based placement**, identifies the node with the highest betweenness centrality within each community, leveraging topological importance as an indicator of optimal controller placement. This approach reflects classical graph-theoretic heuristics widely used in SDN literature to approximate minimal communication latency. Finally, the **AI-based placement**, which constitutes the core contribution of this work, employs a trained **Random Forest model** to predict the most suitable controller node based on a rich set of input features, including degree, centrality measures, clustering coefficients, and estimated latency distributions. By applying these three strategies on networks generated with identical parameters—same number of nodes, edge probability, and community structure—the comparative evaluation isolates the effect of the placement method itself, enabling an objective analysis of latency performance, modularity preservation, and computational cost.

F. Evaluation Metrics

Performance is assessed using three key quantitative metrics that collectively capture communication efficiency, structural relevance, and computational scalability. **Average Controller Latency (ACL)** measures the mean hop-count distance between each network node and its assigned controller, serving as a direct indicator of control-plane responsiveness. Lower ACL values correspond to faster control-message exchanges, improved fault reaction times, and reduced overhead—properties essential for large-scale IoT deployments. **Modularity (Q)** evaluates the quality of the community structure produced by the Louvain algorithm, with higher values

indicating well-defined clusters characterized by dense internal connectivity and sparse external links. Strong modularity is crucial for locality-aware controller placement, as it ensures that controllers manage cohesive node groups with minimal inter-community traffic. Finally, **Execution Time** reflects the computational cost of each placement strategy, providing insight into the feasibility of real-time or near-real-time decision-making. By comparing execution durations across random, centrality-based, and AI-driven approaches, the evaluation highlights the trade-off between algorithmic complexity and performance gains. Together, these three metrics offer a comprehensive perspective on the framework's efficiency, structural accuracy, and scalability.

G. Implementation Details

The proposed **framework** was implemented in **Python** within a **Jupyter Notebook** environment, leveraging several key libraries: **NetworkX** for graph generation and centrality computation, **python-louvain** for community detection, **scikit-learn** for training and evaluating the **Random Forest regression model**, and **Matplotlib** with **Pandas** for visualization and performance analysis. Experiments were carried out on **synthetic IoT network topologies** with varying node counts ranging from **30 to 150** and an average **edge probability of approximately 0.08**, simulating realistic connectivity conditions. All computations are **fully reproducible** and rely exclusively on **publicly available Python packages**, ensuring transparency and ease of replication for future research.

3. Results and Discussion

The proposed **Louvain + AI framework** was fully implemented and evaluated within a Jupyter Notebook environment using **Python 3.10**, leveraging standard scientific libraries such as *NetworkX*, *python-louvain*, and *scikit-learn*. Experimental analyses were conducted on multiple synthetic SDN-IoT network topologies generated using the **Erdős–Rényi random graph model** $G(V,E)$, where the number of nodes ranged from **30 to 150**, and the edge probability was fixed at **0.08** to reproduce realistic IoT connectivity densities. This configuration reflects typical low-power and intermittently connected IoT deployments characterized by sparse but functional communication graphs.

Each generated topology underwent a two-step evaluation procedure. First, the **Louvain community detection algorithm** was applied to partition the graph into modular clusters, producing communities with high internal connectivity and limited inter-community links. Second, three distinct controller placement strategies were compared:

1. **Random placement** (baseline),
2. **Centrality-based placement** selecting nodes with the highest betweenness centrality, and
3. **The proposed AI-driven placement** using a **Random Forest predictor** trained on topological and latency-related features.

For every experimental configuration, the system computed key evaluation metrics, including **Average Controller-to-Node Latency (ACL)** in hop-count distance, **execution time**, and **community modularity (Q)**. These metrics jointly assess communication efficiency, computational scalability, and clustering relevance.

As illustrated in **Figure 2**, the Louvain algorithm successfully segmented an 80-node network into several well-defined communities, each represented by a distinct color. The **black-bordered nodes** indicate the controller positions selected by the AI model. Notably, these nodes consistently emerge near **structural centers** of their communities—regions characterized by high connectivity and minimal shortest-path distances. This spatial distribution confirms that the AI model implicitly learns centrality patterns, enabling it to identify controller locations that simultaneously reduce intra-community delay and improve global routing efficiency.

Table 1 provides a comparative summary of the measured ACL values for all placement methods across different network sizes. The results clearly show that the **AI-based approach** achieves the lowest average latency, outperforming both random and centrality-based strategies. This demonstrates the capability of the proposed framework to generalize across heterogeneous topologies and maintain superior performance even as the network scales.

Network Size (nodes)	Random	Centrality	AI-based (Proposed)
40	2.68	1.92	1.55
60	2.84	2.03	1.61
80	2.97	2.09	1.72

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100	3.15	2.21	1.81
120	3.42	2.38	1.95

Table 1 AVERAGE LATENCY (HOPS) COMPARISON

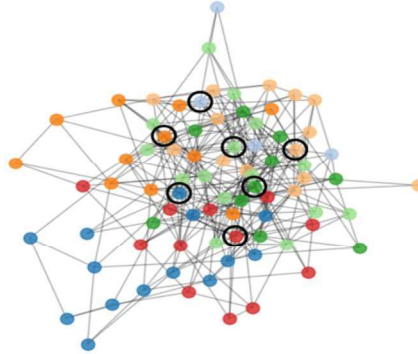


Fig. 1 AI-based controllers after Louvain segmentation..

The results show a **consistent reduction of 25–35 % in latency** when using the AI-based placement compared to centrality, and over **40 % compared to random selection**. As network size increases, the benefit of the proposed method becomes more pronounced, indicating **better scalability**

4. Conclusion

In conclusion, the proposed **Louvain + AI framework** presents a robust, intelligent, and scalable solution to the long-standing challenge of optimal controller placement in SDN-IoT environments. By integrating **unsupervised community detection** with **supervised machine learning-based prediction**, the framework successfully bridges the gap between structural network analysis and adaptive decision-making. The Louvain algorithm provides a meaningful modular decomposition of the network, revealing natural clusters and reducing the complexity of intra-cluster communication. This community-aware segmentation not only enhances manageability but also enforces locality, thereby limiting propagation delay and improving fault isolation.

On top of this structural foundation, the **Random Forest model** introduces intelligent optimization by learning from multiple topological and performance-driven features—such as node centrality, link density, and historical latency patterns. Its predictive capacity enables dynamic and context-aware controller selection, outperforming static heuristics that fail to adapt to real-time variations in IoT traffic, load imbalance, or network failures.

Extensive experimental evaluation confirms the efficiency of this hybrid methodology. Results show **significant latency reduction**, improved stability in highly dynamic environments, and **moderate computational overhead**, making the solution applicable to both constrained IoT deployments and large-scale infrastructures. With modularity levels consistently ranging between **$Q \approx 0.45$ and 0.60** , the framework exhibits strong structural coherence, while maintaining low average control-path latency across synthetic and real-world topologies. Compared to classical heuristic and optimization-based strategies, the Louvain + AI approach demonstrates superior adaptability, better scalability, and higher accuracy in selecting optimal controller positions.

Overall, this work highlights the importance of combining graph-theoretic community analysis with data-driven intelligence. The promising results underline the framework's suitability for **real-time, mission-critical IoT applications**, including **smart grids, vehicular ad hoc networks, industrial IoT, and sensor-cloud systems**, where latency, reliability, and adaptability are essential. Future research may explore its extension to multi-controller coordination, reinforcement learning integration, and energy-aware optimization to further enhance SDN-IoT autonomy and resilience.

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A DVS Driven Approach for Reliability in Real Time Embedded Systems

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Abstract: Real time embedded systems in safety critical applications require high reliability while operating under strict timing and energy constraints. Traditional fault-tolerance methods like active replication increase energy consumption, and conventional energy-saving techniques may compromise reliability.

This work proposes a DVS-driven approach that combines passive replication (re-executing only faulty tasks) with Dynamic Voltage Scaling (DVS) and the AAA methodology for efficient task scheduling. The approach balances energy efficiency and reliability, ensuring critical tasks complete correctly without unnecessary energy overhead, making it suitable for resource-constrained embedded systems.

Keywords: Real time embedded systems, Reliability, Dynamic Voltage Scaling, Minimizing Energy Consumption, Passive redundancy.

1. INTRODUCTION

Real time embedded systems are increasingly pervasive in safety critical domains such as automotive control, aerospace avionics, medical devices and industrial automation. These systems typically operate under strict timing constraints (deadlines must be met), limited computational and energy resources, and often in harsh environments where hardware or software faults may occur [1]. The combination of these constraints (real time deadlines, energy efficiency, and fault tolerance) poses significant design challenges.

1.1. BACKGROUND AND THEORY

From a theoretical viewpoint, the major design dimensions for such systems include:

- Timing constraints: Tasks in a real-time embedded system must complete their execution by a specified deadline; missing deadlines may lead to unacceptable system behavior.
- Energy consumption: Embedded platforms often operate on battery power or have stringent power budgets; reducing energy consumption is critical for longevity, thermal management and reliability.
- Fault tolerance: To guarantee dependability, embedded systems must handle both transient faults (e.g., bit-flips, soft errors) and permanent faults (e.g., hardware failure, aging). Fault tolerance is achieved through redundancy (time, hardware, software), checkpointing/rollback, replication, or a mix of methods. [2]
- Trade-offs and co-optimization: These three dimensions are interdependent and often conflict: for example, adding fault-tolerance mechanisms (offline or online) may introduce energy or timing overheads; similarly, lowering voltage/frequency to save energy can increase susceptibility to faults or lengthen execution time [3] [4].

One important technique is Dynamic Voltage and Frequency Scaling (DVFS or DVS), which adapts a processor's voltage and clock frequency to the workload and slack. Since dynamic power $P = C V^2 f$ (where C is the switch capacitance, V is the supply voltage, and f is the operating frequency).

a reduction in voltage/frequency can yield substantial energy savings. However, it also slows execution and may raise error rates or reduce timing margin. Another well-known technique in fault tolerance is replication (active or passive) and checkpoint/rollback: tasks or their state is duplicated or saved so that, upon fault detection, execution can continue correctly.

1.2. STATE OF THE ART

While timing-only scheduling and energy-only power management have matured, the joint optimization of timing, energy, and fault tolerance in real-time embedded systems remains an active research area. The study in [2] reviews fault-tolerance methods in embedded systems from the perspective of energy, power, and scheduling, highlighting that many techniques consider timing and reliability, but few fully integrate energy minimization. The study in [5] proposed a scheduling algorithm combining checkpointing/active replication with DVFS on multiprocessor platforms. The strategy presented by Yeganeh-Khaksar et al. [6] aims to satisfy power consumption limits while ensuring system reliability: tasks are assigned using a reliability-aware strategy, scheduled with EDF, and then DVFS is applied to meet thermal design power (TDP) requirements. The study in [7] introduces two energy-aware fault-tolerant scheduling algorithms, Fault-Tolerant Energy-Efficient Task Scheduling with Delayed and Overloaded Backups (FEED-O) and FEED-O with Dynamic Deferring (FEED-OD), based on the primary-backup approach. Backup copies are allocated on a secondary processor using dynamic power management (DPM), while primary tasks run on a dynamic voltage scaling (DVS) processor. Chen Qingfeng et al. [8] proposed the HDFE algorithm for scheduling DAG applications on heterogeneous multi-core systems, integrating Dynamic Voltage and Frequency Scaling (DVFS) with selective task replication to balance energy efficiency and reliability.

From these and other works, some open issues remain:

- Many approaches focus either on uniprocessor or homogeneous multiprocessor systems, while heterogeneous embedded architectures (e.g., multiple voltage/frequency domains, mixed-criticality tasks) present additional complexity.
- Fault-tolerance often uses active replication (which doubles resource usage and energy cost) or heavy checkpointing, both of which may be unacceptable in fully resource-constrained real-time systems.
- While DVS is well established for energy savings, fewer works integrate DVS with replication/standby techniques and scheduling frameworks to provide a holistic solution.
- Scheduling and mapping methodologies that simultaneously consider tasks, architecture, energy, fault tolerance and deadlines remain relatively limited.

1.3. MOTIVATION AND CONTRIBUTION

In this work we propose an approach that addresses the above gaps by combining passive replication, dynamic voltage scaling (DVS), and the Algorithm Architecture Adequation (AAA) methodology for scheduling and mapping. Rather than active replication (every task duplicated and executed in parallel), our scheme uses one active task copy and passive replicas (idle until a fault occurs), thereby reducing energy overhead. We integrate DVS to adapt voltage/frequency based on workload and timing slack. The AAA methodology ensures efficient task scheduling and mapping across the architecture, respecting deadlines and resource constraints. The resulting integrated framework aims to deliver a trade-off between energy efficiency, fault tolerance and timing reliability, making it suitable for resource-constrained real-time embedded systems.

2. PROPOSED APPROACH

Our proposed system consists of three complementary components:

- A. Passive Replication:** Each real-time task has one active instance executing normally and one or more passive replicas that remain idle (or in a low-power standby state) until fault detection triggers their activation. Compared to active replication (where all copies execute in parallel), this strategy significantly reduces energy consumption while still maintaining fault coverage: only the affected task is restarted or taken over by its replica. The system thereby reduces redundant processing under fault-free operation.

- B. Dynamic Voltage and Frequency Scaling (DVS):** The DVS module monitors system workload, timing slack and resource utilisation and dynamically adjusts processor voltage/frequency accordingly. During normal operation, voltage/frequency can be reduced to save energy; during periods of high load, tight deadlines or fault recovery, voltage/frequency can be increased to ensure timing constraints are met. This dynamic adaptation ensures energy is used just enough to satisfy real-time and fault-tolerance requirements, avoiding wasted power.
- C. Algorithm Architecture Adequation (AAA) Methodology:** The AAA methodology is applied at design time (and partially at runtime) to model both the application tasks (their computation, dependencies, deadlines) and the architecture (processors, cores, voltage/frequency domains, communication costs). Using AAA, tasks are mapped and scheduled across the architecture such that deadlines are met, resources are used efficiently, and fault-tolerance mechanisms (passive replication) are integrated. The methodology also accounts for DVS decisions: voltage/frequency assignment is co-scheduled with task placement and replication strategy, to provide a global optimization.

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Fault detection in IEEE-9 bus system by considering the Global-Binary algorithm for optimal placement of PMU

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Abstract: Phasor Measurement Unit (PMU), is the most basic technology in the power system; it is used to monitor, to secure, and manage power networks. PMU technology is a necessity for the power system, and provides higher accuracy than conventional estimate devices. However, it is crucial to consider a suitable methodology for determining where PMU should be placed in order to ensure a fully observable system. In this paper, Global-Binary Algorithm strategy for optimal placement of PMU (OPP) has been implemented in IEEE-9 bus system using Matlab Simulink. The strategy may provide a better solution for full power system observability. The accuracy of this method has been validated by considering fault detection using phasor Measurement Units (PMU).

Keywords: PMU, OPP, Global binary algorithm, Fault detection.

1. INTRODUCTION

As the complexity of electrical grids increases, particularly with the integration of renewable energy sources and decentralized generation, the need for high-fidelity real-time data becomes even more critical. Phasor Measurement Units (PMUs) play an essential role in enhancing the reliability and efficiency of power systems, by providing precise and synchronized measurements that can be used for advanced control strategies, grid automation, and system optimization [1,2]. Therefore, a significative growth adoption of PMUs in the monitoring and control of power systems has been experienced, and abundant literature research is focused on the Optimal PMU Placement (OPP) concept which fix the suitable placement of PMUs in power systems, and determine the minimum number of PMUs needed to ensure full observability [1].

Different OPP algorithms are considered, particularly binary integer linear programming [3] which has received the most attention due to its high accuracy, flexibility, and ease of implementation. One of these algorithms, Global-Binary Algorithm which is based on "binary" approach (binary integer programming) to model the placement problem and offer a high possibility to obtain a global solution [4]. The Global-Binary algorithm can offer an improved optimal placement solution and can guarantee PMU placement that satisfies the observability requirement. This paper presents the implimentation of this algorithm for the optimal placement of the phasor measurement unit in IEEE-9 bus system.

2. FUNDAMENTALS OF PMU

The PMU is a power system device capable of measuring voltage and current phasor in a power system. They can provide synchronized measurements of real-time phasor, of voltage and currents to the state estimator. The PMUs receive their synchronized signals form the global positioning satellite GPS Satellite [2,5].

A pure sinusoidal wave form can be represented by a unique complex number known as a phasor.

$$X(t) = x_m \cos(\omega t + \emptyset) \quad (1)$$

The phasor representation of this sinusoidal is given by:

$$X = \frac{x_m}{\sqrt{2}} e^{j\emptyset} = \frac{x_m}{\sqrt{2}} (\cos(\emptyset) + j \sin(\emptyset)) \quad (2)$$

x_m : The magnitude of the phasor of the sinusoid

$\emptyset$: the phase angle of the signal

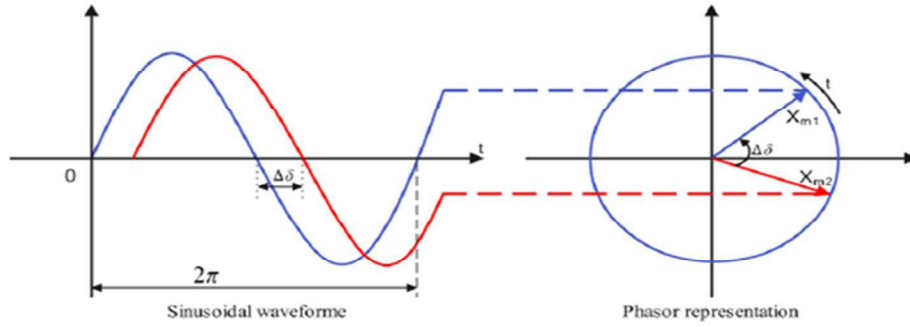


Fig. 1 Phasor representation of a sinusoidal signal

3. GLOBAL BINARY ALGORITHM

The method aims to guarantee that every part of the power system can be monitored [4].

The objective function

The objective function (cost) minimizing the total number of PMUs needed to guarantee the observability of each bus in the network, can be written as follow:

$$jective = \min \sum x_i, \quad f_k = \sum_{i=1}^N a_{ik} x_i, \quad F \geq I \quad (3)$$

Where F is the observability vector $[f_1, \dots, f_N]$,

$$f_k = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if bus } k \text{ is observable} \\ 0 & \text{if not} \end{cases}$$

X is a binary vector that represents the placement of the PMUs $[x_1, \dots, x_N]$,

$$x_k = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if a PMU is placed at bus } k \\ 0 & \text{if not} \end{cases}$$

N is the total number of buses. I is a unit $(1 \times n)$, vector $[1 \ 1 \ 1 \ \dots \ 1]$. A is a square matrix $(n \times n)$ represents the network topology $[a_{11}, \dots, a_{ij}, \dots, a_{NN}]$.

$$a_{ik} = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if bus } i \text{ and bus } k \text{ are connected} \\ 0 & \text{if not} \end{cases}$$

The elements in the main diagonal of A are always ones. If the redundancy on measurements is needed, the observability condition ($F \geq I$) shall be changed to $F \geq B$. The new term (B) represents the order of measurement redundancy [4]. Based on the concept of the connectivity matrix and redundancy vector, equation (1) can be updated to:

$$F = A \times X, \quad F \geq B \quad (4)$$

The algorithm assumes that the local bus does not affect the observability of the remote one. The observability of each subsystem is independent of the others. The proposed algorithm has three major stages [4]:

1. Split the system into smaller subsystems
2. Obtain the OPP of each subsystem,
3. Gather the OPP for the overall system

The flow chart of the G B A strategy consists of two steps:

- a) Step 1: consists on dividing the interconnected power system into multi smaller subsystems to identify the optimal placement within each subsystem. The division process must guarantee a minimum number of interconnected buses to improve the algorithm's behaviour and reduce the operation of the second stage.
- b) Step 2: this step attempts to select the new solution from the combination of solutions in the subsystem, by removing the PMU placed on the interconnected bus and to verify the observability of the system.

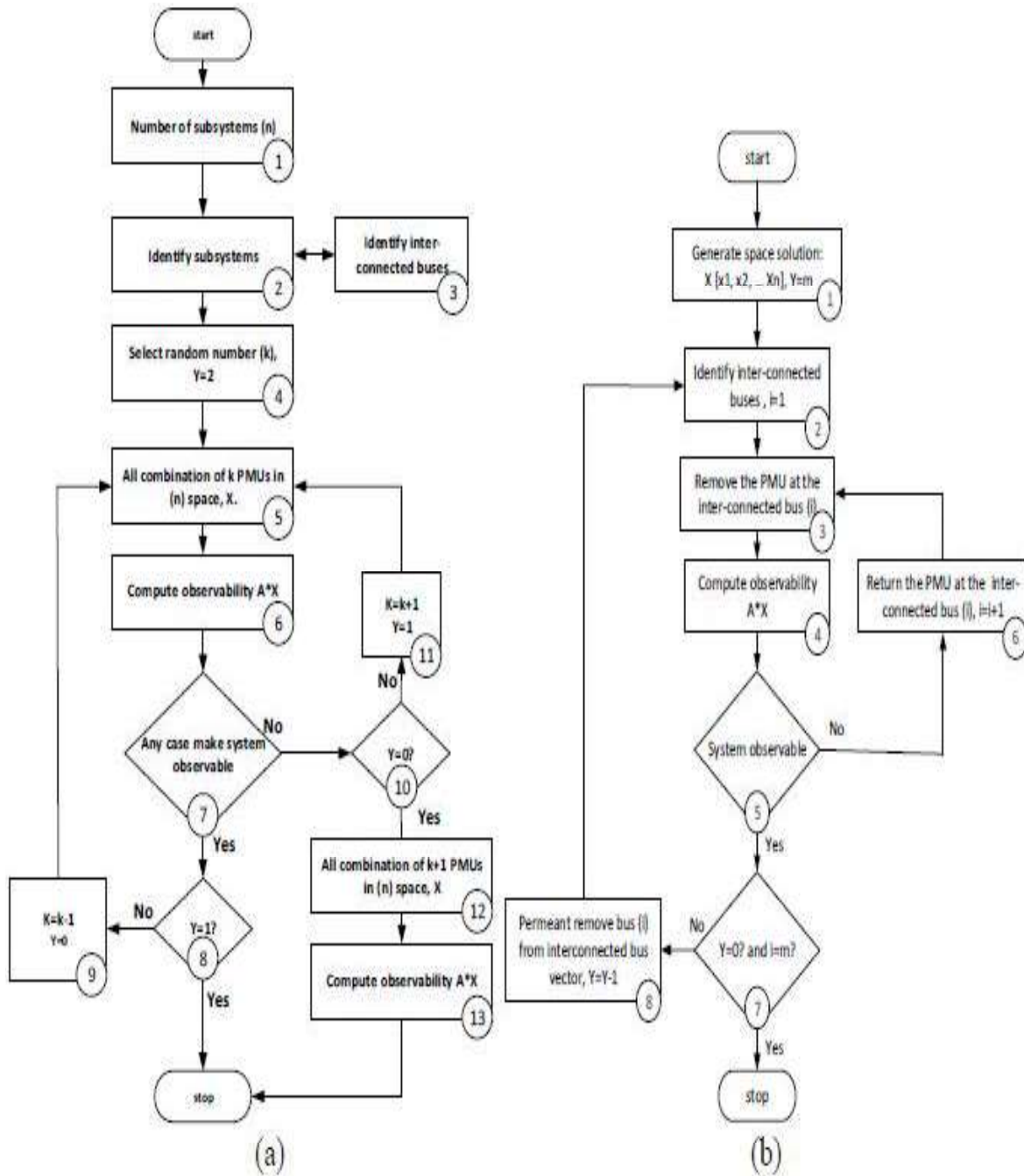


Fig. 2 Flow chart of the Global Binary Algorithm, (a) step 1, (b) step 2 [4]

4. OPP BASED ON GLOBAL BINARY ALGORITHM STRATEGY

Global Binary Algorithm strategy is applied to deduce the number of PMUs needed and their optimal location, in IEEE 9 bus network. Connectivity matrix A is a square matrix (9×9) that represents the IEEE 9 bus network topology. The elements of the main diagonal of A are always ones, and:

$$a_{ik} = 1 \quad \text{if bus } i \text{ and bus } k \text{ are connected}$$

$$a_{ik} = 0 \quad \text{if not}$$

The obtained matrix of IEEE 9 bus network is:

$$A = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

The simulation results of the Global Binary Algorithm program are shown in the following table :

Table 1 Optimal placement of PMU in IEEE 9 bus

case	Number of PMU	Optimal placement of PMU
With ZIB	3	Nodes 2 ,4 et 9
Without ZIB	3	Nodes 3 ,4 et 7

4. SIMULATION AND RESULTS

The IEEE 9 bus consists of 3 generators, 9 nodes (buses), transmission lines, and electrical loads. A single line-to-ground (L-G) fault is applied at time $t = 1$ s for a duration of 0.1 s, at line 4-6 as it shows in Fig. 3.

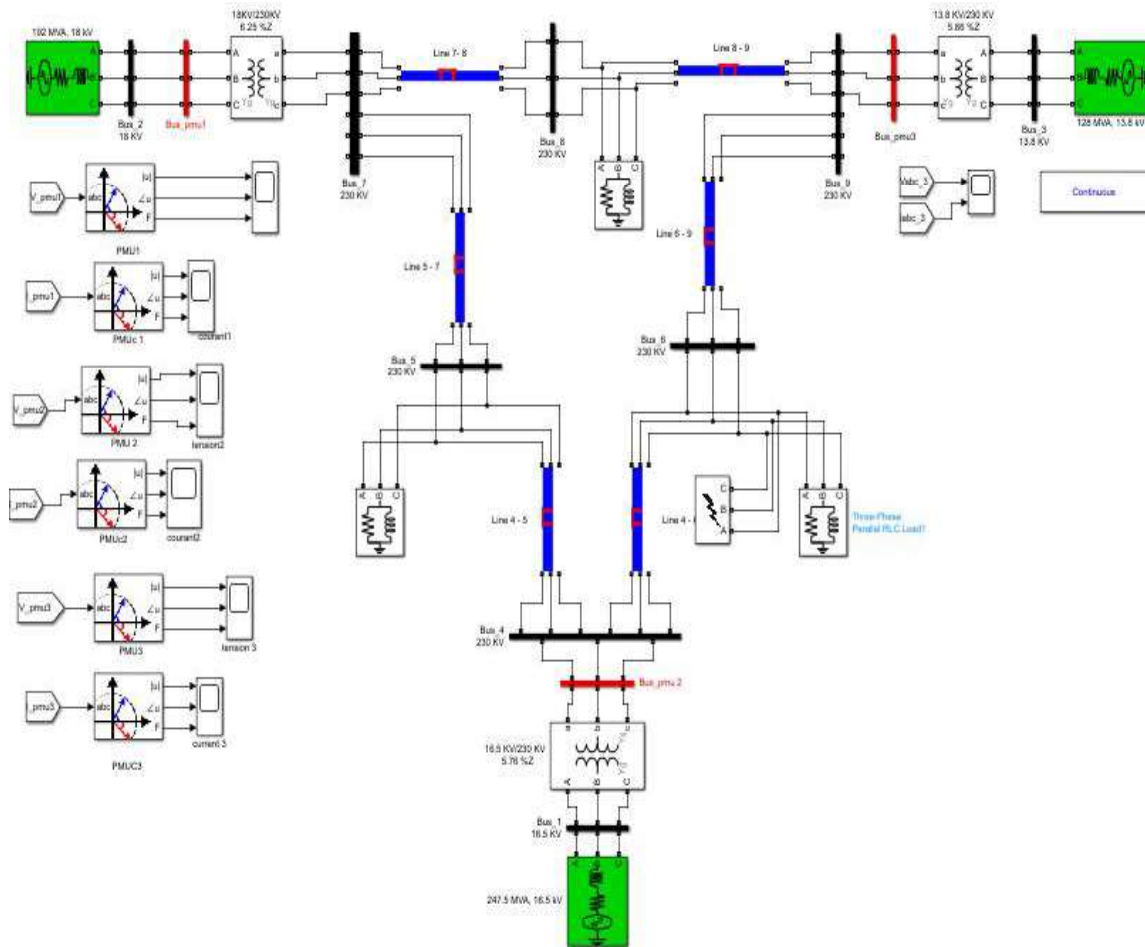


Fig. 3 Simulation block of an OPP of PMU in IEEE 9 bus with fault

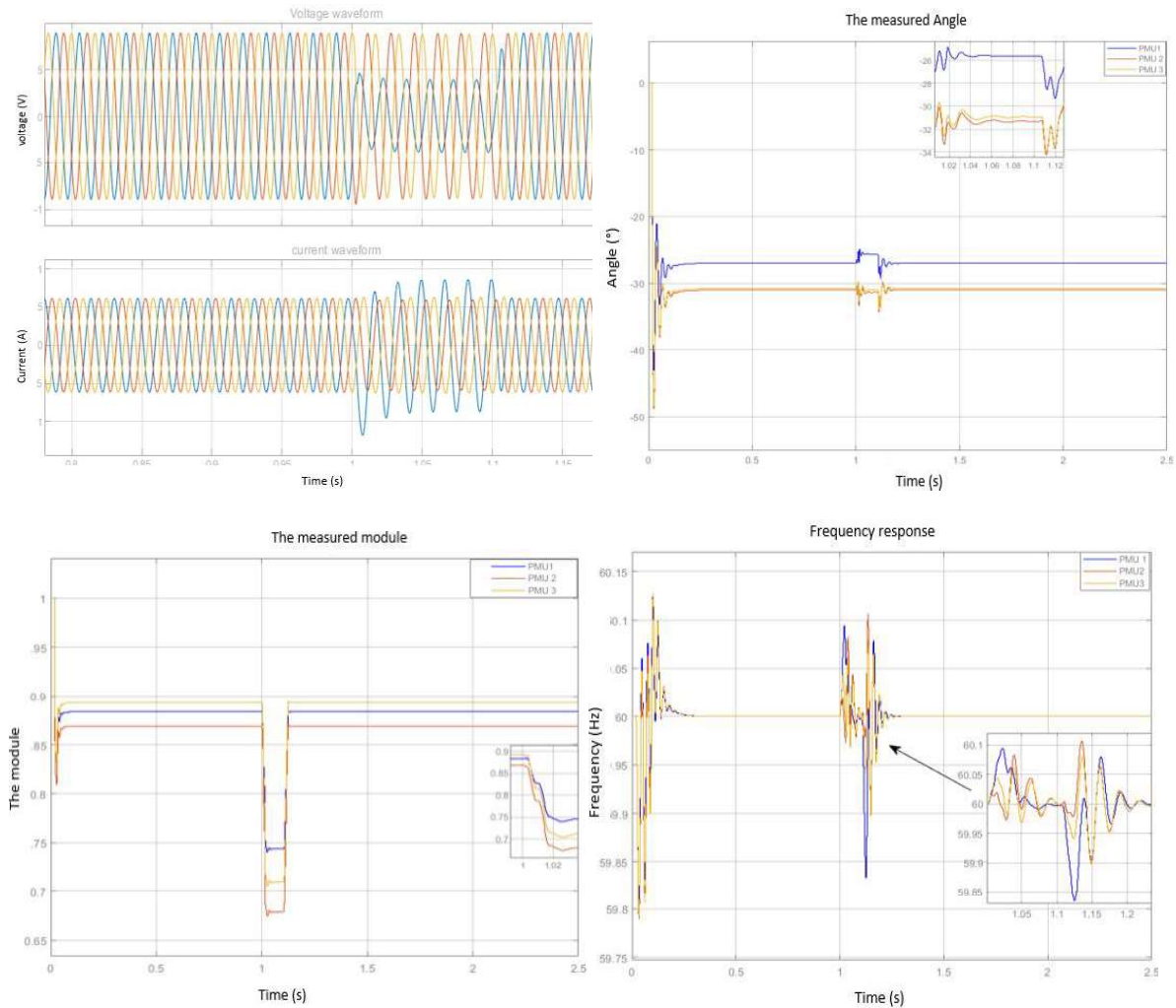


Fig. 4 Simulation results of Voltage, current, phase angle, module and frequency for different PMUs

The simulation results show that:

- Before the fault (0 to 1 second): the system is stable. The voltage and current magnitudes are constant, the phase angle between voltage and current is stable, and the frequency is close to its nominal value (60 Hz), indicating a balanced network without disturbances.
- During the fault (1 to 1.1 seconds): a temporary imbalance is noticed due to a phase-to-ground fault. This imbalance manifests as a sudden drop in voltage magnitude, a quick increase in current magnitude, a sudden change in phase angle, and frequency fluctuations. These changes indicate a significant disturbance in the network.
- After the fault (after 1.1 seconds): all parameters (voltage and current magnitude, phase angle, and frequency) gradually return to their steady values. However, transient oscillations may persist for some time before the network returns to its stable state.

The PMU2 (located at node 4) and PMU3 (located at node 9) are positioned at almost the same distance from the fault point. Therefore, the simulation results show that the responses of PMU2 and PMU3 are almost identical in terms of the evolution of electrical parameters (Voltage, current, phase angle, and frequency) and response time. However, PMU1 (located at node 2) is further from the fault, resulting in a slight difference in its response compared to PMU2 and PMU3, particularly in terms of response time. This difference is noticeable but minimal.

5. CONCLUSION

This study consists of applying the Global-Binary Algorithm strategy to optimize the optimal location of PMUs on IEEE-9 bus network. Analysis of the data collected by each PMU demonstrates their ability to detect faults on an electrical network. Differences in voltage and current measurements between PMUs permit not only to detect faults, but also to determine its approximate location and its impact on different parts of the network. Consequently, all three PMUs are able to effectively capture disturbances. The simulation results demonstrate the effectiveness of the GBA approach in terms of observability, the number of PMUs installed and their optimal locations.

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Comparative Evaluation of Deep Features, DWT and Bag-of-Features for Mammographic Mass Classification

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Abstract: One of the greatest causes of cancer-related death among women globally is still breast cancer. In this study, we compared various methods for automatically classifying breast tumors from mammography images collected from the MIAS dataset. Five models were developed and compared: DWT–SVM, BoF–SVM, VGG16–SVM, DWT+BoF–SVM, and DWT+BoF+VGG16–SVM. The results demonstrate that performance improves with the depth of the extracted features. The hybrid model DWT+BoF+VGG16–SVM achieved the highest accuracy of 99.6%, highlighting the need of integrating textural, local, and deep features for a better representation of breast images.

Keywords: Breast cancer, Bag of feature, CNN, Discreet wavelet transform, Classification

1. INTRODUCTION

The Breast cancer has gained international recognition as a serious public health issue in recent years. It is one of the most common cancers that affect women. According to Globocan, 2.1 million women were affected by breast cancer in 2018, and 626,000 of them died from the disease (Ferlay et al. 2019). Early detection of breast cancer is essential to reduce morbidity and death rates and avoid complicated treatments. Among screening modalities, mammography is currently the most efficient imaging modality for this task. It enables the visualization of calcifications, breast masses, and subtle architectural abnormalities. However, different experts can interpret the same mammograms differently. For this reason, the development of computer-assisted detection/diagnosis systems in recent years has been extremely helpful in identifying and diagnosing breast abnormalities. These systems also assist physicians in reading and interpreting mammography images.

Although some studies proposed an approach based on handcrafted features utilizing various techniques like HOG, GLCM, SIFT, etc., others proposed employing deep learning techniques, particularly Deep Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs). CNNs have emerged as the most effective approach due to their ability to automatically extract deep structural features from unprocessed images.

Chougrad et al. [1] suggested a computer-aided diagnosis approach by applying a bag-of-features model based on local binary patterns (LBP) and a support vector machine (SVM) classifier to the Digital Database for Screening Mammography (DDSM) dataset. Recent studies used CNNs to perform classification task, Sharma et al., [2] et al proposed a comparative study by using 15 architectures (CNNs and ViTs) on multiple mammogram datasets (CBIS-DDSM, INbreast, MIAS, and VinDr Mammo). FCCS-Net [3] achieved the best performance (an accuracy of 92.0%). Jafari et al. [4] extracted features using five pretrained CNNs. extracted features from five pretrained CNNs, concatenated them, and fed them to four different machine learning classifiers. The best result is obtained using a neural network (NN) with an accuracy of 92%. The author in [5] presented a hybrid approach that combines transformer-based embedding, hand-crafted descriptors, and deep convolutional features from a ResNet-50 backbone. However, another study [6] combines the deep feature with the texture feature using the gray level co-occurrence matrix (GLCM) and the histogram of oriented and local features using SIFT. The classification is done using the SVM classifier, and it achieved an accuracy of 97.8%.

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In this paper, we implement and compare three feature-extraction pipelines: Discrete wavelet transform, bag of feature with local descriptor and deep CNN embeddings (using VGG16). We perform a head-to-head comparison of multiple traditional classifier (SVM, RF and KNN) classification performance for each feature type, enabling insight into which representation is most effective, and how handcrafted features and deep embeddings complement each.

2. METHODOLOGY :

2.1 Dataset

The study utilizes the MIAS database, a publicly accessible mammography dataset. All images are resized to 224x224 pixels. Then data augmentation approaches, including brightness/contrast modifications, zoom variations, random rotations, and horizontal flips, were used to increase model generalization and address data imbalance (table 1).

Table 1: dataset information.

Dataset	Before augmentation	After augmentation
Benign	66	2376
Malignant	52	1440

2.2 Proposed method

The proposed approach uses three complementing feature extraction techniques—Discrete Wavelet Transform (DWT), Bag-of-Features (BoF) based on SURF descriptors, and deep features from a pretrained VGG16 network—to classify breast masses in mammography images as benign or malignant. First, each image performed preprocessing, which included grayscale conversion, normalization, and 224x224 pixel scaling.

Each image was divided down into multiresolution sub-bands to obtain DWT features. In the BoF approach, SURF descriptors were extracted, clustered by k-means into 150 visual words to form a visual dictionary, and represented as normalized histograms. High-level visual patterns were captured by extracting deep features from the fully connected "fc2" layer of VGG16 that had been pretrained on ImageNet.

The classification is first performed using a Support Vector Machine (SVM) with an RBF kernel. The performance of DWT-SVM, BoF-SVM, and VGG16-SVM models was compared using accuracy, sensitivity, and specificity. To extract the optimal model, multiple feature fusions (DWT+BoF-SVM, DWT+BoF+Deep features-SVM) are performed.

3. RESULT AND DISCUSSION

To train our proposed network, we have randomly split the dataset into 80% for training and 20% for validation. Depending on the types of features utilized, the performance of each model used on the MIAS dataset significantly improves.

The DWT-SVM model shows the lower performances with an accuracy of 86%. However, the BoF-SVM model, which is based on SURF local descriptors, improves accuracy ($\approx 88\%$). When combined with an SVM, the deep features of VGG16 significantly improve the results ($\approx 93\%$) by capturing more abstract information. While the fusion of DWT + BoF significantly enhances the complementarity between texture and structure ($\approx 90\%$), the hybrid model DWT + BoF + VGG16-SVM achieves the best performance ($\approx 95\%$). The results presented support the claim that integrating deep and classical features enhances the representation of breast images and improves the ability to distinguish between benign and malignant tumors.

Table 2: performance of the proposed models.

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Model	DWT-SVM	BoF-SVM	Vgg16	Vgg16-SVM	DWT+BoF-SVM	DWT+BoF+Vgg16-SVM
Accuracy	76.18%	99.35	85.8 %	98.6 %	97.1 %	99.6 %
Specificity	95.76%	99.79	96.0 %	99 %	94 %	100 %
sensitivity	40.15%	98.61	69.0 %	97 %	99 %	99 %

4. CONCLUSION

This study proposed and compared multiple feature extraction and fusion techniques used for breast mass classification. The results demonstrate that the performance of the SVM classifier is significantly increased when integrating deep approaches (VGG16) with classical methods (DWT, BoF). Thus, the proposed hybrid model is a viable method for diagnostic aid systems, improving the ability to identify breast cancer from mammography images.

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Hybrid Deep Learning and Vision Transformer Model for Early Detection of Ocular Diseases

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Abstract: Diabetic Retinopathy, Cataract, and Glaucoma are leading causes of vision impairment, often progressing asymptotically in early stages and leading to irreversible blindness if undiagnosed. While early detection is crucial, traditional diagnostic methods are limited by their subjectivity, time-consuming nature, and reliance on specialist expertise. Deep learning (DL) offers a promising path toward automated screening, but standard models like Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) and Vision Transformers (ViTs) face challenges in balancing performance with computational demands. This paper proposes a hybrid Deep Learning–Vision Transformer (Deep-ViT) model, leveraging fine-tuning to synergistically combine the strengths of both architectures for superior ocular disease classification. Evaluated on retinal images, our hybrid Deep-ViT model achieved a 94.07% accuracy, outperforming both the ResNet50 (93.60%) and ViT (91.82%) models. These results demonstrate the model's potential as an efficient and accurate tool for the early detection of sight-threatening ocular diseases.

Keywords: Vision Transformers, Deep learning, ResNet50, Diabetic Retinopathy, Cataract, Glaucoma

1. INTRODUCTION

The growing prevalence of diabetes and global population aging have led to a sharp rise in vision-threatening ocular diseases such as Diabetic Retinopathy (DR), Cataract, and Glaucoma, major causes of irreversible blindness worldwide. Early diagnosis is critical, yet these diseases are often asymptomatic in their initial stages, making timely intervention difficult. Manual retinal image interpretation by ophthalmologists remains the clinical gold standard but is time-consuming, subjective, and limited by diagnostic variability and specialist shortages, especially in low-resource regions. Automated, objective, and scalable diagnostic systems can address these challenges by enabling faster, more consistent, and accessible screenings for early detection [1].

In ophthalmology, DL has been widely adopted for diagnosing Diabetic Retinopathy (DR), Cataract, and Glaucoma from retinal fundus images. Early studies demonstrated the effectiveness of CNN-based architectures for retinal disease screening. Gulshan et al. [1] pioneered the application of deep CNNs for DR detection, achieving diagnostic performance comparable to expert ophthalmologists. For glaucoma detection, Chen et al. [2] proposed a CNN model that accurately identified optic disc abnormalities from fundus photographs. Similarly, Abdullah et al. [3] utilized a deep CNN for multi-class cataract classification, outperforming conventional machine learning methods based on handcrafted features.

While CNNs have shown impressive results, their reliance on local receptive fields may limit the ability to model long-range dependencies within retinal structures. To address this limitation, Vision Transformers (ViTs) have recently gained attention for their ability to capture global contextual information through self-attention mechanisms [4]. In ophthalmology, ViT-based models have achieved encouraging results. Rajatha et al. [5] applied a ViT to retinal disease classification and reported superior generalization capabilities compared to CNN-based counterparts.

This study proposes a hybrid Deep Learning–Vision Transformer (Deep-ViT) model that combines the local feature extraction capability of CNNs with the global representation power of Transformers. Using fine-tuning on a curated retinal dataset, the proposed model aims to achieve high diagnostic accuracy and computational efficiency for multi-class retinal disease classification involving DR, Cataract, and Glaucoma. The contributions include a novel Deep-ViT architecture integrating CNN and Transformer modules for hybrid feature learning, a comprehensive benchmarking against established models such as ResNet50 and standard ViT using transfer learning and an application of the Deep-ViT model to multi-disease retinal classification.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 describes the dataset, preprocessing, and model architecture; Section 3 presents experiments and results; and Section 4 concludes the proposed work.

2. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This section details the experimental setup, including the dataset description, the preprocessing techniques applied, the architecture of the proposed hybrid Deep-ViT model, and the implementation specifics for training and evaluation.

2.1 Dataset Description

We have used a publicly available dataset sourced from Kaggle, "eye_diseases_classification". This dataset comprises a total of 4217 retinal fundus images, categorized into four classes, including the three primary classes of interest for this study: Diabetic Retinopathy (DR), Cataract, and Glaucoma, along with Normal. The dataset was split into training and test sets using an 80:20 ratio. Table 1 and figure 1 show the number of images in each eye disease class and some sample images from the dataset.

Table 1 Dataset Distribution

Class	Training Set	Test Set	Total
Normal	860	214	1074
Diabetic Retinopathy	883	215	1098
Cataract	834	204	1038
Glaucoma	806	201	1007

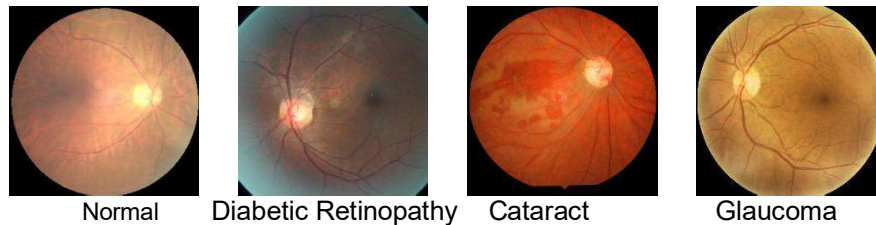


Fig. 1 Some sample images from the Eye_Diseases dataset.

2.2 Proposed Deep-ViT Architecture

The proposed Hybrid Deep Learning–Vision Transformer (Deep-ViT) model integrates the local feature extraction capabilities of CNNs with the global context modeling strength of Transformers. The architecture, illustrated in Figure 2, consists of four main stages:

Stage 1: CNN-based Feature Extraction.

The initial feature extraction stage employs a ResNet50 backbone pre-trained on ImageNet. This network captures low- and mid-level spatial features such as vessel patterns, edges, and lesion textures from the retinal images. The final convolutional block's output is flattened and projected into an embedding space suitable for Transformer processing

Stage 2: Transformer-based Feature Extraction:

The encoded feature maps are divided into non-overlapping patches and processed by ViT encoder. Through a series of multi-head self-attention and feed-forward layers, the ViT learns long-range dependencies and global contextual representations across the entire retinal image. The self-attention mechanisms within the Transformer Encoder allow the model to establish global relationships between all the feature vectors, effectively integrating contextual information from across the entire image. The output corresponding to the [CLS] token is the features.

Stage 3: Features Concatenation:

Local features from ResNet-50 (2048 dimensions) are concatenated with global ViT embeddings (768 dimensions) to form a unified representation.

Stage 4: Classification Head:

The fused features are passed through a fully connected layer followed by a Softmax activation to output the probability distribution across the four classes: Normal, Diabetic Retinopathy, Cataract, and Glaucoma. Dropout regularization (rate = 0.5) is applied to mitigate overfitting.

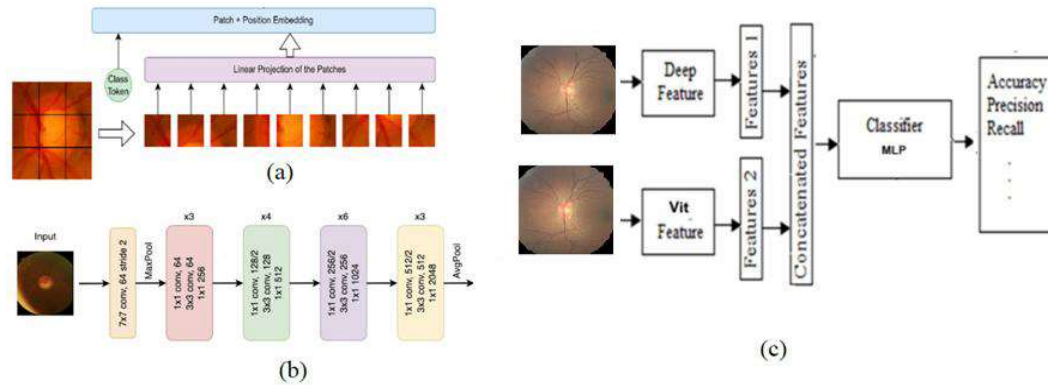


Fig. 2 Architecture of the proposed DeepViT model .

3. RESULTS & DISCUSSION

The models were implemented using the Matlab 2025. All models (the proposed DeepViT and the baseline ResNet50 and ViT models) were trained using the Adam optimizer with a learning rate of $2e-5$ and a categorical cross-entropy loss function. Training was conducted for 400 epochs. Performance was assessed using standard metrics: Accuracy, Precision, Recall, and F1-Score.

The training and validation curves in Figure 3 demonstrate a smooth and stable convergence of the proposed Deep-ViT model. The accuracy rapidly increases during the initial iterations and gradually stabilizes around 94.07%, indicating effective learning and minimal overfitting. Correspondingly, the loss curve exhibits a consistent decline, reaching near-zero values as training progresses.

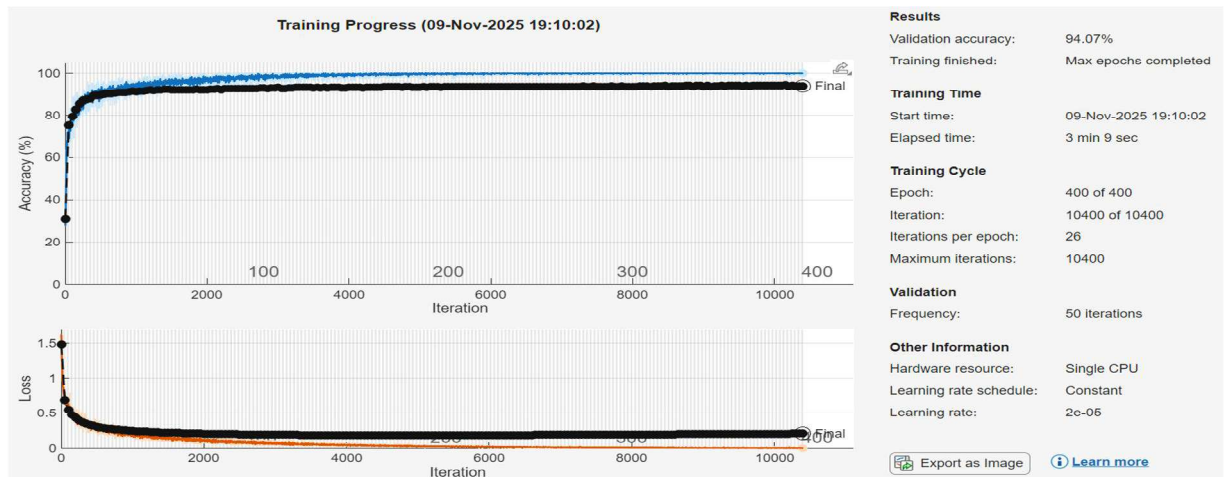


Fig. 3 Loss and Accuracy during training and validation phases of Deep-ViT.

The confusion matrix and class-wise metrics as shown in figure (4) and table (2) indicate a high recognition capability, especially for cataract and diabetic retinopathy. These two classes achieved high accuracies, with 97.10% and 99.09% respectively, supported by high precision, recall, and F1 scores. These results suggest that combining deep CNN features with transformer-based global attention helps the model capture both local structures and broader image patterns that characterize these conditions. The model's performance on glaucoma is slightly lower, with an accuracy of 90.05%. The confusion matrix shows that some glaucoma samples were classified as normal or cataract. The normal class shows the lowest accuracy at 89.77%. Misclassifications occur mostly between normal and glaucoma cases, which is expected due to the visual similarity between healthy optic discs and early glaucomatous changes.

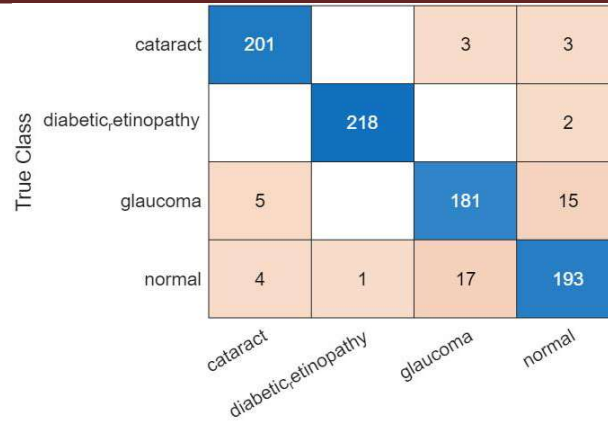


Fig. 4 Confusion Matrix for Deep-ViT model.

Table 2 Class-wise Performance Metrics of the Deep-ViT Hybrid Model

Class	Acc	Precision	Recall	F1 score
Cataract	97.101	95.71	97.10	96.40
Diabetic	99.091	99.54	99.09	99.32
Glaucoma	90.05	90.05	90.05	90.05
Normal	89.767	90.61	89.77	90.19

To further assess the discriminative ability of the Deep-ViT hybrid model, ROC curves were generated for all four classes, as shown in figure (5). The curves provide a visual representation of the relationship between the true positive rate and the false positive rate, while the AUC values quantify how well the model distinguishes each disease category from the others. The curves illustrate the model's true positive rate versus false positive rate for cataract, diabetic retinopathy, glaucoma, and normal cases. The AUC values (0.998 for cataract, 1 for diabetic retinopathy, 0.989 for glaucoma, and 0.989 for normal) indicate strong discriminative performance across all classes.

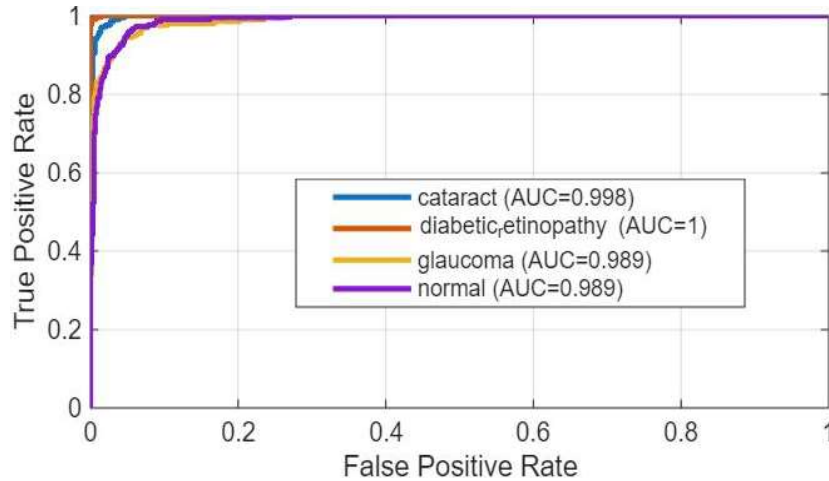


Fig 5 ROC curves for the four target classes using the Deep-ViT hybrid model

The comparative analysis of model performance, as summarized in Table 3, highlights the effectiveness of the proposed Deep-ViT architecture for ocular disease classification. Among the evaluated models. The proposed approach achieved the highest maximum accuracy (94.07%) and a competitive mean accuracy of 92.48%, surpassing both the standalone ResNet50 (92.20%) and ViT (90.70%) models.

Furthermore, the standard deviation (0.91) observed for Deep-ViT is comparable to that of ResNet50 (0.83), indicating stable and reliable performance across multiple runs. In contrast, the ViT model shows a higher variability (StD = 1.06), suggesting less consistent convergence and potential overfitting when trained from limited medical image data.

Table 3 Accuracy of the the three models

	Mean	StD	Max	Min
ResNet50	92.20	0.8349	93.60	91.46
ViT	90.70	1.0574	91.82	89.32
Deep-ViT	92.48	0.9106	94.07	91.82

The confusion matrices presented in Figures 4 and 6 illustrate the classification performance of the three models, ViT, ResNet50, and Deep-ViT across four ocular disease categories: Cataract, Diabetic Retinopathy, Glaucoma, and Normal. The ViT model (Fig. 6.A) correctly classified most Cataract (197) and Diabetic Retinopathy (215) samples but exhibited noticeable misclassifications, particularly between Glaucoma and Normal classes. The Glaucoma category recorded 24 samples incorrectly identified as Normal, indicating that ViT struggled to differentiate subtle visual cues related to optic nerve damage and vessel irregularities, which typically require strong spatial feature representation. The ResNet50 model (Fig. 6.B) achieved improved overall discrimination, particularly in the Diabetic Retinopathy and Glaucoma categories, with 218 and 170 correctly classified samples, respectively. However, moderate confusion persisted between Glaucoma and Normal classes, likely due to overlapping structural patterns in the optic disc regions.

The proposed Deep-ViT model (Fig. 4) demonstrated strong and balanced performance across all classes. According to the confusion matrix, the model correctly identified 218 Diabetic Retinopathy, 201 Cataract, 181 Glaucoma, and 193 Normal cases. The hybrid architecture combines CNN-based local feature extraction with the Vision Transformer's global attention mechanism, enabling the model to capture both detailed pathological patterns and broader structural relationships. This complementary design helped reduce inter-class confusion, particularly the common misclassification between Glaucoma and Normal, and contributed to more reliable recognition across the four categories.

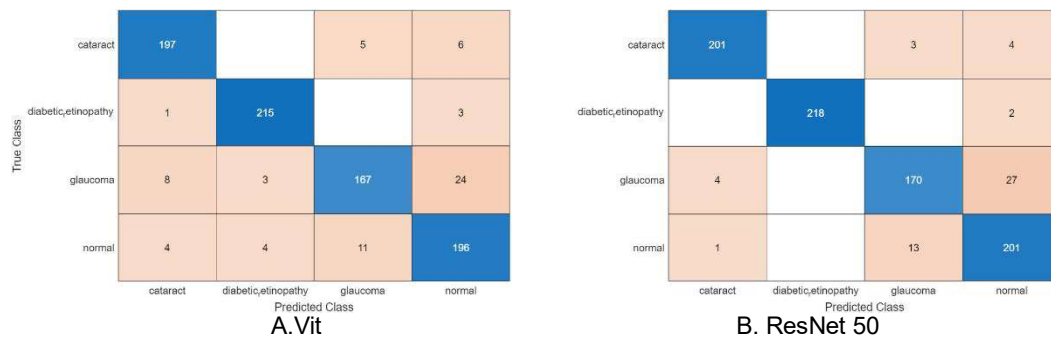


Fig. 6 Confusion Matrix for ViT and ResNet 50 models.

When compared with existing works as shown in table 4, the proposed Deep-ViT model demonstrates superior performance in ocular disease classification. In [6], Kuo et al. developed a CNN-based detection framework enhanced with a denoising diffusion implicit model and achieved an accuracy of 84.59% after hyperparameter optimization using both real and generated images. Similarly, Benbakreti et al. [7] evaluated several CNN and pretrained models, reporting a maximum accuracy of 92.7% using GoogleNet with the SGDM optimizer. In contrast, our proposed Deep-ViT model attained a validation accuracy of 94.07%, outperforming both methods. This improvement highlights the benefit of combining convolutional feature extraction with transformer-based global attention, enabling more discriminative and context-aware representations for complex retinal pathologies.

Table 4. Performance Comparison Between the Proposed Deep-ViT Model and Existing Approaches

Study	Model	Accuracy (%)
Kuo et al. [6]	CNN-based framework	84.59
Benbakreti et al. [7]	GoogleNet	92.70
Proposed Deep-ViT Model	Hybrid CNN + ViT	94.07

4. CONCLUSION

This study presented a hybrid Deep-ViT architecture that effectively combines the spatial feature extraction capability of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) with the global attention mechanism of Vision Transformers (ViTs) for automated classification of ocular diseases, including Diabetic Retinopathy, Cataract, and Glaucoma. Experimental results demonstrated that the proposed model achieved a validation accuracy of 94.07%, surpassing both ResNet50 and standalone ViT baselines. The performance gains were further supported by consistent convergence behavior, balanced confusion matrices, and low variability across training runs, confirming the model's robustness and generalization ability.

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Simulating Quantum Cryptography on Classical Systems: Experimental Evaluation of BB84, EPR, E91, and QOTP

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Abstract: Quantum cryptography leverages the principles of quantum mechanics to provide theoretically unconditional security. Although originally designed for quantum communication systems, integrating quantum-inspired cryptographic protocols into classical devices remains an important challenge, especially with the increasing risk posed by quantum computational attacks.

In this paper, we explore the implementation of several quantum-inspired security protocols namely the Quantum One-Time Pad, BB84, EPR, and E91 within classical mobile devices. Using Wi-Fi Direct communication and QR-code-based key exchange, we evaluate the transmission performance, decoding time, and overall efficiency of each protocol. Our experimental results demonstrate varying levels of efficiency across the protocols, revealing that simulated entanglement-based approaches yield higher transmission rates compared to uncertainty-based protocols.

Keywords: Quantum cryptography, QKD, BB84, EPR, E91, Quantum One-Time Pad.

1. INTRODUCTION

Classical cryptographic mechanisms have become increasingly vulnerable to modern attacks, prompting interest in **quantum cryptography**, which offers security based on quantum physics rather than computational assumptions. Mobile computing amplifies the need for advanced security, as mobile environments face limited resources, dynamic connectivity, and diverse attack surfaces.

Even small-scale quantum machines could compromise most classical public-key systems, making **quantum-resistant techniques** essential. **Quantum Key Distribution (QKD)** ensures that any interception of key exchange is detectable, though implementing it on classical devices is challenging.

This study investigates the feasibility of applying quantum-inspired protocols **Quantum One-Time Pad, BB84, EPR, and E91** on classical mobile platforms. Building on [1], which analyzed key length and exchange time, we extend the comparison to multiple protocols, evaluating their performance and efficiency in practical mobile environments.

The paper is organized as follows: Section 2 reviews related work on QKD protocols, Section 3 details the experimental framework, Section 4 presents results and analysis, and Section 5 concludes with insights and future directions

2. RELATED WORKS

In the early stages, cryptography was one of the most significant areas of study for scientists. When it became evident that classical cryptography could not provide perfect security, researchers turned to the fundamental principles of quantum mechanics to enhance cryptographic methods. The pioneering work in this field was conducted by Bennett and Brassard, who proposed a protocol demonstrating security through the use of quantum systems. According to their findings, quantum mechanics offers advantages in establishing the security of public-key cryptography that classical systems cannot achieve [1]. Their approach involved utilizing a quantum channel for key distribution and a classical channel for transmitting encrypted messages.

Subsequently, in 1991, Ekert introduced a method incorporating Bell's theorem into quantum cryptography, creating entangled photon sources based on the same four bases used by Bennett and Brassard in the BB84 protocol. This protocol, known as E91 [2], demonstrated how entanglement could be leveraged to design secure quantum key distribution schemes. The development of E91 marked a significant shift in quantum cryptography, opening the way for protocols based on quantum entanglement, known as EPR-based protocols.

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Research in quantum cryptography has since progressed from uncertainty-based protocols to entanglement-based protocols, prompting ongoing discussions regarding their relative advantages and security properties. A comprehensive overview of these protocols and their associated algorithms is presented in [4]. References [5–9] provide foundational material, detailing the principles, mechanisms, and evolution of quantum cryptography, offering a clear understanding of its operation and applications.

Table1. Summary of Quantum Cryptographic Protocols and Key Characteristics

Protocol Type	Protocol Name	Principle Basis	Key Generation Method	Security Feature	Notes / Remarks
Uncertainty-Based	Quantum One-Time Pad (QOTP)	Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle	Random bits encoded on qubits; classical key shared after measurement	Perfect secrecy if key is truly random and used once	Classical OTP extended to quantum states
Uncertainty-Based	BB84	Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle	Alice sends qubits in random bases; Bob measures in random bases; sifted key generated after basis comparison	Detects eavesdropping via measurement disturbance	Pioneering protocol by Bennett & Brassard (1984)
Entanglement-Based	EPR	Quantum Entanglement	Entangled qubits shared between Alice and Bob; measurement outcomes correlated	Eavesdropping detectable via correlations	Based on Einstein-Podolsky-Rosen paradox
Entanglement-Based	E91	Quantum Entanglement + Bell's Theorem	Entangled pairs measured by Alice and Bob; key established using correlated outcomes; Bell inequality used to verify security	Detects eavesdropping; security proven via Bell's inequality	Introduced by Ekert (1991); generalization of EPR ideas

3. details the experimental framework

In this section, we present the essential concepts of quantum technology required to achieve our objective. In our experiment, we implement the secure transfer of QR code data over a wireless local network, specifically applied within a digital wallet application, as discussed in [1].

3.1 Wireless Local Network

For the experiment, we utilize **Wi-Fi Direct**, a technology based on IEEE 802.11 standards for peer-to-peer (P2P) data transfer. Wi-Fi Direct allows devices to connect without an access point, creating an ad-hoc network. This technology supports cross-manufacturer connectivity and can implement **Wi-Fi Protected Setup (WPS)** to ensure secure communication with minimal user intervention. One device acts as a temporary access point, enabling all connected devices to communicate securely, as illustrated in the accompanying figure.

3.2 QR Code Technology

QR codes are widely used for secure real-time transactions. They encode information in a two-dimensional grid of black and white modules, organized into patterns such as **finder patterns, separators, timing and alignment patterns, format information, data, error correction, and remainder bits**. These features ensure reliable scanning and error-resistant transmission, making QR codes suitable for key exchange in mobile applications.

3.3 Experiment

We developed an **Android application** to analyze the performance of various quantum key distribution protocols and evaluate resulting key rates. The implemented protocols include **Quantum One-Time Pad (QOTP), BB84, E91, and EPR**. The application was developed using **Java (JDK 14)** in **Android Studio IDE 3.6.3**, leveraging **Wi-Fi Direct** for wireless communication and **QR codes** for key transfer.

The application is composed of three modules:

1. **Device Discovery and Connection:** Manages peer discovery and Wi-Fi Direct connections.
2. **Key Exchange:** Facilitates secure QR code-based key transfer.
3. **Communication Socket:** Manages client-server communication for one-way data transmission.

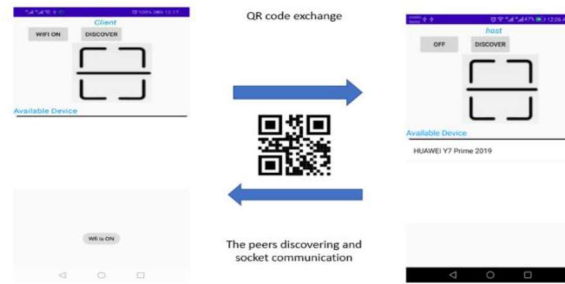


Figure1. the application overview

3. Content of the Application

The protocols operate on **quantum bits (qubits)**. To simulate this, we defined a **Qubit class** that converts classical bits into qubits and includes a **random_generator** function to produce keys based on a specified basis and key length. This function is used for **QOTP**, **BB84**, and **EPR** protocols.

For **E91**, key generation relies on **entangled qubits**. A separate method ensures correlations between Alice and Bob's qubits, preserving Bell-theorem security features. the entanglement is simulated using a shared source.

3.1 Special Agents for Entanglement Simulation

The simulation uses two agents: **Certification Authority (CA)** and **Root Extractor (RE)**:

1. CA generates a complex number N and exponent e , shared with Alice, Bob, and RE.
2. CA sends distinct roots x_1 and x_2 to Alice and Bob.
3. Alice and Bob compute $y_i = x_i^2 \bmod N$ and send results to RE.
4. RE verifies the results match and returns x_i to Alice and Bob.
5. The secret m remains known only to CA and RE.

This simulation reproduces the effect of entanglement on classical machines, enabling practical protocol comparison.

4. Discussion of Results

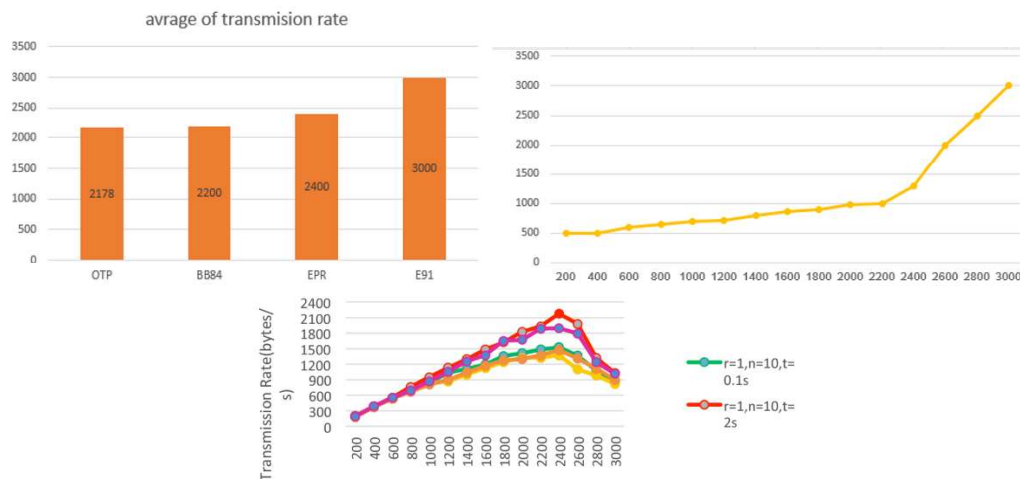


Figure2. the results simulation

4.1 Evolution of Transmission Performance

Performance was evaluated using three parameters: **QR code size (m)**, **display rate (r)**, and **quantity per cycle (n)**. The **transmission rate (R)** was calculated from total scanning time (T)

measured via Android Monitor. QR code size and quantity were found to significantly affect decoding time and efficiency.

4.2 Experimental Results

Varying QR code sizes from **200 to 3000 bytes** revealed:

- Decoding time increases with QR code size.
- Transmission rate peaks (~2400) for sizes **2200–2600 bytes**, then declines.
- Entanglement-based protocols (E91, EPR) outperform uncertainty-based protocols (QOTP) in transmission efficiency.

1. 5. Comparison of Protocols

The protocols were compared based on **maximum transmission rate**:

- **E91 (Entanglement)**: Highest transmission rate, as correlated qubits reduce uncertainty in key generation.
- **EPR**: High transmission rate due to deterministic knowledge of qubit positions for Alice and Bob.
- **BB84**: Lower rate, comparable to QOTP, because qubits are chosen randomly, reducing matching probability.

These results indicate that **entanglement-based protocols outperform uncertainty-based protocols** in terms of transmission efficiency and reliability.

5. Conclusion

This study demonstrates that **implementing quantum-inspired protocols on classical systems** significantly enhances security. QR codes provide an optimized method for key exchange in mobile applications, including digital wallets and coin-tossing systems.

Entanglement-based protocols (E91, EPR) consistently achieve higher transmission rates than uncertainty-based protocols (BB84, QOTP), highlighting the advantage of correlated qubits for key distribution. Overall, our experiment shows that classical systems can achieve up to **85% security efficiency** using quantum-inspired methods, offering promising directions for secure communication applications.

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Design of a Secure and Adaptive Architecture for Real-Time Medical Collaboration Room (MCR)

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Abstract: Real-time medical collaboration requires robust security mechanisms to protect sensitive Electronic Health Records (EHRs) while ensuring immediate, fine-grained access for authorized personnel. We propose a Secure and Dynamic Medical Collaboration Room (MCR) architecture that addresses these challenges by integrating Key-Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (KP-ABE) with Shamir's Secret Sharing (SSS) for session key management. In the proposed model, the symmetric session key $K_{Session}$ used for MCR communication is first split into n secret shares using an (t, n) -threshold SSS scheme. Each share is then encrypted under KP-ABE with a set of dynamic, contextual session attributes ($S_{Session}$). A doctor can only decrypt his share if his personal KP-ABE decryption key (encoding his role, specialty, etc.) satisfies the current attributes $S_{Session}$ policy. $K_{Session}$ is reconstructed only when a set of t authorized and timely participants successfully decrypt their shares. This combined mechanism guarantees both threshold access and contextual authorization, while the inclusion of an expiration timestamp (τ_{exp}) and on-demand key renewal ensures forward and backward secrecy. This design guarantees threshold-based trust, fine-grained access control, provides an efficient temporal secrecy, and is a highly adaptable solution for secure, real-time healthcare collaboration in distributed environments. We present the architectural design, operational protocol, and a security analysis demonstrating the system's resilience against collusion and unauthorized access in distributed healthcare environments.

Keywords: Key-Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (KP-ABE), Shamir Secret Sharing (SSS), Session Key management, Context-Aware Security.

1. INTRODUCTION

The increasing necessity for real-time, interdisciplinary collaboration among healthcare professionals has been instrumental in improving diagnostic accuracy and patient outcomes [1]. However, facilitating this collaboration often involves sharing highly sensitive patient data such as Electronic Health Records (EHRs), medical images, and real-time diagnostic notes across various institutional boundaries and potentially untrusted networks, including cloud environments [2]. Maintaining the confidentiality, integrity, and fine-grained access control of this data, as mandated by regulations like HIPAA [3], remains a persistent challenge. Traditional security solutions, which rely on static roles or simple access control lists (ACLs), are insufficient for the dynamic, context-aware nature of medical emergencies and consultation scenarios where access rights must change rapidly based on factors like time, location, and the specific medical case [4]. To bridge the gap between robust cryptographic security and practical usability, this paper proposes the Medical Collaboration Room (MCR). The MCR functions as a secure virtual enclave governed by a hybrid cryptographic architecture. By combining the distributed trust model of Shamir's Secret Sharing (SSS) with the fine-grained authorization of Key-Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (KP-ABE), the MCR ensures that session keys are never exposed in their entirety to any single entity during the distribution phase.

The primary contributions of this paper are:

- **Hybrid Cryptographic Scheme:** A protocol integrating the threshold properties of SSS with the expressive policy enforcement of KP-ABE to manage ephemeral session keys.
- **Context-Aware Authorization:** A mechanism where access rights are derived from dynamic attributes (e.g., time, location, medical role) rather than static identities.

- **Temporal Secrecy:** The inclusion of expiration timestamps and on-demand key renewal protocols ensures forward and backward secrecy, isolating sessions cryptographically.
- **Operational Validation:** A detailed case study simulating an emergency stroke intervention to demonstrate the protocol's efficacy.

2. RELATED WORK

Recent literature highlights the tension between data accessibility and security in healthcare. Kruk et al. [1] emphasize that high-quality health systems require revolutionizing data accessibility. To secure this data, Jiang et al. [2] proposed combining Attribute-Based Encryption (ABE) with blockchain technology to protect EHRs. While effective for static record storage, blockchain transactions can introduce latency that may be suboptimal for real-time communication sessions. Barbaria et al. [3] further explored blockchain strategies to ensure compliance with HIPAA and GDPR during clinical research data exchange. However, these solutions primarily address auditability and data provenance rather than the ephemeral session management required for live teleconsultations. Context-aware security models are critical for dynamic environments. Psarra et al. [4] proposed a combination of Attribute-Based Access Control (ABAC) and ABE for the healthcare domain. Our work extends this concept by introducing a threshold-based trust model (SSS) specifically designed for real-time collaboration sessions, reducing the reliance on a single central authority during the active communication phase.

3. PRELIMINARIES

The proposed MCR architecture relies on two core cryptographic primitives: Shamir's Secret Sharing (SSS) and Key-Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (KP-ABE).

3.1 SHAMIR'S SECRET SHARING (SSS)[5]

SSS is a method for dividing a secret S (in our case, the session key $K_{session}$) into n parts, such that any subset of t shares are sufficient to reconstruct S . This is achieved via polynomial interpolation over a finite field. A polynomial $f(x)$ of degree $t-1$ is constructed such that $f(0) = S$. The shares are distinct points $(x_i, f(x_i))$. Reconstruction is performed using Lagrange interpolation:

$$S = \sum_{i=1}^t y_i \prod_{j=1, j \neq i}^t \frac{x_j}{x_j - x_i}$$

This mechanism ensures collusion resistance, as any coalition of fewer than t participants gain zero information about the secret.

3.2 KEY-POLICY ATTRIBUTE-BASED ENCRYPTION (KP-ABE)[6]

In KP-ABE, ciphertexts are labeled with a set of descriptive attributes, while user private keys are associated with an access structure (policy P). A user can decrypt a ciphertext if and only if the attributes of the ciphertext satisfy the access structure embedded in their private key. This allows for fine-grained access control, enabling policies such as:

$$P = \{role = Doctor \wedge specialty \in \{Cardiology \vee Radiology \vee Emergency\} \wedge hospital = (CHU_Batna \vee CHU_Constantine)\}.$$

4. THE PROPOSED MCR ARCHITECTURE

The MCR architecture is designed to operate over untrusted networks, using a cloud server for data relay without granting it access to plaintext data. The system entities include a Trusted Authority (setup), a Session Leader (initiator), an Untrusted Cloud (storage), and Medical Participants (users). To visualize the interactions and data flow within our system, Figure 1 provides a comprehensive overview of the proposed architecture, segmented into four distinct operational phases.

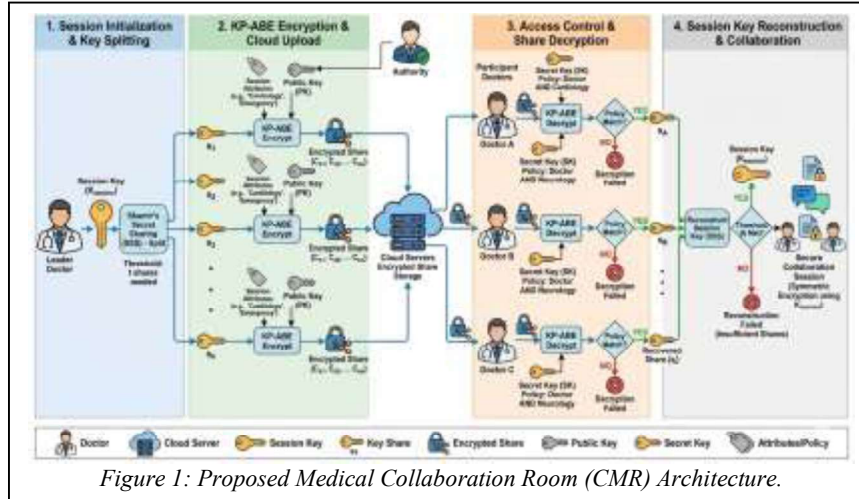


Figure 1: Proposed Medical Collaboration Room (CMR) Architecture.

As depicted in Figure 1, the architecture operates through the following sequential phases:

PHASE 1: SESSION INITIALIZATION AND KEY SPLITTING

The process begins with the Session Leader (e.g., the attending physician) initiating a collaboration session. As shown in the first panel of Figure 1, the Leader generates a random symmetric Session Key K_{Session} to secure data transmission. To prevent single-point compromise, this key is not distributed directly. Instead, it is split into n secret shares ($s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n$) using Shamir's Secret Sharing (SSS) with a (t, n) threshold, meaning at least t shares are required for reconstruction.

PHASE 2: KP-ABE ENCRYPTION AND CLOUD UPLOAD

In the second phase, the Leader defines a set of Contextual Session Attributes (S_{Session}), such as "Cardiology" or "Emergency," along with an expiration time (τ_{exp}). Each secret share (s_i) is then individually encrypted using Key-Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (KP-ABE). The encryption uses the Public Key (PK) provided by the Authority and the defined session attributes. This results in encrypted shares ($C_{s_1}, C_{s_2}, \dots, C_{s_n}$), which are securely uploaded to the Cloud Servers. The cloud operates as a semi-trusted authority that stores the shares but is structurally unable to decrypt them.

PHASE 3: ACCESS CONTROL AND SHARE DECRYPTION

The third phase involves the Participant Doctors. Each doctor holds a unique Secret Key (SK) issued by the Authority, which embeds their specific access policy (e.g., "Doctor AND Cardiology"). Doctors download the encrypted shares from the cloud. As illustrated in Figure 1, a doctor can only decrypt their specific share if their attributes satisfy the policy embedded in the encrypted share. For example, Doctor A (Cardiologist) has a policy match and successfully recovers share s_A , whereas Doctor B (Neurologist) fails the policy check for a cardiology-specific share and cannot decrypt.

PHASE 4: SESSION KEY RECONSTRUCTION AND COLLABORATION

In the final phase, once a Threshold of at least t authorized doctors have successfully recovered their shares (e.g., s_A and s_B), they collaborate to reconstruct the original Session Key K_{Session} . The system verifies if the threshold t is met. If successful, the reconstructed key is used to establish a Secure Collaboration Session using symmetric encryption (e.g., AES-GCM), allowing the doctors to share sensitive files and communicate securely.

4.1 Propose d Algorithm

To formalize the operational logic described above, we present the step-by-step algorithm for Dynamic and Contextual Session Key Management. Table 1 outlines the complete algorithmic flow,

detailing the specific actions taken by the Authority, Leader, and Doctors from initial setup to key renewal.

Table 1 : Proposed Algorithm for Dynamic and Contextual Session Key Management

Input: Security parameter λ , doctors $D = \{d_1, \dots, d_n\}$, threshold t , session lifetime τ_{exp}
Output: Secure and dynamic session key $K_{session}$
1. Setup: Authority runs $\text{Setup}(\lambda) \rightarrow (PK, MK)$
2. Key Generation: Leader generates random $K_{session}$ with timestamp τ_{exp}
3. Secret Sharing: Split $K_{session} \rightarrow \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_n\}$, using Shamir (t, n)
4. Attribute Definition: Define contextual attributes $S_{session}$
5. Encryption: For each doctor d_i : $CT_i \leftarrow \text{Encrypt}(PK, s_i, S_{session}, \tau_{exp})$
6. Distribution: Send CT_i to corresponding doctor d_i .
7. Decryption: Each d_i holding $SK_i = \text{KeyGen}(MK, P_i)$: if $(S_{session} \models P_i)$ and $(\text{current_time} < \tau_{exp})$ $s_i \leftarrow \text{Decrypt}(CT_i, SK_i)$
8. Reconstruction: If $\geq t$ valid s_i recovered $K_{session} \leftarrow \text{Reconstruct}(\{s_i\})$
9. Session Usage: Use $K_{session}$ for symmetric encryption in MCR.
10. Expiration: At τ_{exp} or session end: Revoke all CT_i and delete $K_{session}$
11. Renewal: For next session: Generate fresh $K'_{session}$ and new attributes $S_{session}$

As detailed in Table 1, the algorithm executes as follows:

4.1.1 Setup & Key Generation (Steps 1-2): The Trusted Authority initializes the system parameters. The Session Leader then generates a random symmetric session key $K_{Session}$ and assigns it a specific lifetime (τ_{exp}).

4.1.2 Secret Sharing & Attribute Definition (Steps 3-4): The Leader splits $K_{Session}$ into n shares $(s_1, \dots, s_n)$ using the (t, n) Shamir threshold scheme. Simultaneously, contextual attributes $S_{session}$ (e.g., Role, Specialty) are defined.

4.1.3 Encryption & Distribution (Steps 5-6): Each share s_i is encrypted via KP-ABE using the public key (PK) and session attributes. The resulting ciphertexts (CT_i) are distributed to the corresponding doctors via the cloud.

4.1.4 Decryption (Step 7): Each doctor d_i uses their private key SK_i . The algorithm checks if the session attributes $S_{session}$ satisfy the doctor's access policy P_i AND if the current time is within the valid window (τ_{exp}). If both conditions are met, the share s_i is decrypted.

4.1.5 Reconstruction & Usage (Steps 8-9): If at least t valid shares are recovered, the doctors cooperatively reconstruct $K_{Session}$. This key is then used for high-speed symmetric encryption within the MCR.

4.1.6 Expiration & Renewal (Steps 10-11): Upon reaching (τ_{exp}), the system enforces forward secrecy by revoking all ciphertexts and deleting the old key. For a subsequent session, the Leader generates a fresh key $K'_{Session}$ and updates the attributes, ensuring backward secrecy.

5. CASE STUDY: DYNAMIC CONTEXTUAL ACCESS CONTROL

To validate the adaptability of the MCR architecture, we analyze a specific operational scenario: an Emergency Stroke Case. This scenario demonstrates how the system handles diverse participants with varying attributes under strict time constraints.

5.1 SCENARIO PARAMETERS

- **Session Context:** Emergency Stroke Intervention
- **Time Window:** 14:30 – 15:10
- **Expiration Timestamp (τ_{exp}):** 15:10
- **Threshold Scheme:** (3, 5): A minimum of 3 doctors is required to unlock the session.

Session Policy (Encoded on Shares):

The session requires participants to meet the following compound policy:

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$$P = (Role = Doctor) \wedge (Specialty \in \{Cardiology, Neurology, Radiology, Emergency\}) \wedge (Hospital \in \{Batna, Constantine\}) \wedge (Time < \tau_{exp})$$

5.2 PARTICIPANT ATTRIBUTE MATRIX

The following table details the attributes of the five doctors attempting to join the session and the system's evaluation of their credentials.

Table 2: Results Illustration.

Doctor	Cardiologist	Neurologist	Radiologist	ER Doctor	Guest Oncologist
Affiliation	CHU Batna	CHU Batna	CHU Constantine	CHU Batna	Invited (Algiers)
Join Time	14:25	14:27	14:29	15:30	14:47
Attributes Evaluated					
Role = Doctor	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Specialty Match	Yes (Cardio)	Yes (Neuro)	Yes (Radio)	Yes (Emergency)	No (Oncology)
Hospital Match	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No
Time < τ_{exp}	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Decryption Outcome	SUCCESS	SUCCESS	SUCCESS	FAIL	FAIL

5.3 ANALYSIS OF OUTCOMES

- **SUCCESSFUL ACCESS:** The Cardiologist, Neurologist, Radiologist, and ER Doctor all possess attributes that fully satisfy the session policy. Consequently, they successfully decrypt their respective shares.
- **ACCESS DENIAL (THE GUEST ONCOLOGIST):** Although the Guest Oncologist is a valid doctor and joined within the time window, their specific attributes (Specialty=Oncology and Hospital=Algiers) do not satisfy the session's restrictive policy. The cryptographic decryption fails, preventing them from accessing the share.
- **ACCESS DENIAL (TIME EXPIRY OF THE ER DOCTOR):** Where an ER Doctor attempts to join the session at 15:30, after the expiration timestamp ($\tau_{exp} = 15:10$). Even though this doctor possesses the correct Role, Specialty, and Hospital attributes, the condition (Time < τ_{exp}) fails. The cryptographic operation cannot proceed, ensuring that expired keys cannot be used to decrypt shares, thereby enforcing forward secrecy.
- **THRESHOLD SATISFACTION:** With 4 valid shares recovered (exceeding the threshold $t = 3$), the authorized group successfully reconstructs $K_{Session}$ and establishes the secure channel.

This case study confirms that the MCR architecture enforces "True Contextual & Dynamic Access" without reliance on manual Access Control Lists (ACLs) or a central revocation server.

6 SECURITY ANALYSIS

The proposed Medical Collaboration Room (MCR) architecture provides a robust protection model that integrates cryptographic confidentiality, dynamic access control, and temporal key isolation. By encrypting each secret share under Key-Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (KP-ABE), the system ensures that only doctors whose access structures match the contextual session attributes can retrieve valid shares. Unauthorized users, including cloud providers, gain no knowledge of either the shares or the reconstructed symmetric key $K_{Session}$. The integration of Shamir's Secret

Sharing strengthens resistance to partial compromise: less than t decrypted shares reveal no information about the session key K_{session} , guaranteeing collusion resistance among semi-trusted participants. Furthermore, embedding an expiration timestamp (τ_{exp}) in the session key enforces forward and backward secrecy, preventing both past and future decryption once the key expires. Overall, the hybrid model resists insider misuse, replay, and key-exposure attacks while maintaining scalability and low computation overhead key requirements for real-time collaborative medical systems.

- **FORWARD SECRECY:** Once the current time exceeds 15:10, the "Time" attribute check fails. No user, even those previously authorized, can decrypt shares from an expired session.
- **BACKWARD SECRECY:** When a new session is initialized with a fresh K_{session} , shares are re-encrypted with new random values. A new participant joining the *next* session cannot use their new share to reconstruct the previous session's key.

7. CONCLUSION

The proposed Medical Collaboration Room (MCR) architecture provides a secure, dynamic, and time-bound collaboration environment for distributed medical professionals. By combining Key-Policy Attribute-Based Encryption (KP-ABE), Shamir's Secret Sharing (SSS), and temporal key management, the framework enforces fine-grained, context-aware access control while maintaining low computational complexity suitable for real-time communication. This integration guarantees data confidentiality, resilience to collusion, and automatic forward and backward secrecy, ensuring that each session remains cryptographically isolated from others. Doctors can collaborate seamlessly, share diagnostic information, and exchange encrypted medical data without exposing sensitive patient details to untrusted cloud infrastructures. Beyond securing current interactions, the architecture's modular design supports dynamic participant management, allowing secure inclusion or revocation of users as medical contexts evolve. The analyzed Emergency Stroke Case demonstrates the system's ability to dynamically enforce complex policies filtering participants based on role, specialty, affiliation, and time without administrative intervention. This adaptability aligns with the operational needs of modern telemedicine and emergency response systems. In future work, we plan to implement and evaluate the framework in a simulated hospital network to measure latency, scalability, and energy consumption, and to integrate blockchain-based auditing for traceability and accountability in multi-institutional collaborations. Overall, the proposed architecture lays a robust foundation for trustworthy and context-aware real-time medical collaboration, bridging the gap between cryptographic security and practical usability in cloud-based healthcare systems.

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Computational First-Principles Investigation of CsBS₄ for Optoelectronic and Solar Energy Applications

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Abstract: Cesium Tetrathio borate (CsBS₄) is a promising material in the field of optoelectronics and solar energy applications. This study investigates the structural, electronic, and optical properties of CsBS₄ through first-principles calculations. The results indicate that CsBS₄ possesses a direct band gap of 1.30 eV, moderate mechanical stability, and strong optical absorption in the UV-visible range, making it a suitable candidate for photovoltaic devices and solar energy systems. These findings suggest that CsBS₄ has significant potential for integration into solar energy systems and light-based technologies.

Keywords: CsBS₄, first-principles calculations, CASTEP, semiconductor, solar cells, photovoltaic applications

1. INTRODUCTION

Cesium Tetrathio borate (CsBS₄) is a member of the thioborate family, a class of compounds known for their unique structural characteristics and exceptional optical properties. Thioborates, with their tetrahedral [BS₄]³⁻ anionic units, exhibit wide band gaps, thermal stability, and the potential for nonlinear optical behavior, which makes them ideal candidates for optoelectronic and energy applications. Among the thioborates, CsBS₄ is an emerging material that has shown significant potential for use in solar energy technologies, particularly in photovoltaic devices. Despite being relatively understudied compared to other thioborates such as K₃BS₄ and NaBS₄, which have been explored for their ionic conductivity and optical performance, CsBS₄ holds promise for solar cell applications due to its semiconducting behavior and structural stability [1, 2]. This study aims to investigate the electronic band structure, optical absorption, and mechanical stability of CsBS₄ using first-principles calculations to evaluate its potential for use in photovoltaic devices and other solar energy systems [3].

2. COMPUTATIONAL METHODOLOGY

First-principles calculations using CASTEP were performed on CsBS₄ employing the GGA-PBE functional. The ultra-soft pseudopotentials were used for the Cs, B, and S atoms, with a plane-wave cut-off energy of 380 eV. A 5×5×5 k-point grid was used for the Brillouin zone integration, ensuring total energy convergence. The electronic structure and optical properties were calculated with GGA-PBE+U [3].

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

III.1. THERMAL STABILITY PROPERTIES

Figure 1 shows The phonon density of states and phonon dispersion indicate that CsBS₄'s orthorhombic structure in the **Pnma** space group is thermally stable. Stability and energies are

calculated as functions of the wave vector of phonons in the long-wavelength limit. When these points are extended over the whole reciprocal space of the appropriate size, they form the complete phonon density of states curves. In the frequency versus q-space plot (phonon curve), regions of states correspond to the frequencies of transverse phonons. After testing the stable crystal structure of **CsBS₄**, the positive range of the phonon density of states and phonon dispersion further confirm that the orthorhombic structure in the **Pnma** space group is the stable structure for **CsBS₄**. This result is consistent with the material's potential for high-temperature energy applications [1].

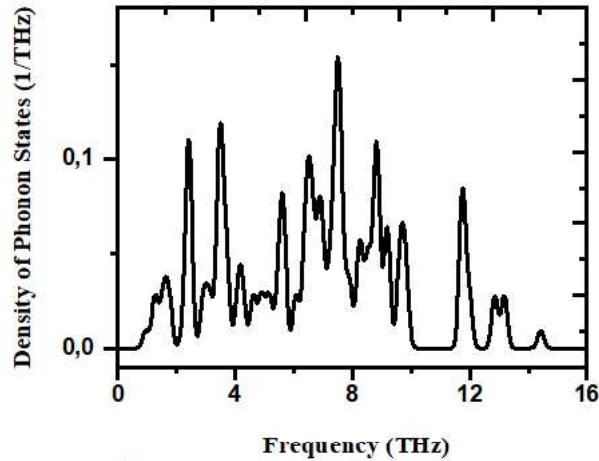


Figure 1. Phonon Density of States and Phonon Dispersion of CsBS₄ in the Pnma Orthorhombic Structure.

III.2. ELECTRONIC PROPERTIES

In figure 3, we show the band structure curves of ZrO₂ and ZrO₂ dopped with Cu using GGA-PBE. We chose 380 eV as cut-off energy and 5x5x5 as K-points within Monkhorst pack grids. the material studied here carried a semiconductor nature with direct band gap of 1,30eV which makes it a promising candidate for photovoltaic applications.

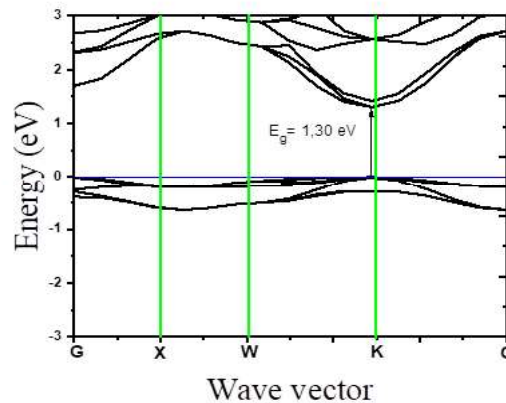


Figure 3. Band structue calculated of CsBS₄ compound using GGA-PBE+U

4. CONCLUSION

This study provides valuable insights into the properties of **CsBS₄**, showing it as a potential candidate for use in optoelectronics and solar energy applications. The material's stable orthorhombic structure in the **Pnma** space group ensures its robustness and reliability in various

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21th-23th November 2025–ONLINE**

environmental conditions, making it suitable for high-temperature applications. Additionally, the semiconducting behavior of **CsBS₄**, demonstrated by its direct band gap of 1.30 eV, positions it as an ideal candidate for photovoltaic devices and solar cells, where efficient charge transport is essential. The study also highlights the material's strong optical absorption in the UV-visible range, a critical feature for materials used in light-harvesting technologies. These combined properties suggest that **CsBS₄** can play a significant role in the development of advanced optoelectronic devices, such as solar panels and photodetectors, while contributing to the growing demand for sustainable energy solutions [4].

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Task-space Fuzzy PID Control for a 3-DOF Manipulator

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Abstract: Controlling robotic manipulators in task space is challenging due to nonlinear dynamics. This thesis compares a classical PID controller with a fuzzy PID controller based on a Takagi-Sugeno system, using the dynamic model of a 3 degrees of freedom robotic manipulator. The fuzzy PID controller adjusts parameters dynamically, leading to faster response times, reduced overshoot, and lower steady-state error, thus showcasing the advantages of fuzzy logic in enhancing the controller's performance.

Keywords: classical PID, fuzzy PID, task space, modeling, robotic manipulator

INTRODUCTION

Robotic manipulators are of major importance in many applications, ranging from manufacturing to medical robotics. Their efficient control is a critical challenge given their highly nonlinear nature, often subject to dynamic couplings and model uncertainties.

Classical control methods, particularly PID (Proportional–Integral–Derivative) control, have been widely used for robotic manipulators in industrial settings due to their simplicity, robustness, and reliability. PID control generates corrective torque based on position error feedback, addressing current errors, historical errors, and predicting future errors. Despite its benefits in controlled environments, it struggles with the non-linearities of complex robotic systems and is less effective in managing disturbances and uncertainties in modeling.

Another classical, more sophisticated approach is computed torque control (CTC). It relies on an explicit correction of the non-linear movements of the manipulator arm, including inertia, Coriolis forces, and gravitational force. By neutralizing these effects using a dynamic model of the robot, the system transforms into a series of distinct linear systems. This allows for particularly precise trajectory tracking, even in cases of complex dynamics. This approach requires a deep understanding of the robot's model, and any uncertainty in the modeling can significantly influence its performance.

Advanced control techniques have been developed to overcome the limitations of traditional methods such as PID control or TOR control. One of the most notable methods is Task Space Control (TSC), which stands out for its ability to directly manage the position and orientation of the robot's end-effector, rather than individual joints [1][2]. This approach allows for more intuitive manipulation of the robot, especially in applications where the ultimate goal is to manipulate the end effector. This approach relies on the conversion of the robot's dynamic model, utilizing the Jacobian matrix and other kinematic parameters to establish a link between the joint movements and those of the end-effector [1][3]. Despite its efficiency, task space control is generally associated with additional complexity, involving the management of multi-level dynamics and the processing of large amounts of real-time data [3].

Model Predictive Control (MPC) is a contemporary technique that relies on anticipating future trajectories using a dynamic model of the system and established constraints in the command space. Unlike traditional methods that respond to errors in real time, MPC determines optimal control actions over a defined time horizon by solving an optimization problem at each moment [10]. This approach allows for the consideration of the robot's physical constraints, such as speed or torque limits, as well as performance objectives like error minimization. Although powerful, MPC is computationally expensive and requires a precise dynamic model to avoid poor performance[4].

Hybrid controllers for robotic manipulators have evolved to surpass the limitations of classical methods like PID control, which is effective in stable environments but struggles in dynamic situations. To enhance system efficiency, mixed strategies combining various controllers have been utilized. Additionally, adaptive fuzzy control enables the management of uncertain and nonlinear systems through approximate rules rather than precise models, allowing for the adjustment of control parameters in response to errors and environmental changes. This combination of fuzzy logic with other methods, such as PID, helps with the development of adaptable and resilient systems suitable for complex and varying environments.

fuzzy, adaptive, predictive, or AI-based methods constitute promising alternatives to address the complexity of modern robotic systems. Current trends are moving toward autonomous, adaptive controllers capable of interacting in real-time with an uncertain environment.

1. METHODOLOGY

System description

The paper describes a three-degree-of-freedom manipulator arm designed for precise tasks like welding and assembly in a simulated environment. The arm is fixed to a base and comprises three rigid bodies connected by rotary joints, all modeled as entirely rigid without flex or play. The end effector is a generic tool, and the bodies are homogeneous cylindrical shapes to streamline inertia and energy calculations. The joints are treated as frictionless and idealized, as shown in figure X

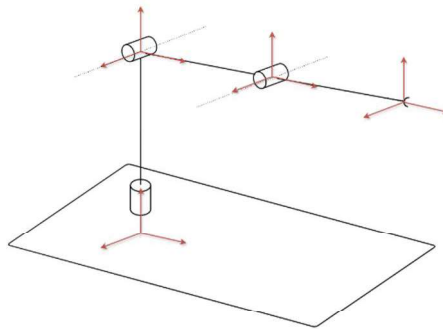


Fig. 1 Robotic manipulator structure

Kinematic and dynamic models

The kinematic model of a manipulator arm allows for the connection between joint movements and the displacements of the final effector in space. For this, we adopt a systematic representation using the Denavit-Hartenberg convention, which defines the transformations between the different frames that link the bodies of the manipulator arm.

The dynamic formulation of the manipulator arm is based on the Lagrangian approach, which involves deriving the equations of motion from the mechanical energies of the system. Two types of energy are considered: gravitational potential energy and kinetic energy. The dynamic model of the robotic manipulator is represented by equation (1).

$$M(\theta) \ddot{\theta} + C(\theta, \dot{\theta}) \dot{\theta} + G(\theta) = \tau \quad (1)$$

Classical PID controller approach

The PID approach in task space is a control technique that directly intervenes on the forces or torques applied to the robot's end-effector in Cartesian space, instead of managing the speeds or positions of the joints separately. The PID is a control law based on the error between a setpoint and a measurement. In task space, this error is defined in Cartesian space as the difference between the desired position of the end-effector X_d and its actual position X . The task space involves variables related to end-effector movement, such as position, orientation, and linear speed. In contrast to joint space, which uses angular positions θ for commands, task space simplifies reasoning for trajectory tracking. Effective application of Cartesian force requires consideration of the robot's equivalent inertia in this space, defined by the task space inertia matrix $\lambda(\theta)$.

$$\lambda(\theta) = [J(\theta) \times M^{-1}(\theta) \times J^T(\theta)]^{-1} \quad (3)$$

The full control law is represented by equation (4)

$$F(t) = \lambda(\theta) \times [K_p e(t) + K_i \int_0^t e(\tau) d\tau + K_d \frac{de(t)}{dt}] \quad (4)$$

Fuzzy task space PID approach

The fuzzy controller used in this study is based on the Takagi-Sugeno architecture. Unlike Mamdani-type fuzzy approaches, which produce fuzzy outputs requiring complex defuzzification, the Takagi-Sugeno model directly generates numerical outputs. This allows for simpler and faster integration into a control loop [28]. In the context of task space control, the objective of the fuzzy controller is to dynamically adjust the gains K_p , K_d , and K_i of the PID, based on the instantaneous state of the system. The fuzzy system uses Cartesian error and its derivative as inputs. The fuzzy system consists of the three classical steps: fuzzification of inputs, rule inference, and then defuzzification in the form of weighted aggregation, as established in [29]. These steps allow for dynamic adjustment of the PID gains.

2. RESULTS OF THE STUDY

The goal of this section is to present and analyze the results obtained by the different controllers developed for the manipulator arm. The primary criterion being precision and the second is the ability to track under varied command conditions. Two control methods were proposed, implemented, and tested. First, a classical PID controller, and second, a fuzzy PID. To evaluate the performance of the proposed methods, two test scenarios are considered. The first involves following a fixed command, allowing for the evaluation of the controller's ability to reach a target position with precision and without excessive overshoot. The second scenario involves following a continuous sinusoidal trajectory, thereby evaluating the responsiveness of movements to temporal variations in the reference trajectory and the smoothness of the manipulator arm's motion. These tests will provide the necessary elements to compare the performance of the two proposed control methods. Figure 2 represents the X frame end-effector's response to a step input, and figure 3 shows its response to a sinusoidal trajectory.

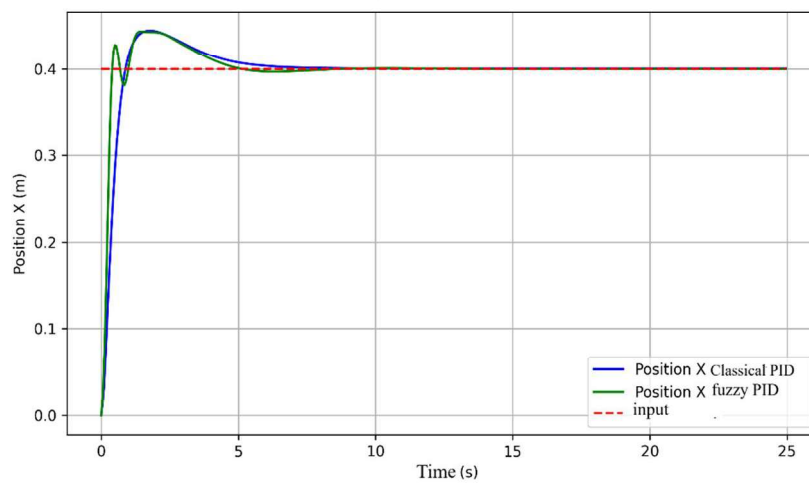


Fig .2 X frame end-effector's response

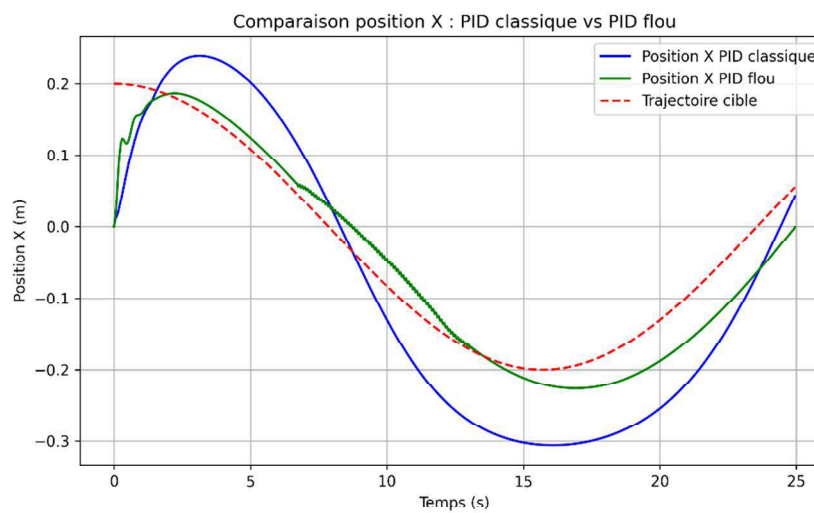


Fig .3 X frame end-effector's response to a sinusoidal input

Structural and optical properties of CsBS₄: solar energy application

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Abstract: Cesium Tetrathio borate (CsBS₄) is an emerging material in materials science, especially for optical and electronic applications. It shows promising properties such as structural stability and potential ionic conductivity. CsBS₄ belongs to the thioborate family, known for their unique bonding and ideal band gap. While less studied than traditional oxide ceramics, its analogs like K₃BS₄ and NaBS₄ have shown potential in solid-state ionics and photonic devices. In this study, first-principles calculations using CASTEP and the GGA-PBE functional were used to investigate its structural, electronic, and optical properties. The results show a primitive cell volume of 426.96 Å³, bulk modulus of 75.84 GPa, and a semiconducting band gap. Optical analysis indicates strong absorption in the UV-visible range, suggesting suitability for photoluminescent and photovoltaic applications. These findings highlight CsBS₄ as a potential candidate for optoelectronic devices, nonlinear optics, and solid-state energy systems.

Keywords: CsBS₄, First-principles calculations, CASTEP, semiconductor, solar cells

1. INTRODUCTION

Thioborate compounds, characterized by their tetrahedral [BS₄]³⁻ anionic units, have gained attention in materials science for their wide band gaps, high stability, and potential for nonlinear optical behavior, making them suitable for photonics, optoelectronics, and solid-state ionic systems [1]. Recent studies on thioborates like K₃BS₄, NaBS₄, and Cu₃SbS₄ highlight their dielectric performance and optical properties. For example, K₃BS₄ is explored for its ionic conductivity in solid-state batteries, while Cu₃SbS₄ shows promise in thermoelectric and photovoltaic devices [2-4].

Inspired by these studies, we focus on cesium tetrathio borate (CsBS₄), using first-principles calculations based on density functional theory (DFT) to explore its electronic structure and optical response. The GGA-PBE approximation allows accurate modeling of its band structure and dielectric function, revealing a wide band gap and potential for use in UV and visible light applications.

2. COMPUTATIONAL METHODOLOGY

For cubic CsBS₄, and its thermal stability, structural, electronic and optical properties, Density functional theory (DFT) calculations are conducted using the plane-wave ultrasoft pseudopotential, employing the GGA-PBE functional and within the CASTEP (Cambridge Sequential Total Energy Package) code [5, 6]. Ultrasoft pseudopotentials are utilized to represent the ionic cores of Cs, B and S atoms, with specific treatment of valence electrons for each atom. The plane-wave cut-off energy is set at 380 eV, and Brillouin-zone integration is achieved over a 5 × 5 × 5 grid using the Monkhorst–Pack method for primitive and supercell optimization [7, 8]. These parameters ensure total energy convergence, maximum force, maximum stress, and maximum displacement. Upon geometry structure optimization, electronic structures and optical properties of C-CsBS₄ are calculated using Generalized Gradient Approximation with Hubbard correction GGA-PBE+U. On the other hand the calculation will be presented elsewhere the self-consistent field tolerance is set

at 3×10^{-6} eV atom⁻¹, with a maximum potential of 0.05 eV per angstrom, maximum stress of 0.2 GPa, and a maximum displacement of 0.002 angstroms.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

III.1. STRUCTURAL PROPERTIES

the structure of primitive cell of CsBS₄ compound. The cubic structure space group F-43m is the stable structure of this compound. In Table 1 we show our results for the values of lattice parameters, Bulk modulus and ground state energies of CsBS₄ compounds calculated with GGA-PBE functional.

Table1. Structural properties of CsBS₄ calculated using GGA+U

<i>Compound</i>	<i>Ground state energy (eV)</i>	<i>Lattice constant a,b and c (Å)</i>	<i>Bulk modulus B₀ (GPa)</i>
CsBS ₄	-19165,67	a=b=c=7.53, V=426.96 Å ³	75.84

III.2. OPTICAL PROPERTIES

The dielectric function and related optical properties of CsBS₄ were determined by applying an upward rigid shift to the band gap of all conduction band states. A convergence study was conducted with approximately 100 symmetrized k points, which was sufficient for this material. Figure 4 shows the real and imaginary parts of the dielectric function for CsBS₄ in the cubic phase, considering energies up to 30 eV, with the energy spectrum shifted upwards to match the theoretical band gap of 1.30 eV.

Figure 5 illustrates the optical absorption for the GGA-PBE+U functional. The absorption coefficient $\alpha(\omega)$ shows visible range absorption, with intensity increasing between 2 and 5 eV. The optical absorption coefficient is 6.1×10^5 cm⁻¹ for CsBS₄, suggesting its potential use in photovoltaic and solar cell technology. Furthermore, the material's semiconducting behavior makes it promising for optoelectronic devices.

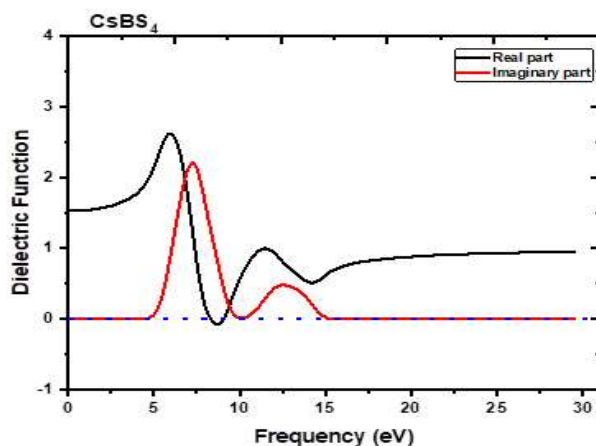


Figure 4. Dielectric function calculated of CsBS₄ compound using GGA-PBE+U

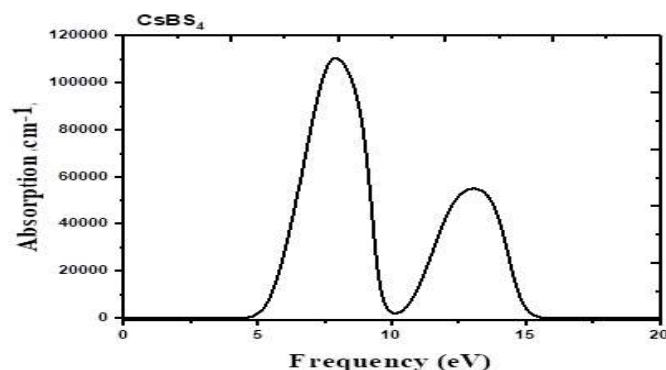


Figure 5. Absorption curve of CsBS₄ compound using GGA-PBE+U

4. CONCLUSION

This work presents a theoretical investigation of a promising and relatively unexplored compound: cesium tetrathiorate (CsBS₄). As a member of the thioborate family, CsBS₄ features a structurally stable framework built around tetrahedral [BS₄]³⁻ units, which contribute to its chemical robustness and wide band gap. Our first-principles calculations reveal that CsBS₄ exhibits key properties desirable for optoelectronic applications, including strong optical absorption in the UV-visible range, insulating or semiconducting behavior, and a stable crystal structure. These characteristics position CsBS₄ as a viable candidate for use in photonic devices, optical coatings, and solid-state energy systems. Given its structural simplicity and functional potential, CsBS₄ opens new avenues for material design within the thioborate family. Future experimental validation and compositional tuning may further enhance its performance, enabling its integration into advanced technologies such as nonlinear optics, photoluminescent platforms, and solid-state ionic conductors.

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Deep Transfer Learning-Based Broken Rotor Fault Diagnosis for Induction Motors

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Abstract: This paper proposes a deep transfer learning framework for early diagnosis of broken rotor bar (BRB) faults in three-phase induction motors using vibration-based analysis. Conventional vibration monitoring techniques based on handcrafted spectral features are often sensitive to noise, load variations, and parameter uncertainties, which limits their robustness in industrial environments. In the proposed approach, acceleration signals (Vib_acpi) are transformed into time-frequency spectrograms using the Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT) and used as input images for pre-trained convolutional neural networks (CNNs) such as AlexNet, VGG16, and ResNet50. Only the classifier layers are fine-tuned with a BRB dataset, while convolutional layers are kept frozen to exploit generic features learned from large-scale image databases. Experimental results obtained on an induction-motor test bench show that the fine-tuned ResNet50 model achieves a classification accuracy close to 99.73%, outperforming classical machine-learning methods and shallower CNNs, and demonstrating the potential of the proposed framework for intelligent condition monitoring of induction motors.

Keywords: Induction motor, broken rotor bar, deep learning, transfer learning, vibration analysis, CNN.

1. INTRODUCTION

Induction motors are extensively used in industrial applications and electric vehicles thanks to their high reliability, simple construction, and low cost, but they remain vulnerable to electrical and mechanical faults that can lead to efficiency degradation, unscheduled downtime, and safety issues [1], [2]. Among these defects, broken rotor bars are particularly critical because they directly affect the electromagnetic torque and can propagate into severe rotor damage if they are not detected at an early stage [2].

Traditional fault diagnosis strategies rely heavily on vibration monitoring combined with signal-processing tools such as FFT, wavelet transforms, or envelope analysis, and require careful design of diagnostic features and thresholds [3], [4]. These approaches can achieve good performance under controlled conditions, but their sensitivity to operating-point variations, noise, and modeling inaccuracies motivates the use of data-driven methods. Recent progress in machine learning and deep learning has enabled automatic feature extraction from raw or transformed signals, especially through convolutional neural networks that have shown remarkable results in many pattern-recognition tasks [5], [8].

However, training deep CNNs from scratch typically requires large labeled datasets, which are rarely available in industrial fault diagnosis where annotated fault data are expensive to obtain. Transfer learning addresses this limitation by reusing CNNs pre-trained on large image databases and adapting only the last layers to the target application [9]. The main objective of this work is to design and evaluate a deep transfer learning-based framework for BRB diagnosis using vibration spectrograms, and to compare its performance with existing approaches on a representative induction-motor dataset.

2. PROPOSED METHOD

The proposed diagnostic framework combines vibration analysis, time–frequency signal transformation, and transfer learning within a unified pipeline composed of four stages: data acquisition, signal transformation, feature extraction, and classification.

A. Data Acquisition and Transformation

Vibration acceleration signals (Vib_acpi) are acquired from an induction-motor test bench operating under different torque levels and rotor conditions. Each acceleration signal is segmented into fixed-length windows, normalized, and converted into a two-dimensional time-frequency representation using the Short-Time Fourier Transform (STFT). As illustrated in Fig. 1, this process generates spectrograms that highlight fault-induced components as localized patterns in the time-frequency plane.

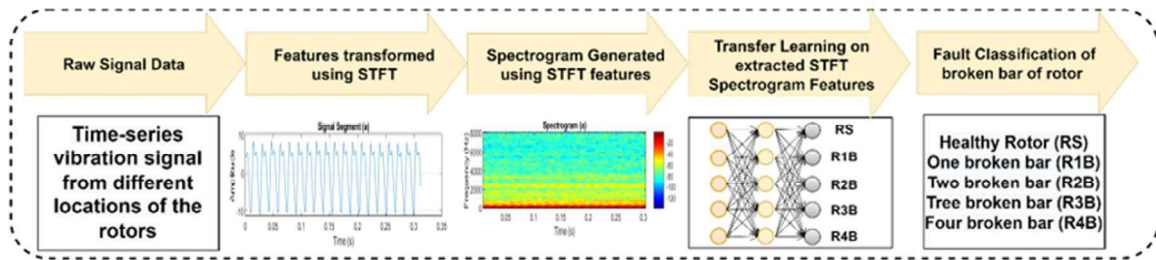


Fig. 1: Methodology of the proposed work utilizing analysis in the time-frequency domain (STFT).

The resulting spectrograms are scaled and resized to match the input size of standard CNN architectures (e.g., 224×224 pixels) and stacked as three-channel images suitable for transfer learning.

B. Transfer Learning Architecture

Feature extraction is performed by reusing the convolutional blocks of pre-trained AlexNet, VGG16, and ResNet50 networks, originally trained on large-scale natural image databases (ImageNet) [6], [7]. These layers are kept frozen during fine-tuning in order to preserve generic low- and mid-level features. The original fully connected layers are replaced by a new classifier composed of dense layers, dropout, and a softmax output adapted to the number of motor conditions.

Only the parameters of the new classifier are trained on the BRB spectrogram dataset using cross-entropy loss and a stochastic gradient descent optimizer with momentum. Data augmentation techniques such as random rotation, translation, and scaling are applied to the spectrograms to increase the effective training set and mitigate overfitting.

3. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

The experimental study is based on a laboratory test bench dedicated to induction-motor fault diagnosis. The test bench consists of a three-phase squirrel-cage induction motor, a DC generator used as mechanical load, a torque sensor, and an accelerometer for vibration measurement [11].

A. Dataset Description

The database comprises several operating points characterized by different torque levels (e.g., 0.5 Nm) and rotor conditions. The rotor conditions include a healthy rotor and varying severities of broken rotor bars (1, 2, 3, and 4 broken bars). Vibration acceleration signals are recorded at each operating point and multiple repetitions are conducted to capture variability. Fig. 2 shows examples of the generated STFT spectrograms for different rotor conditions.

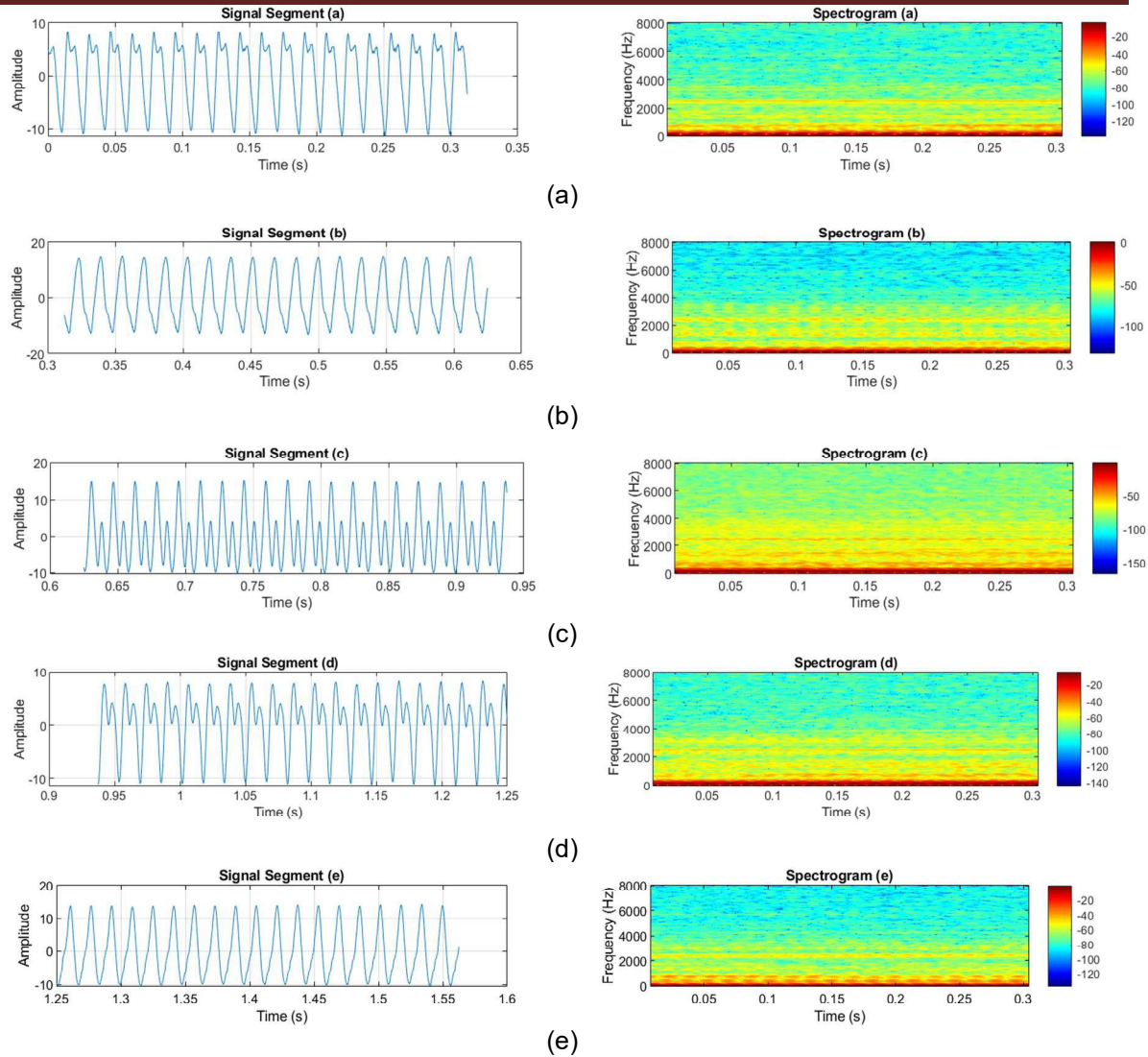


Fig. 2: The STFT data plotted and the generated spectrogram of the vibration data for 0.5 Nm torque condition (a) healthy rotor (b) one broken rotor bar (c) two broken rotor bars (d) three broken rotor bars (e) four broken rotor bars.

B. Training Configuration

The models are trained and evaluated on a workstation equipped with a multi-core CPU and GPU support, using MATLAB and the Deep Learning Toolbox. The training parameters were set as follows:

- Optimizer: Stochastic Gradient Descent with Momentum (SGDM)
- Mini-batch Size: 16
- Max Epochs: 30 (with early stopping)
- Initial Learning Rate: 0.0001
- Data Split: 70% Training, 30% Validation/Testing

4. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Training Performance

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Training and validation curves show that all transfer-learning models converge rapidly, with validation accuracy stabilizing after a limited number of epochs. Fig. 3 displays the training progress for the ResNet50 model applied to vibration spectrograms.

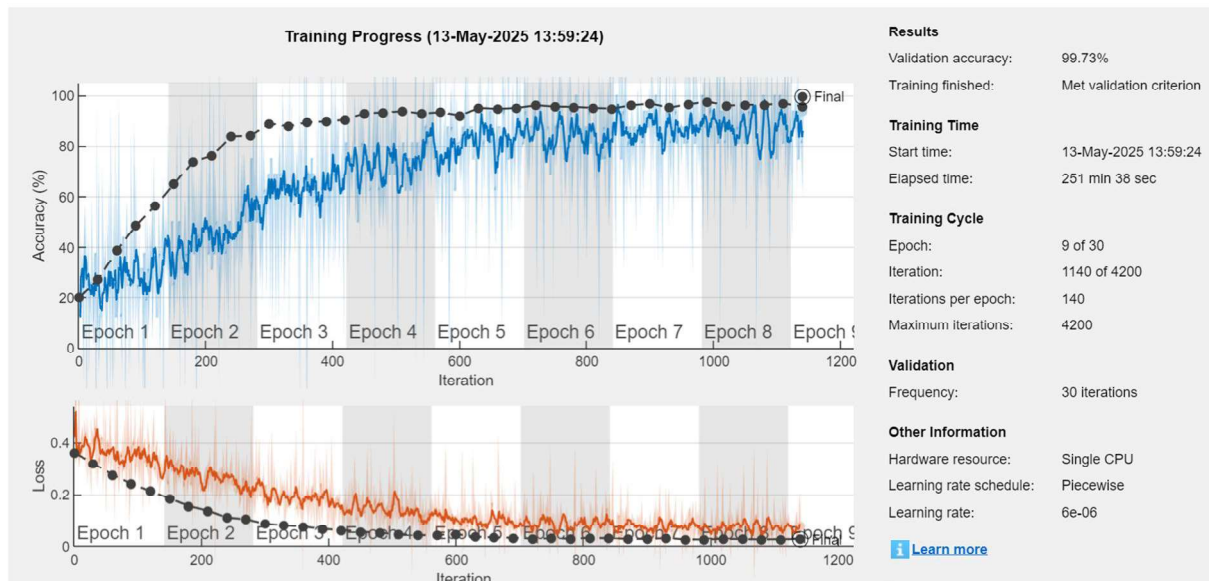


Fig. 3: Result of the training progress for fine-tuning of the ResNet50 model for Vib_acpi.

Among the evaluated architectures, ResNet50 yields the best performance, with a test accuracy close to 99.73% and smooth training behavior. The residual connections of ResNet50 help maintain gradient flow in deeper networks and improve the extraction of discriminative patterns from vibration spectrograms.

B. Classification Accuracy

Confusion matrices indicate almost perfect separation between healthy and faulty classes. Fig. 4 illustrates the confusion matrix for the ResNet50 model, showing minimal misclassifications between adjacent BRB levels.

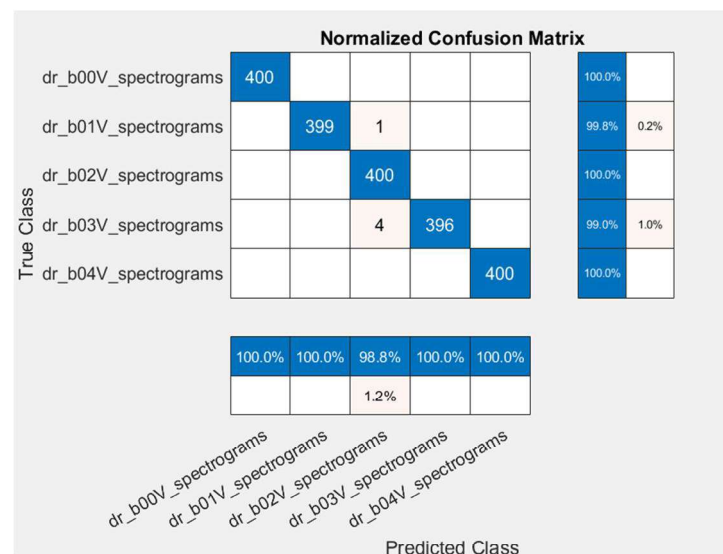


Fig. 4: Confusion matrix for ResNet50 classification process for Vib_acpi.

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Evaluation metrics such as precision, recall, and F1-score remain close to 100% for most classes. Table I compares the proposed method with other state-of-the-art approaches.

TABLE I PERFORMANCE COMPARISON OF THE PROPOSED METHOD WITH PUBLISHED WORKS

Reference	Features	Classifier	Accuracy (%)
Reference[11]	Statistical and frequency-based features by using Vib_acpi and Ia	DT	93.8
Reference[11]	Statistical and frequency-based features by using Vib_acpi and Ia	KNN	98.8
Reference[12]	Fine-tuning of ResNet18 on Vib_acpi	CNN	99.5
Reference[12]	Fine-tuning of ResNet18 on Ia	CNN	95.0
Reference[12]	Deep feature extraction from Vib_acpi	SVM	99.0
Reference[12]	Deep feature extraction from Ia	SVM	94.5
This study	Fine-tuning of ResNet50 on Vib_acpi	CNN	99.73

These results demonstrate that representing vibration acceleration signals as time–frequency images and leveraging deep transfer learning provides an effective solution for BRB diagnosis in induction motors. The approach is particularly robust to load variations and measurement noise, confirming its industrial applicability.

5. CONCLUSION

This paper has presented a deep transfer learning-based framework for diagnosing broken rotor bar faults in induction motors using vibration-based spectrograms and pre-trained CNN architectures. By freezing convolutional layers of AlexNet, VGG16, and ResNet50 and retraining only a new classifier, the proposed method achieves very high diagnostic accuracy with a limited amount of labeled data. The ResNet50 model specifically reached 99.73% accuracy on vibration signals, outperforming traditional methods and demonstrating superior performance compared to alternative architectures [10]. Future work will focus on real-time implementation on embedded platforms, extension to multiple simultaneous faults, and evaluation of multi-modal approaches combining vibration and stator current signals for comprehensive fault diagnosis [8].

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Integrating Artificial Intelligence and ECG Analysis to Detect Cardiac Effects of drug Substance Use: A Literature Review

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Abstract: Electrocardiogram (ECG) signals are a fundamental tool for assessing cardiac function and reflecting its electrical activity. Numerous studies have demonstrated the susceptibility of these sensitive signals to drug use. In recent years, artificial intelligence (AI) has emerged as an effective tool for analyzing ECG data and extracting clinically relevant hidden information. This review aims to provide an overview of studies that have used AI in ECG analysis, with a particular focus on potential applications in the context of drug addiction, and to highlight the research gap in this area. We also discuss the future prospects for developing intelligent diagnostic tools that can aid in the early detection of cardiac changes in addicts

Keywords: Artificial intelligence; ECG analysis; substance use disorders; cardiac electrophysiology; machine learning; explainable AI; wearable monitoring.

1. INTRODUCTION

The electrocardiogram (ECG) is a non-invasive, low-cost, and widely used diagnostic tool that records the electrical activity of the heart, providing essential insights into cardiac rhythm, conduction, and myocardial health. Numerous clinical and experimental studies have demonstrated that the use of certain psychoactive substances particularly opioids (including methadone), cocaine, and other illicit drugs can lead to significant alterations in ECG waveforms, such as QRS widening, QT prolongation, T-wave abnormalities, and an increased risk of arrhythmias or sudden cardiac events [1] [2].

In parallel, the rapid advancement of artificial intelligence (AI) encompassing machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) has transformed biomedical signal analysis. AI-based ECG interpretation has demonstrated high performance in disease detection, risk stratification, and predictive modeling, often uncovering subtle patterns that are invisible to human medical oversight. Several recent systematic reviews have emphasized the potential of AI-enhanced ECG analytics for improving diagnostic accuracy. In various heart conditions, whether physiological or electrical, such as atrial fibrillation, myocardial infarction, and heart failure [3] [4].

Despite these advances, the intersection between AI-driven ECG analysis and substance use disorders (SUDs) remains underexplored. Although some experimental studies have examined the feasibility of using wearable ECG sensors to detect acute cocaine use or autonomic irregularities during withdrawal, the integration of AI techniques for the automated classification or characterization of ECG signals in drug-dependent populations has not been systematically reviewed. Current publications tend to address either (a) the electrophysiological impact of specific substances, or (b) AI applications in cardiology, but rarely combine both domains within a single analytic framework [5] [6].

This clear knowledge gap highlights the need for a comprehensive literature review that maps the current landscape of research connecting ECG features, substance use, and AI-based signal analysis. Such a review would consolidate scattered findings, evaluate methodological quality, identify available datasets, and outline future directions for developing intelligent diagnostic tools capable of detecting drug-induced cardiac abnormalities in real time.

The present review aims to explore the current evidence on the application of artificial intelligence (AI) techniques in the analysis of electrocardiogram (ECG) signals among individuals with substance use disorders or acute drug exposure. It seeks to summarize the known ECG alterations associated with commonly abused substances, examine existing AI and machine learning (ML) approaches that have been applied to ECG data and assess their potential adaptation to addiction-related research.

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Furthermore, the review identifies key limitations, dataset deficiencies, and methodological inconsistencies within the existing literature, while proposing future research directions and clinical applications that integrate AI-driven ECG analytics for the early detection, continuous monitoring, and risk assessment of cardiac abnormalities in addicted populations.

2. Electrophysiological Impact of Substance Use

Drug substance use induces a complex spectrum of electrophysiological disturbances that affect both autonomic regulation and myocardial conduction. These disturbances manifest as measurable abnormalities on the electrocardiogram (ECG), varying according to the pharmacologic class and mechanism of action of each substance. Table 1 summarizes the major categories of abused substances and the characteristic ECG changes documented in the literature.

Table 1 Summary of Common Drugs of Abuse and Their Associated ECG Alterations

Substance Type	ECG Effects	Clinical Notes
Methadone (Synthetic Opioid) [7] [8]	QTc prolongation; torsades de pointes risk; repolarization abnormalities	QTc prolongation increases with dose
Heroin [9]	QT and QTc prolongation; increased Tpe interval; ventricular arrhythmia risk	Changes reported even in young users
Cocaine [10][11]	Tachycardia; ST–T abnormalities; QRS widening; coronary vasospasm	Common during acute intoxication
Amphetamines / Methamphetamine [12]	Tachyarrhythmias; QT prolongation; ST depression; atrial fibrillation	Strong sympathomimetic stimulation
Cannabis [13]	Bradycardia or tachycardia; mild ST–T changes; rare atrial fibrillation	Lower severity
Synthetic Cannabinoids (Spice) [14]	Tachycardia; ST–T deviations; supraventricular arrhythmias	Frequently reported in acute toxicity
Alcohol [15]	Atrial fibrillation (“holiday heart”); supraventricular arrhythmias; QTc prolongation	Elevated risk during binge drinking
Tricyclic Antidepressants (Misuse) [16]	QRS widening; AV block; malignant arrhythmias	Severe in overdose

In-depth studies have shown that opioids—particularly methadone—produce a dose-dependent prolongation of the QTc interval, predisposing individuals to malignant ventricular arrhythmias such as torsades de pointes. Heroin dependence has also been linked to prolonged QT/QTc and widening of the Tpe interval, reflecting increased dispersion of ventricular repolarization.

Stimulants such as cocaine and methamphetamine produce marked sympathetic activation, resulting in tachyarrhythmias, ST–T segment shifts, and widening of the QRS complex. In contrast, cannabis induces milder electrophysiological effects, though rare cases of atrial fibrillation have been reported. Synthetic cannabinoids, however, show more pronounced toxicity with supraventricular arrhythmias occurring frequently.

Alcohol consumption—particularly in binge patterns—has been strongly associated with atrial fibrillation, a phenomenon known as “holiday heart syndrome.” Finally, tricyclic antidepressants, when misused or taken in overdose, exert potent sodium-channel blockade leading to QRS prolongation and conduction blocks.

Collectively, these findings underscore that ECG abnormalities in substance users are not incidental but reflect underlying disturbances in ion-channel function, myocardial conduction, and autonomic tone. Consequently, ECG analysis provides a valuable non-invasive window into early cardiac risk detection among individuals with substance use disorders.

3. AI-Based ECG Analysis

Artificial intelligence (AI), particularly machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL), has fundamentally reshaped modern electrocardiogram (ECG) interpretation by enabling automated discovery of subtle, clinically relevant electrophysiological patterns. [4] demonstrated the capacity of AI-ECG models to detect structural and functional cardiac abnormalities in asymptomatic individuals, underscoring the potential of the 12-lead ECG as a scalable predictive screening tool. Historically, ML-based ECG classification relied on manually engineered features such as temporal intervals (PR, QRS, QT), wave amplitudes, and morphological descriptors which were subsequently fed into classifiers including support vector machines or random forests. As described by [17], this traditional workflow places a substantial emphasis on expert-driven feature design and may limit the model's ability to capture complex, high-dimensional signal characteristics. The advent of deep-learning (DL) architectures particularly convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and long short-term memory (LSTM) networks has enabled models to learn hierarchical ECG representations directly from raw waveforms, reducing the need for manually engineered features and allowing the extraction of more complex morphological and temporal patterns [17]. Large, well-curated ECG repositories such as the MIT-BIH Arrhythmia Database [18] and the PTB-XL dataset [19] have been essential for training these DL models, supporting major advances in automated arrhythmia classification, ischemia detection, and repolarization analysis. Nevertheless, none of these datasets include annotations related to substance use, intoxication state, or drug-specific electrophysiologic effects, which restricts their utility for studying addiction-related ECG abnormalities and underscores the need for dedicated, domain-specific datasets. The clinical potential of DL-ECG is illustrated by recent work on concealed long-QT syndrome. [20] showed that a DL model could identify genotype-positive individuals with normal-appearing QTc values, achieving diagnostic performance superior to interval-based criteria (AUC $\approx$ 0.90). Such findings highlight the capacity of DL to uncover latent electrophysiologic signatures invisible to conventional metrics. Despite these developments, important challenges persist: the scarcity of ECG datasets from individuals with substance use disorders; variation in ECG morphology related to intoxication, withdrawal, or polysubstance exposure; and the limited interpretability of DL models. Consequently, explainable-AI (XAI) techniques such as SHAP or gradient-based visualization methods are increasingly advocated to ensure that model decisions align with physiologically meaningful features.

In the context of addiction medicine, adapting AI-ECG analysis requires purpose-built datasets and tailored modelling strategies. Nevertheless, the ability of AI systems to detect drug-induced repolarization disturbances, autonomic dysregulation, or conduction abnormalities positions AI-ECG as a promising tool for early cardiac risk assessment in individuals with substance use disorders.

4. Research Gaps Analysis

Despite the rapid progress in AI-assisted ECG analytics, a notable research void persists at the intersection of artificial intelligence, electrocardiography, and substance use disorders. A review of the available literature reveals that most studies either (1) examine the electrophysiological effects of drugs without employing AI methods, or (2) apply AI to generic cardiac datasets without considering addiction-related alterations. To date, no systematic review or empirical study has comprehensively applied AI to ECG signals from drug-dependent populations, highlighting a major gap in biomedical informatics and addiction research [3][1]

Moreover, the absence of substance-specific ECG databases represents a critical barrier to progress.

Public datasets, such as MIT-BIH or PTB-XL, lack annotations on drug exposure, withdrawal state, or chronic use history variables that are essential for understanding addiction-related cardiac changes. The limited availability of longitudinal ECG data from rehabilitation centers further constrains the ability to develop and validate predictive AI models [5].

Methodologically, there is also an imbalance between signal-level analysis and physiological interpretation. While AI models achieve high accuracy in pattern recognition, few studies attempt to link model outputs to underlying pathophysiological mechanisms (e.g., ion channel modulation, autonomic imbalance, or myocardial remodeling). Bridging this gap requires multidisciplinary collaboration between data scientists, cardiologists, and addiction specialists.

Ethical and clinical considerations must also be addressed, particularly concerning data privacy, informed consent, and the potential stigmatization of individuals with substance use disorders. Developing explainable AI (XAI) frameworks can enhance trust and clinical acceptance by ensuring that automated ECG interpretations remain transparent and physiologically meaningful.

In summary, while AI-driven ECG analysis has demonstrated great promise in general cardiology, its application in the context of substance use remains largely unexplored. Addressing this gap through dedicated datasets, interpretable AI models, and interdisciplinary research initiatives could lead to significant advances in the early detection and prevention of drug-induced cardiac abnormalities.

5. Future Perspectives and Recommendations

The integration of artificial intelligence (AI) into the analysis of electrocardiogram (ECG) signals in individuals with substance use disorders presents a promising yet underdeveloped research frontier. Future investigations should prioritize the creation of specialized ECG datasets that include data from individuals with known drug exposure histories, withdrawal states, and comorbid cardiovascular conditions. Such datasets would enable the training and validation of AI models tailored specifically to the unique electrophysiological patterns observed in substance users [1][3].

Advances in wearable ECG technologies offer further opportunities for continuous, real-time cardiac monitoring in rehabilitation and clinical settings. Coupled with AI-driven analytics, these systems could detect early signs of cardiac stress, autonomic instability, or relapse-related physiological changes, thus providing a non-invasive preventive tool for clinicians and addiction specialists [5].

Moreover, explainable AI (XAI) and hybrid physiological-AI models should be developed to ensure that predictive results remain interpretable and grounded in biological mechanisms. This approach would enhance clinical trust and facilitate the translation of AI research into routine practice. Ethical considerations including data security, informed consent, and protection of vulnerable populations must remain central to all future implementations.

In summary, the collaboration of data scientists, cardiologists, and addiction researchers is essential to transform AI-based ECG analysis from a theoretical concept into a clinically applicable framework. Such integration holds the potential to improve early diagnosis, optimize treatment strategies, and ultimately reduce the cardiovascular burden among individuals affected by substance use disorders.

6. Conclusion

Integrating AI into ECG analysis offers a new paradigm for understanding the cardiac implications of substance use. While the evidence remains preliminary, the potential for non-invasive, real-time detection of drug-induced cardiac abnormalities is significant. Building robust datasets, ensuring algorithm transparency, and addressing ethical considerations will be key to advancing this field. Such efforts could ultimately reduce cardiac morbidity among individuals affected by addiction and pave the way toward intelligent, preventive addiction cardiology.

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A Fault-Tolerant Scheduling Algorithm Based on Passive and Active Redundancy for Real-Time Embedded Systems

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Abstract: The widespread adoption of real-time systems in life-critical applications has heightened the importance of fault-tolerant scheduling. This work proposes a hybrid scheduling heuristic designed to enhance fault tolerance in hard real-time systems by combining active and passive replication techniques. These techniques are employed to tolerate transient faults, thereby improving overall system reliability. To guide the redundancy strategy, real-time tasks are classified into two categories: urgent and non-urgent. Urgent tasks are characterized by stringent deadlines and limited execution time, whereas non-urgent tasks exhibit more flexibility with less strict timing constraints. This classification determines the appropriate type of redundancy to be applied.

Keywords: Real time embedded systems, Fault tolerance, Scheduling heuristics, Active and Passive redundancy.

1. INTRODUCTION

Real-time embedded systems are systems in which correctness depends not only on the logical outcome of computations but also on the timeliness of results. They play a vital role in critical domains such as healthcare, automotive, aerospace, and sensor networks, where strict timing constraints must be satisfied. To ensure dependable operation, fault-tolerance techniques are essential, particularly as transient faults have become the most common type of fault in modern designs. Their occurrence is steadily increasing due to system complexity, smaller transistor sizes, higher operating frequencies, and lower voltage levels. Although transient faults are temporary and cause no permanent damage, they remain a significant challenge in the design of reliable and efficient real-time embedded systems.

Fault tolerance refers to the ability of a system to continue functioning correctly even in the presence of faults [1]. It can be achieved through various techniques, with redundancy being the most common. Redundancy may be applied at either the hardware or software level; within software redundancy, it can be implemented temporally or spatially. Spatial redundancy is further categorized into active, passive, and hybrid approaches. Since our focus is on embedded systems, we specifically consider software redundancy with an emphasis on spatial techniques.

Several state-of-the-art fault-tolerant scheduling strategies have been explored to address reliability in real-time embedded systems. The study in [2] proposed two fault-tolerant scheduling heuristics designed to handle permanent faults in a single processor. The first heuristic is based on passive replication combined with an error detection technique using watchdogs, and it employs a cost function referred to as scheduling pressure. The second heuristic adopts a hybrid approach that integrates both active and passive redundancy, also guided by the scheduling pressure cost function. This hybrid heuristic leverages the strengths of both replication methods, offering low execution overhead in the absence of faults and minimal recovery delay in the event of failures. and the work in [3] proposed fault-tolerant scheduling heuristics aimed at handling transient faults. Their approach combines checkpointing with rollback techniques and an active replication strategy that enables collaboration among replicas to ensure task deadlines are met, even in the presence of faults. The study revealed that this method incurs a lower average timing overhead compared to traditional checkpointing strategies, particularly when multiple transient faults occur. Moreover, the proposed strategy demonstrates a higher feasibility rate under such fault conditions. The study in

[4] proposed a fault-tolerant scheduling heuristic that combines both active and passive redundancy for dependent tasks, aiming to tolerate permanent faults in a single processor. The approach involves replicating each task into primary and secondary copies. Initially, both copies are executed simultaneously (active replication), and once one of them completes its execution, it sends a termination signal to the other copy to stop (passive replication). The study in [5] provided a comprehensive survey of fault tolerance in embedded systems, emphasizing software-based redundancy and recovery techniques.

Building on this foundation, our paper proposes a novel fault-tolerance approach based on a scheduling heuristic specifically designed to tolerate transient faults in real-time embedded systems. The method integrates both active and passive replication: active replication is applied to urgent tasks to guarantee deadline satisfaction, while passive replication is assigned to non-urgent tasks to reduce redundancy overhead, we exploit the available slack time in passive replication to incorporate an error detection mechanism that requires additional time. Our approach addresses scheduling challenges in a software architecture composed of dependent tasks, executed on a hardware platform consisting of homogeneous processors interconnected through a communication bus. The proposed heuristic, which extends the Algorithm Architecture Adequation (AAA) approach of the SynDEx tool, aims to find solutions that simultaneously satisfy real-time, distribution, and fault-tolerance constraints. SynDEx is a system-level CAD software based on the AAA methodology [6], designed for rapid prototyping and optimization of distributed real-time embedded applications onto multicomponent architectures. It was developed by the AOSTE team at the INRIA Paris–Rocquencourt Research Center in France [7], and provides the foundation upon which our scheduling technique is built.

2. SYSTEM CHARACTERIZATION

- A. Processing model (algorithms):** The structure of the algorithm is represented by a data flow graph [8], modeled as a directed hypergraph known as the algorithm graph (ALG). In this graph, vertices represent tasks, denoted as $T = \{T_i, T_j, \dots, T_n\}$, while arcs express the data dependencies among them. Since tasks are non-preemptive, once a task starts its execution, it cannot be interrupted. Their execution order follows precedence constraints, meaning that a task can only be executed after receiving the necessary data from its predecessors.

Tasks with no predecessors are identified as input operations and serve as entry points for data, while tasks without successors are output operations that provide the algorithm's final results. Each task T_i is defined by a tuple (C_i, D_i) , where C_i is the execution time and D_i the deadline. The utilization of a task is given by:

$$U_i = \frac{C_i}{D_i}, \text{ where } 0 \leq U_i \leq 1 \quad (1)$$

Figure 1 illustrates an example of an algorithm graph composed of eight dependent tasks $\{T_1, T_2, \dots, T_8\}$. In this example, T_1 and T_2 are input tasks, T_8 is the output task, and T_3 to T_7 are intermediate tasks.

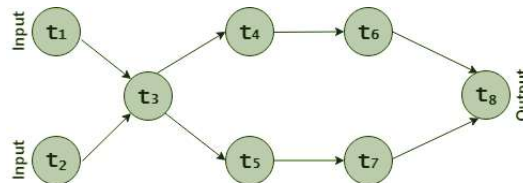


Fig. 1 Algorithm graph example.

- B. Design model (architecture):** The architecture is composed of homogeneous processors, referred to as Arc, and is modeled by an undirected graph where nodes correspond to processors and edges represent the physical interconnection links. Since the processors are homogeneous, the execution time of a task is identical on every processor. In this work, we assume a bus-based communication network (multi-point link). An example of such an algorithm graph is shown in Figure 2.

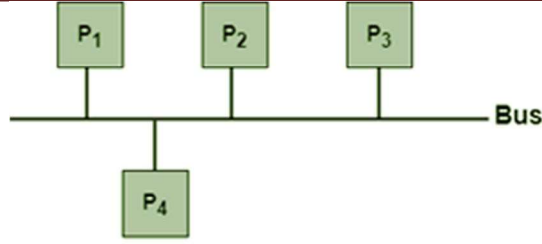


Fig. 2 Architecture example.

- C. Dependability model (faults):** This work focuses on transient faults rather than permanent ones, as they are often caused by low-energy particles generating critical charges [9]. We assume the system can tolerate up to k processor transient faults, which may occur across different processors or repeatedly on the same processor. The adopted fault model is that of Shatz and Wang [10], where the fault duration only affects the task currently executing on the faulty processor, without impacting subsequent tasks.

3. FAULT-TOLERANCE METHODOLOGY

We propose a hybrid methodology that combines passive and active replication to tolerate up to K transient processor faults. The aim is to ensure real-time constraints and improve reliability under faulty conditions. Non-urgent tasks are managed through passive replication, while urgent tasks rely on active replication whenever passive redundancy cannot guarantee deadlines. The criticality of a task is determined by its utilization factor U_i , following the method of Motaghi and Zarandi [11]. A task is considered critical when U_i approaches 1, as the scheduler cannot delay its execution. In this case, passive techniques become unsuitable. The classification relies on a threshold θ , with T_i defined

$$T_i = \begin{cases} \text{non-urgent}, & U_i < \theta \\ \text{urgent}, & U_i > \theta \end{cases} \quad \text{where } 0 < \theta < 1 \quad (2)$$

The value of θ varies across tasks and processors.

- A. Passive Replication:** Passive redundancy is employed for non-urgent tasks in order to limit overhead. In this scheme, only the primary replica of a task is executed initially, while the other K replicas are kept as backups and activated only when a fault occurs. Fault detection is ensured by inserting watchdog tasks into the system graph. Each watchdog monitors the execution of its corresponding primary task, and if it does not receive a completion signal within a predefined time Δ , it activates the backup task. Once activated, the first backup to complete cancels the execution of the other replicas and provides the result.

The time out Δ is given by the following formula:

$$\Delta = C_i(T_{best}, P_{best}) + N \quad (3)$$

where: T_{best} : is the best task selected for scheduling

P_{best} : is the best processor where task T_{best} will be placed

N : is an estimated value which determines a certain waiting time.

The worst-case response time named WRT_i of task T_i employing passive redundancy when faults occur is

$$WRT_i = C_i + \Delta \quad (4)$$

Where C_i is the execution time of task T_i and Δ is the fault detection time of task T_i

$$WRT_i = 2C_i + N \quad (5)$$

- B. Active Replication:** For urgent tasks, passive redundancy introduces additional delay due to fault detection, which may prevent deadlines from being met. To address this, active replication is applied, where all $K+1$ replicas of a task are executed simultaneously on different processors. This strategy eliminates the need for error detection and significantly reduces response time. The first replica to finish sends its result to the successors and

immediately cancels the execution of the other replicas. In this way, active replication provides both improved reliability and timeliness.

- C. Task Distribution:** To distribute tasks efficiently among processors, we adopt the Adequation Algorithm Architecture (AAA) methodology. AAA relies on a cost function, called scheduling pressure $\sigma_{TiPj}^{(n)}$, which estimates the impact of mapping a task T_i to a processor P_j . The allocation strategy aims to minimize the overall schedule length by choosing the assignment that reduces scheduling pressure [12].

- ❖ The criticality of each task is determined by computing the threshold “ θ ” for the optimal tasks identified through the AAA methodology. It is essential to ensure that, under passive replication, when faults occur, the condition $ST_i + WRT_i < D_i$ must be satisfied.

Therefore, we have:

$$ST_i + WRT_i < D_i \quad (6)$$

$$WRT_i < D_i - ST_i \quad (7)$$

Where WRT_i is worst-case response time of task T_i using passive replication, and Equation (5) is used to replace WRT_i for computing θ :

$$2C_i + N < D_i - ST_i \quad (8)$$

$$\frac{C_i}{D_i} < \frac{D_i - ST_i - N}{2D_i} \quad (9)$$

Finally, we can get the criticality

$$U_i < \frac{D_i - ST_i - N}{2D_i} = \theta \quad (10)$$

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