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Academic Year 2021-22

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9	R.S Kankale, Dr. S.R Paraskar, Dr. S.S. Jadhao	--	Classification of power Quality Disturbances in emerging power system with distributed generation using space phasor model and normalized cross correlation	Electrical Engineering	



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This is to certify that Prof. /Dr. /Mr. /Ms. SAKSHI RAVINDRA DESHMUKH of Computer Engineering, Shri Sant Gajanan Maharaj College of Engineering Shegaon Maharashtra has presented a paper titled **ML Hybrid Approach for Intrusion Detection in Networks** authored by **SAKSHI RAVINDRA DESHMUKH; CHANDRASHEKHAR MANKAR** in the IEEE IAS Global Conference on Emerging Technologies (GlobConET-2022) which was held online mode (WebEx) during May 20-22, 2022.



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Abstract



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Abstract:

As in today's developing network environment there is threat of new type of attacks daily in the network. So, the network administration system is also needed to be updated regularly for upgradation of security level. One of the network packet monitoring system is Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS). The proposed model is designed using machine learning approach for detection of malicious activities of the network packets. For that NSL-KDD dataset is used. First of all, the dataset is normalized for reducing calculation complexity, further features are reduced using correlation algorithm, Particle Swarm Optimization (PSO) and Genetic Algorithm (GA). In final step of proposed algorithm multilevel (ML) hybrid classifiers, based on support vector machine (SVM) and random forest (RF), are designed for classification of dataset into five attack categories i.e. DOS, U2R, R2L, Probe and Normal. As compared to some other multilevel classifier work the proposed algorithm proves its efficiency in terms of high accuracy and False Alarm Rate (FAR).

Published in: 2022 IEEE IAS Global Conference on Emerging Technologies (GlobConET)

Date of Conference: 20-22 May 2022

DOI: 10.1109/GlobConET53749.2022.9872392

Date Added to IEEE Xplore: 09 September 2022

Publisher: IEEE

ISBN Information:

Conference Location: Arad, Romania

Contents

I. INTRODUCTION



Assessment of Artificial Neural Network-based Induction Motor Fault Classifier Using Continuous Wavelet Transform

A. U. Jawadekar^{a*}, G. M. Dhole^a, S. R. Paraskar^a and S. S. Jadhao^a

DOI: 10.9734/bpi/nper/v7/3473E

ABSTRACT

Induction motors are widely used in industrial, commercial, and residential applications due to their significant advantages over other types of electric motors. These motors are subjected to a variety of operating stresses that can result in faults. Bearing faults, stator interturn faults, and cracked rotor bars are the most common recurrent faults in induction motors. Early detection of induction motor faults is critical for reliable and cost-effective operation. Faults and failures of induction motor can lead to excessive downtimes and generate large losses in terms of maintenance and revenues. The purchasing and installation cost of equipment usually cost less than half of total expenditure over the life of machine for maintenance. Maintenance cost is 15% to 40% of the total cost and it can go up to 80% of the total cost. In many cases, the failure of a critically loaded machine can bring an entire industry process to a halt. The growing demand for high-quality and low-cost production has increased the need for automated manufacturing systems with effective monitoring and control capabilities.

Condition monitoring and fault diagnosis of an induction motor are critical in the manufacturing process. It can reduce maintenance costs and the risk of unexpected failures by allowing for the early detection of catastrophic failures. There are many condition monitoring methods, including vibration monitoring, thermal monitoring, chemical monitoring, acoustic emission monitoring, but all these methods require expensive sensors or specialized tools. Whereas the current monitoring does not require additional costly sensors as basic electrical quantities voltage and current are readily measured by voltage and current transformers that are always installed as a part of the protection system. As a result current monitoring is non-intrusive and may be implemented even if the motor is at the remote end from the motor control center. Thus MCSA proves to be a low cost online nondestructive fault diagnosis and detection system to provide accurate assessment of motor faults. This chapter presents experimental results for multiple fault detection in induction motors using signal processing and artificial neural network approaches. The continuous wavelet transform was used to analyse motor line currents recorded under various fault conditions. A feedforward neural network was used for fault characterization based on fault features extracted using continuous wavelet transform.

Keywords: Artificial neural networks; continuous wavelet transform; induction motor; multiple fault detection.

1. INTRODUCTION

As induction motors are a critical component in the majority of industrial processes, any failure in the machine has a negative impact on the industries. Early detection of motor faults is highly desirable to reduce downtime and also for safety considerations, which necessitates condition-based monitoring of the induction motor. Bearing faults, stator winding faults, and rotor faults are the most common induction motor faults. Bearing failures account for roughly one-fifth of all faults. One-third of reported

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Study on Discrimination between Inrush and Fault in Transformer: ANN Approach

S. R. Paraskar ^{a#}

DOI: 10.9734/bpi/rtcams/v8/2606C

ABSTRACT

Transformer protection is a critical issue in power systems because it involves accurately and quickly distinguishing magnetising inrush current from internal fault current. An artificial neural network has been proposed and demonstrated its ability to solve the transformer monitoring and fault detection problem using a low-cost, dependable, and noninvasive procedure. This paper presents an algorithm in which statistical parameters of detailed d1 level wavelet coefficients of signal are used as an input to the artificial neural network (ANN), which develops into a novel approach for online detection method to discriminate the magnetising inrush current and inter-turn fault, as well as the location of fault, i.e. whether the interturn fault lies in primary or secondary winding, using discrete wavelet transform and artificial neural network (ANNs). In the laboratory, information from controlled experiments was collected using a custom-built single-phase transformer. Following feature extraction with the discrete wavelet transform (DWT), a neural network model MLP was designed and rigorously trained. It is also discussed the proposed on-line detection scheme.

Keywords: Neural networks; transformer; fault detection; discrete wavelet transform (DWT); inrush current.

1. INTRODUCTION

Power transformers are critical components of any power system. As a result, it is critical to avoid any malfunctioning of the necessary protective system. Differential protection has been used as the primary protection of power systems for many years. It houses the differential relay, which operates for all internal power transformer fault types and blocks caused by inrush current. The main disadvantage of differential protection relays is the possibility of misoperation caused by the transient inrush current that flows when the transformer is energised. The inrush current contains a large second harmonic component. Most of the methods for digital differential protection of transformers are based on harmonic content of differential current. These methods are based on this fact that the ratio of the second harmonics to the fundamental component of differential current in inrush current condition is greater than the ratio in the fault condition.

However, the second harmonic may also be generated during faults on the transformers. It might be due to saturation of CTs, parallel capacitances or disconnected transformers. The second harmonic in these situations might be greater than the second harmonic in inrush currents. Thus, the commonly employed conventional differential protection based on second harmonic restraint will face difficulty in distinguishing inrush current and internal faults. Thus, an improved technique of protection is required to discriminate between inrush current and internal faults [1].

To overcome this difficulty and prevent the mal-function of differential relay, many methods have been presented to analyze and recognize inrush current and internal fault currents. As both inrush current

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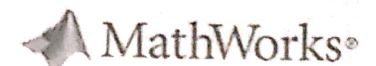
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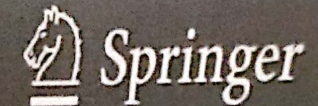
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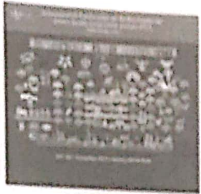
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CLASSIFICATION OF POWER QUALITY DISTURBANCES IN EMERGING POWER SYSTEM USING DISCRETE WAVELET TRANSFORM AND K-NEAREST NEIGHBOR



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Published Sep 15, 2021

Ravishankar Kankale

1:(s:5:"en_US";s:2:"Dr")

Abstract

Power quality becomes a highly important issue in the power system operation due to the increasing use of power electronic devices. Waveform distortions are frequent by the power quality disturbances such as sag, swell, interruption, harmonics, flicker, transients, and notch. These disturbances cause malfunctions, instabilities, and fail user equipment's [1].

It is important to select appropriate features for the classification of PQDs. In order to extract features from the captured signal, signal processing techniques are used. 1 features are further fed to the classifier. The feature extraction is done in two steps. To begin, the time domain voltage signal is processed using signal processing techniques. Second, extraction of appropriate feature is done using the processed signal. A well selected feature vector reduces the classifiers load [2]. Features can be directly extracted from the original time domain signals, and from the transformed frequency domain signals. To convert the time domain signal into a frequency domain signal, signal processing techniques such as Fourier transform (FT), short-time Fourier transform (STFT), wavelet transform (WT), and S-transform (ST) are utilized.

The frequency contents in the signal were extracted using FT. The frequency content of the signal can be used to identify some PQDs. However, FT is ineffective for transient signals. This is due to the fact that FT only tells you if a frequency component exists, but not when it appears [2]. In order to get this information, the time-frequency localization techniques are used. This enables you to obtain time-evolved signal components in different frequency ranges. This problem can be solved by using STFT, but it has a fixed size. The STFT approach is found to be insufficient for evaluating non-stationary signals. Hence there is a requirement of efficient and powerful techniques for analysing stationary signals [3-6]. Many researchers have recommended Wavelet transform for the analysis of PQDs to overcome the fixed window width problem of STFT [7]. This automatically adapts to give correct time and frequency resolutions. High-frequency signal components have a higher time resolution, whereas the low-frequency signal components have higher frequency resolution with this technique. These characteristics make the WT ideal for analysing power system transients induced by a variety of

In Wavelet transform wavelet is used as the basis function, and it scales according to the frequency under consideration. The WT delivers superior results than the FT and because the basis function is a wavelet rather than an exponential function. The WT divides the signal into several frequency levels and displays them as wavelet coefficients. Continuous wavelet transform (CWT) and discrete wavelet transform (DWT) are used based upon type of signal under study. CWT-based decomposition is used for continuous signals, while DWT-based decomposition is used for discrete time signals [8].

This paper proposes a discrete wavelet transform and KNN based approach for the classification of PQDs. The PQDs such as sag, swell and interruption are created by the emerging power system using MATLAB Simulink. These disturbances are further analysed using wavelet transform for feature extraction. The features extracted from the signals are further used for training and testing the KNN classifier.

How to Cite

Kankale, R. (2021). Classification of Power Quality Disturbances in Emerging Power System Using Discrete Wavelet Transform and K-Nearest Neighbor . *SPAST Abstracts*, 1 Retrieved from <https://spast.org/techrep/article/view/550>

Abstract 33 |

Keywords

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Review on Detection and Classification of Underlying Causes of Power Quality Disturbances using Signal Processing and Soft Computing Technique

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Abstract--- The new age power system is highly subjected to PQ disturbances that require proper attention and address. The research in this field is mainly categorized into different parts such as mathematical modelling, basic PQ principles, standards, impact and solutions, sources, and analysis. There are several underlying causes behind the occurrence of the PQ disturbance. Therefore, it is important to address the exact underlying cause for proper mitigation of the PQ disturbance. There are several methods available in the literature, which concentrated on to detection and classification of power quality events rather than root cause of the PQ events. So an effective method for root cause identification of PQ events is the need of the day. This article covers a broad review of signal processing and soft computing techniques used for the detection & recognition of the underlying cause of it. This will help the researcher, engineers, designers working in the field of detection, recognition, and monitoring of power quality. The comparative study of existing methods used in the literature is tabulated. The major concerns and obstacles in categorizing the recognition of power quality disturbances are thoroughly examined and discussed. The potential for new researchers in the field of power quality disturbance detection and recognition of underlying causes is further explored in this review.

Keywords--- Underlying Cause of Power Quality Disturbances, Signal Processing Methods, Soft Computing Techniques

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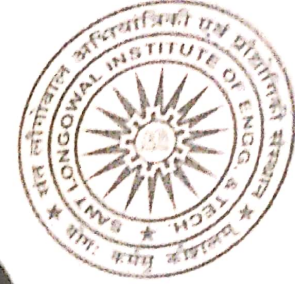


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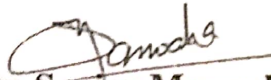
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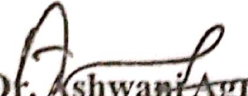
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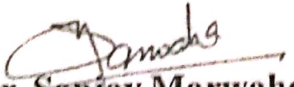
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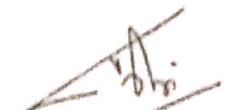
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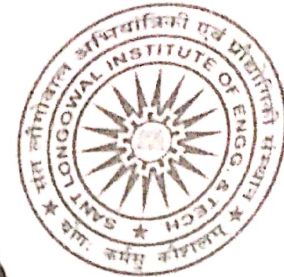

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Classification of Power Quality Disturbances in Emerging Power System using S-transform and Support Vector Machine

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Abstract— Classification of Power Quality Disturbances (PQDs) becomes a key issue for end-users in order to enhance the Power Quality (PQ). S-transform (ST) based Support Vector Machine (SVM) classifier is presented in this paper for classification of PQDs in emerging power systems. S-transform is a new and powerful signal processing technique used for feature extraction in the PQDs classification algorithms. In this article, an energy threshold-based algorithm for the classification of PQDs is also presented. In this research work three PQDs namely voltage sag, swell, and interruption are considered under study. The data required for the analysis of PQDs is generated by simulating the emerging power system with these PQDs in a MATLAB Simulink environment. By using S-transform, the non-stationary voltage signal was transformed to extract the appropriate features needed for the classification of PQDs. For automatic classification of PQDs, the features extracted using S-transform are used for training and testing the SVM classifier. The proposed approach uses less features hence the classifier requires less memory and learning time. The simulation results reveal that S-Transform in combination with SVM is an effective way of classifying different PQDs in emerging power system.

Keywords— Power quality disturbances, S-transform, Support Vector Machine, Signal processing techniques.

I. INTRODUCTION

It has always been a top priority for electric utilities around the world to reduce PQDs because they can have adverse effect on the reliability and security of electrical power system. Faults in power system, increasing use of power electronic devices, switching operation, penetration of inverter-based renewable energy sources, operation of distributed generation, and improper grounding are the most common causes of PQDs [1]. If the disturbances were caused by the operating conditions of the emerging power system, the power utility needs to immediately rectify these issues to prevent a recurrence of the problem. The information about the type of PQD and its cause is very important. This information will help to make decisions and take corrective actions for the improvement of power quality. Therefore, power utilities must take some practical steps in order to identify the types of PQDs that could arise from the emerging power system [2].

PQDs have different characteristics, and we can classify them on the basis of their characteristics. Voltage variation, frequency deviation, transients, and presence of notches are some of the common characteristics used to classify PQDs [4].

A variety of signal processing techniques have been proposed by many researchers for the classification of PQDs.

It is important to note that the PQDs are non-stationary by nature. Fourier Transform (FT), Short Time Fourier Transform (STFT), Wavelet Transform (WT), and Filter Bank Method have been proposed for the analysis of signals from various fields [5]. There is a large amount of work being done on PQ that makes use of WT for analyzing power signals. Nonstationary signals are decomposed into time-scale distributions using the WT. WT is the widely used signal processing technique for the detection and classification of PQ disturbances, but it has the limitation that it is unable to estimate the Fourier frequencies and has a local phase reference [6]. The S-transform is a powerful time-frequency analysis tool. The S-transform is widely used in PQ studies as well as many other domains because it has the ability to estimate the time localized Fourier frequency spectrum and has a global phase reference. It also has the capability to accurately detect the PQDs in a noisy environment. This capability attracts many researchers to use S-transform for the detection and classification of PQDs. When using the S-transform instead of WT, you don't have to test various mother wavelets to find the best one for a better classification result, which is another benefit. The S-transform is similar to the WT but with some phase correction. In the case of PQDs with noise, the S-transform produces patterns that closely match the disturbance type and hence requires a simple classification method. By visualizing the contour of the S-transform one can classify the type of PQDs which is another advantage of the S-transform over WT. Because of all these superior features, S-transform is now significantly used in the classification of PQDs [7].

A variety of soft computing techniques are available in the literature for the classification of PQDs. As far as classification problems are concerned, SVM is the most widely used supervisory algorithm available [8]. In this paper, PQDs are classified using the unique combination of S-transform and SVM. To classify PQDs in emerging power systems, the features from the S-transform are directly applied to SVM.

II. S-TRANSFORM

In the field of signal processing, the S-transform is regarded as one of the most recent developments. A time-domain signal is converted to a time-frequency representation. Currently, it is used as a tool to monitor power quality. S-Transform is able to accurately detect disturbances in noisy environments, whereas Wavelet



PQDs. The classification algorithm developed based on threshold values of Parseval's energy gives accurate results for all cases of PQDs. A dataset is generated from the feature vector by computing the Parseval's energy for different cases of PQDs for training and testing the SVM classifier. The classification results show that the SVM classifier accurately classifies the type of PQDs with 100% training and testing accuracy. The proposed approach was validated using simulation waveforms. The simulation results reported in this research paper effectively demonstrate the ability of the proposed algorithm to correctly classify the PQDs. We can conclude from the analysis that the suggested methodology outperforms existing methods. The proposed approach was found to be much faster and simpler than other WT-based approaches. The use of this technique on a broad scale could improve the power quality monitoring system and finally the quality of the power.

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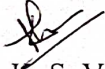
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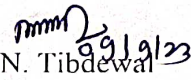
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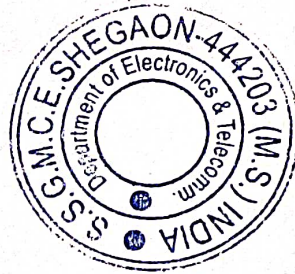
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08:30-08:45	MIST1048	Facial Expression Annotation: from Sign Language to Pain Analysis <i>Dr. Emely Pujđli da Silva, University of Campinas, Brazil</i>
08:45-09:05	MIST1057	Long-tone-burst Ultrasound Enhanced Microbubble Thrombolysis <i>Prof. Xianghui Chen, First Affiliated Hospital of Jinan University, China</i>
09:05-09:25	MIST1058	Generative Adversarial Network for Medical Image Synthesis: A Case Study in Realistic Knee Image Generation <i>Dr. Hong-Seng Gan, Universiti Malaysia Kelantan, Malaysia</i>
09:25-09:40	MIST1038	Imaging and Computer Vision for Biomedical Robotics <i>Asst. Prof. Liangjing Yang, Zhejiang University, China</i>
09:40-10:00	MIST1051	Brain Tumor Segmentation in MRI Images using Di-Phase Midway Convolution and Deconvolution Network <i>Prof. PL. Chithra, University of Madras, India</i>
10:00-10:25	MIST1029	A Bi-splitting Radial Curve Method for Region based Segmentation of Tumour Detection <i>Mr. Radhamadhab Dalai, Birla Institute of Technology Mesra, India</i>
10:25-10:35		BREAK
10:35-10:50	MIST1031	Imaging Noise Models, Poisson Noise Reasons and its Effect on X-Ray Images <i>Asst. Sajid Ullah Khan, University of Lakki Marwat, Pakistan</i>
10:50-11:20	MIST1052	Analysis of Psychophysiological Effects of Meditation Through Electroencephalogram <i>Dr. Manish N. Tibdewal, Shri Sant Gajanan Maharaj College of Engineering, India</i>
11:20-11:30	MIST1018	Robotic Device for MRgFUS Applications in Veterinary Medicine <i>Ms. Anastasia Antoniou, Cyprus University of Technology, Cyprus</i>
11:30-11:50	MIST1003	Digital Passports: Biometric & Vaccine Information <i>Prof. Khaled A. Nagaty, British University in Egypt, Egypt</i>
11:50-12:05	MIST1037	Application of Wavelet Theory in Medical Imaging (Knee : Patella) <i>Dr. Belarbi Mansour, Mascara University, Algeria</i>
12:05-12:20	MIST1042	Fractional Brownian Motion Model for Bone X-ray Images Characterization <i>Dr. Khaled Harrar, University M'Hamed Bougara of Boumerdes, Algeria</i>
12:20-12:35	MIST1021	Deterministic Global Optimization Methods for the Study of Inverse Problems <i>Dr. Dmitri E. Kvasov, University of Calabria, Italy</i>

MIST1052: Analysis of Psychophysiological effects of Meditation through Electroencephalogram

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Abstract. Meditation has a metaphysical influence on the physical as well as mental health of humans. It promotes relaxation to the human being which is required for alleviating stress. This experiment investigates the psychophysiological effects of meditation using an electroencephalogram (EEG). In this research work, the analysis of EEG signals is done for cognitive effects on the human brain for before and after meditation intervention of 25 subjects. The aim of this study is to analyze brain functioning after a month of meditation intervention using statistical and spectral analysis. The statistical and spectral analysis was performed through Sample entropy and Power spectral density respectively. The statistical analysis shows that the Sample Entropy decreased after meditation. The spectral analysis stated that theta power has increased 88 % of subjects whereas the alpha power is increased for the entire subjects after meditation. These features index the meditation improves relaxation, cognitive functions. In future, the work shall be extended by increasing more subjects with a sustained period of meditation to present the more benefits of meditation.

Keywords: EEG; Meditation; Sample Entropy; Power Spectral Density

MIST1018: Robotic Device for Mrgfus Applications in Veterinary Medicine

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Abstract. Magnetic Resonance guided Focused Ultrasound (MRgFUS) constitutes an emerging non-invasive therapeutic modality in modern oncology. Since application of this technology in veterinary medicine contributes to optimizing therapeutic protocols and more rapidly translating research into clinical practice, a robotic device intended for veterinary MRgFUS has been developed. The device comprises a positioning mechanism dedicated to navigating a single element spherically focused transducer operating between 1-3 MHz in four PC-controlled axes. All the motion stages are actuated by piezoelectric motors, whereas two optical encoder setups are arranged on each stage, thus providing precise position estimates. Sufficient accuracy and repeatability of motion were demonstrated through caliper-based and Magnetic Resonance Imaging (MRI) techniques, with an estimated mean positioning error smaller than 0.1 mm. Highly accurate motion was also confirmed through visual examination by performing multiple ablations on a plastic film. For MR compatibility assessment, quantitative evaluation was performed by calculating the signal-to-noise ratio during device activation in a 1.5 T scanner using an in-house phantom, as well as through a more comprehensive approach of quality assurance and a series of specialized tests. The system was proven safe for operation inside the scanner without significantly affecting the overall image quality. Due to its compact and simple design, it is easily transportable, ergonomic, and suitable for integration into the bore of up to 7T MRI scanners. Upon veterinary validation, the developed system could be easily translated into clinical medicine for treating abdominal cancer in humans with minimal design modification.

Keywords: MRgFUS; Robotic Device; Veterinary Medicine



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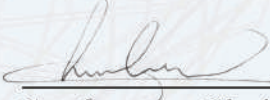
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Abstract — Meditation has a metaphysical influence on the physical as well as mental health of humans. It promotes relaxation to the human being which is required for alleviating stress. This experiment investigates the psychophysiological effects of meditation using an electroencephalogram (EEG). In this research work, the analysis of EEG signals is done for cognitive effects on the human brain for before and after meditation intervention of 25 subjects. The aim of this study is to analyze brain functioning after a month of meditation intervention using statistical and spectral analysis. The statistical and spectral analysis was performed through Sample entropy and Power spectral density respectively. The statistical analysis shows that the Sample Entropy decreased after meditation. The spectral analysis stated that theta power has increased 88 % of subjects whereas the alpha power is increased for the entire subjects after meditation. These features index the meditation improves relaxation, cognitive functions. In future, the work shall be extended by increasing more subjects with a sustained period of meditation to present the more benefits of meditation.

Keywords—EEG, meditation, Sample entropy, Power spectral density.

I. INTRODUCTION

Meditation has been used to address the various health related problems for ages. Basically, meditation is an activity that supports to enhance the understanding of self realization. Nowadays, the psychological stress arises from decrescent work load, tends to insomnia, negativity, depression and many other symptoms that turns into long term heath related issues.

Meditation is an effective solution to reduce the stress which can remarkably affect on physical as well as mental health as studied in previous [1], [2]. The EEG is a temporal technique that record and monitor the electrical activity of human brain cerebrum. The rootlet of EEG activity is the electric potential within the neurons of the human brain. The EEG activity produces oscillations at different types of frequencies [3]. This technique used to analyze the effects of meditation.

The EEG signal analysis is frequently grouped in frequency bands: delta, theta, alpha, beta, and gamma. Delta band (0.5–4 Hz), the slowest and strongest brain wave which is mainly involved with deep sleep or dreamless sleep is also found during deep meditation. Theta band (4–8 Hz) is linked with drowsiness, light sleep, concentration, deep relaxation, or meditation. Alpha band (8–12 Hz) is related to relaxation, calmness, or peaceful state. Beta band (12–30 Hz) is associated with normal awaking consciousness, high alert, active thinking, angry, anxiety, or focus. Normally, a person functions in this frequency band during daytime. Gamma band (30–100 Hz) is the fastest brain wave associated with hyperactivity or the processing of information from different brain areas.

EEG studies have been used with different signal processing techniques to mention the brainwave changes that arise during meditating [4]. Dillbeck et al. found that significant changes in frontal alpha coherence in TM practice [5]. Incagli et al. conducted the meditation program to examine the cognitive process [6]. Ahmed et al. studied the effect of mental behavior through DWT [7]. Ahani et al. proposed methods to analyze the changes of EEG and respiration signals for meditation and control state [8]. Mingqian et al. carried the experiment to investigate the insight of mindfulness meditation [9]. Fulpatil et al. examined the EEG signal during meditation using a wavelet function [10].

Andrew et al. investigated the utilization of EEG screening for personalized approach in the meditation [11]. Sobolewski et al. explored the effect meditation impact on emotional regulation [12]. Sharma et al. implied that regular meditation practice can affect the positive impact on brain areas especially, on frontal and parietal areas [13]. Frederick Travis narrated the importance of narrow frequency bands that reflects the different cognitive process [14]. Kora et al. elaborated the different meditation styles on Brain waves concerning physical and mental health [15].

Meditation produces changes in certain frequency bands. It is essential to process EEG signals because of non-stationary, highly non-linear, and stochastic behavior. Hence in order to investigate the meditation impact on human brain, this study examines EEG signals for before meditation and after a month

of meditation intervention. The analysis performed through statistical and spectral features for 25 subjects using the features: Sample entropy and power spectral density.

II. METHODS AND MATERIAL

In this work, the ‘Medicaid Neuro-Compact 2400’ system is used to acquire EEG signals from different subjects using Ag-Cl types of electrodes for analyzing the impact of meditation. There are total 21 electrodes for data acquisitions with 10-20 international system. The sampling frequency (F_s) is observed as 114 Hz. Here, the experiment conducted on 25 novice healthy subjects between the age group of 16–50 year including male and female genders.

The EEG signal recording is done before meditation and after a month of meditation intervention for the same 25 subjects. Before meditation, the EEG data recorded when the subjects are in a calm and relaxed state with their mind stable for 10 min. The same subjects have performed meditation continuously for a minimum 15-30 minutes daily for a month. After a month of meditation, the EEG of meditators was recorded for 5-7 min.

The prefrontal cortex is majorly responsible for the cognitive process [9]. Thus, for analysis of the cognitive effects of meditation the frontal lobe electrodes (F3, F4, F7, F8, FP1, FP2, Fz) are used. Each epoch has a total of 912 samples. The EEG signals are sampled at 114 Hz over 8 second time duration. All the datasets are processed by designing every step. The implementation is done through the MATLAB (R2015a) 8.5.0.197613 platform. The ethical clearance is acquired from the Government Medical College Akola, Maharashtra, India.

The feature extraction carried by utilizing finite impulse response (FIR) filter for the separation of EEG bands as per frequency bands. FIR band pass filter process by assigning the ‘0.001’ value as band attenuation, ‘1’ value as the pass band ripple and ‘20’ as the density factor.

All features are evaluated at the frontal electrodes for various bands, including delta, theta, alpha, and beta. The delta is excluded in the study because of its hyperactivity in nature. The statistical and spectral analyses are performed by extracting Sample Entropy and Power spectral density. These features are extracted band wise for both control and meditators group with frontal lobe channels of EEG time series. The student t-test is performed to examine the discrimination of control and meditators group. The p-values estimated from the t-test show how better these data discriminate between both cases. The equations for computation of each of the features are demonstrated as below:

Sample Entropy (SampEn)

The Sample Entropy measures the randomness of a time series. A high random brain indicates creativity or anxiety. It is useful to obtain the nonlinear interrelations and complexity of

brain areas. The sample Entropy is one of the types of different entropies.

It is a measure of information as the measure probability distribution. The SampEn is less affected by the presence of noise. So as to evaluate the SampEn, two parameters are required, which is length of compared window m and tolerance r . The SampEn [16] value is calculated for the time series with N samples, as discussed below:

$$sampEn(m, r, N) = -\ln\left[\frac{A^m(r)}{B^m(r)}\right] \quad (1)$$

Where, $B^m(r)$ = Probability that two vectors will match for ‘ m ’ samples and $A^m(r)$ = Probability that two vectors will match for $m + 1$ samples.

Power spectral density (PSD)

The spectral analysis will illustrate the activity of brain over different regions and different states, which reflect the general arousal levels of brain. Power spectral density represents the power distribution of EEG series per unit frequency. PSD is evaluated using Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) quantifies the amount of activity in a different frequency band of EEG signal that reveals the strength of variation as the function of frequency.

Let $x[n]$ = EEG data

$$Power = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=0}^{N-1} |X[k]|^2 \quad (2)$$

where, N = Length of EEG signals, $X[k]$ = DFT of $x[n]$.

PSD estimation is a non-parametric method utilized to calculate the power spectrum of EEG time series as a function of frequency while maintaining the balance between smoothing in time and frequency resolution. The analysis is performed through all four bands after averaging frontal electrodes for before and after meditation intervention. All 25 subjects’ EEG signals processed using band pass filter. After feature extraction each band is separated and hence delta, theta, alpha and beta power is calculated as shown in fig.1.

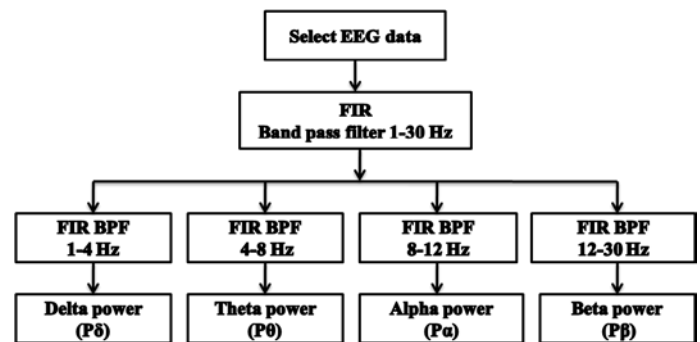


Fig .1. Flow chart of PSD estimation

III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Statistical Analysis

According to the methodology the analysis of each subjects’ EEG signals is done for before and after meditation. The study estimates the statistical and spectral analysis after

averaging the seven frontal channels of EEG data. Here it is demonstrated the features such as Sample Entropy and Power Spectral Density. Table 1, shows the differences in statistical and spectral features of all 25 subjects for pre and post meditation.

It is inferred that the average sample entropy value for average of theta and alpha band is decreased in meditators whereas in delta and beta bands it is increased after a month of meditation intervention. The theta and alpha bands' sample entropy is low for meditators as compared to the control group. The sample entropy of delta band is 0.23 and 0.24, theta band

is 0.48 and 0.45, alpha band is 0.49 and 0.48, beta band is 0.68 and 0.69 for the control and meditators group respectively. A high random brain indicates creativity or anxiety. Hence, decreased sample entropy indicates decrease in randomness and increase in non-linearity of EEG signals. As the non-linearity increases, brain cognitive functions perform better.

The p -value is evaluated from student t-test for different bands with < 0.05 as a significant level. Table 2 shows the p -values for both features between control group and meditators group.

Table 1: Sample entropy and Power features for before (control group) and after a month of meditation intervention (meditators group)

Subjects/ Gender/Age	Features	EEG bands: Control Group				EEG bands: Meditators Group			
		Delta	Theta	Alpha	Beta	Delta	Theta	Alpha	Beta
S1/M/19	Sample entropy	0.23	0.45	0.5	0.6	0.25	0.48	0.46	0.65
	Power	180.52	23.85	0.25	4.97	153.58	27.14	7.1	1.58
S2/F/19	Sample entropy	0.32	0.48	0.46	0.61	0.28	0.46	0.49	0.6
	Power	282.22	20.95	0.23	3.17	139.45	35.19	4.75	1.69
S3/F/19	Sample entropy	0.26	0.52	0.51	0.62	0.29	0.49	0.47	0.75
	Power	120.39	27.9	0.4	15.64	128	41.7	19.34	3.79
S4/F/22	Sample entropy	0.22	0.51	0.41	0.63	0.29	0.36	0.54	0.62
	Power	109.38	17	0.19	4.35	34.29	31.73	11.27	3.42
S5/F/18	Sample entropy	0.24	0.42	0.47	0.7	0.21	0.49	0.47	0.64
	Power	137.19	38.33	0.27	3.53	531.35	85.4	50.79	1.26
S6/M/32	Sample entropy	0.26	0.49	0.54	0.64	0.22	0.45	0.49	0.71
	Power	463.74	19.69	0.17	7.67	101.35	53.47	11.62	1.58
S7/M/29	Sample entropy	0.28	0.47	0.51	0.57	0.24	0.5	0.48	0.93
	Power	100.43	14.35	0.51	7.69	71.25	71.86	5.25	2.12
S8/F/22	Sample entropy	0.2	0.48	0.47	0.88	0.25	0.44	0.54	0.78
	Power	624.08	14.01	0.2	1.92	71.25	14.35	18.86	2.12
S9/F/23	Sample entropy	0.18	0.48	0.52	0.87	0.26	0.52	0.51	0.76
	Power	748.78	19.33	0.24	4.04	132.34	22.51	4.79	2.34
S10/F/21	Sample entropy	0.28	0.47	0.42	0.69	0.27	0.48	0.48	0.68
	Power	132.85	65.16	0.69	5.46	90.11	62.76	9.62	4.5
S11/F/50	Sample entropy	0.21	0.48	0.47	0.64	0.3	0.42	0.52	0.61
	Power	254.43	96.89	0.53	12.63	76.07	32.94	8.26	4.9
S12/M/24	Sample entropy	0.22	0.43	0.5	0.69	0.23	0.52	0.52	0.67
	Power	132.71	34.34	0.15	2.81	428.47	65.8	20.74	4.13
S13/F/18	Sample entropy	0.38	0.48	0.5	0.71	0.26	0.41	0.48	0.72
	Power	107.25	140.3	1.68	131.53	342.05	162.69	84.1	151.11
S14/F/18	Sample entropy	0.21	0.5	0.53	0.74	0.25	0.38	0.46	0.7
	Power	1302.16	73.07	0.22	1.91	444.75	141.51	15.73	3.73
S15/F/23	Sample entropy	0.19	0.44	0.51	0.67	0.23	0.49	0.51	0.77
	Power	324.08	17.46	0.15	5.73	154.49	19.64	12.58	1.27
S16/M/24	Sample entropy	0.22	0.49	0.49	0.67	0.28	0.45	0.42	0.6
	Power	273.4	16.4	0.21	1.33	138.3	28.85	13.02	6.07

S17/F/19	Sample entropy	0.21	0.49	0.48	0.57	0.22	0.45	0.49	0.59
	Power	253.62	20.01	0.51	3.63	159.16	71.85	8.23	7.73
S18/F/16	Sample entropy	0.19	0.54	0.5	0.65	0.25	0.48	0.46	0.65
	Power	104.09	17.35	0.14	2.4	153.58	27.14	7.1	1.58
S19/F/18	Sample entropy	0.19	0.45	0.55	0.71	0.21	0.38	0.55	0.7
	Power	337.26	24.22	0.09	3.62	127.95	60.78	17.95	1.52
S20/F/18	Sample entropy	0.22	0.45	0.54	0.76	0.19	0.51	0.52	0.79
	Power	117.49	63.73	0.68	18.62	418.91	57.56	23.37	24.78
S21/M/28	Sample entropy	0.2	0.51	0.49	0.72	0.23	0.51	0.41	0.78
	Power	397.05	10.98	0.41	3.22	154.16	55.61	10.57	2.86
S22/F/18	Sample entropy	0.23	0.51	0.52	0.71	0.21	0.49	0.48	0.68
	Power	716.44	49.71	0.28	6.31	208.08	82.41	16.42	1.26
S23/F/48	Sample entropy	0.24	0.48	0.49	0.56	0.25	0.49	0.48	0.56
	Power	159.17	28.34	1.02	18.99	1157.57	57.81	63.49	10.88
S24/M/30	Sample entropy	0.2	0.49	0.51	0.71	0.19	0.52	0.44	0.76
	Power	476.73	16.97	0.26	1.45	164.58	24.05	15.31	2.38
S25/F/18	Sample entropy	0.25	0.52	0.49	0.69	0.21	0.43	0.41	0.62
	Power	470.55	38.13	34.97	3.22	309.47	43.4	0.86	5.27

Table 2: p -Values of different EEG rhythms for Sample Entropy and Power

features	p-value (EEG Band)			
	Delta	Theta	Alpha	Beta
Sample Entropy	1.01E-01	1.01E-01	1.06E-01	2.50E-01
Power	1.01E-01	8.70E-04	7.71E-08	2.35E-01

Power Spectral analysis: The aim of this work is to investigate the effects on human being brain after the meditation. This is done by examining the different brain rhythms. The Spectral analysis gives information regarding to the existence of different frequency bands of EEG that reflects the general arousal levels of the brain [18]. Here the spectral analysis calculated by using FFT shows the power distribution over the brain regions. The FFT method is utilized to convert a signal from the time domain to frequency domain.

The maximum power value is extracted from the maximum amplitudes of the EEG signals shown in Table 1. It is observed that there is an overall increase in power after a month of meditation, in theta and alpha bands compared with the control group. While delta and beta band power decreases. Increased power in the alpha band implies high activity while doing easy tasks and theta band indicates subject alert to the external environment [9]. Whereas the delta band and beta band power are decreased in the corresponding subject.

From the analysis, theta and alpha bands are stronger with respect to band power in meditators than the control group which implies that theta and alpha changes appear from meditation practice. The increases in alpha and theta band power and decrease in frequency correlates with the lower level of anxiety and a higher level of calmness [1]. As the

subject get calm it said that emotionally stable state and thus, subjects can increase concentration level. The alpha and theta band shows that $p \ll 0.05$ while delta and beta bands indicate $p > 0.05$. From the observation of p-value, it is implied that the theta band has a lower p -value while alpha band has higher discriminating data set between the control group and the meditators group as shown in table 2.

Through the power spectral analysis, it is perceived that power in theta and alpha bands increases significantly which supports and signifies the previous studies conducted on meditation. It is stated that, after meditation, there is a considerable increase in theta power for 88 % subjects' and an increase in alpha power for all the subjects. Whereas the delta and beta bands power are decreased. Theta band is associated with alertness, attention, working memory, concentration, and increased awareness of surrounding. Hence, the psycho-physiological effects are obtained by statistical and spectral features as the evidence by alpha and theta bands.

IV. CONCLUSION

The purpose of this innovative work is to analyse the psycho-physiological effects of meditation. The spectral analysis stated that theta power has increased 88 % of subjects whereas the alpha power is increased for all the meditators after meditation. From the quantitative analysis, it is stated that meditation improves psychological parameters in terms of relaxation, stress relief whereas, physiological parameters in terms of cognitive abilities. In future, the work shall be extended by increasing more subjects with sustained period of meditation to enact the more benefits of meditation.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

Authors wish to thank Dr. Monika Malokar, MD, DM (Neurology), Neuro physician, Malokar Hospital; Akola, Maharashtra, India for providing all types of data base whenever required.

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Application of Modified Restricted Boltzmann Machine (mRBM) for denoising of motion-artifacted MRI scans

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Abstract—One of the key difficulties that might impact the diagnosis is motion artifact in MR imaging. A Restricted Boltzmann Machine (RBM) may train itself using a probability distribution over a set of inputs. As a result, RBM may be used to create MRI scans that are devoid of artifacts. The suggested approach for denoising motion artifact-induced MRI data uses a feedback network to modify the existing restricted Boltzmann machine (RBM). Because to RBM, the number of weights and biases that must be calibrated is limited to visible and hidden layers, considerably speeding up the training process. Once trained, RBM output for a 256 x 256-pixel image takes roughly 2 seconds. mRBM has a root mean squared error (RMSE) of 0.00343. Because mRBM does not require repeat MRI, the speed and accuracy of diagnosis can be increased.

Index Terms—MRI, mRBM, motion artifact

I. INTRODUCTION

Human movements are unavoidable and may lead to motion artifacts during magnetic resonance imaging [1], [2]. The motion artifact-induced MRI is generally degraded in its image quality [3]. Because of the low SNR, such MRIs are not very useful in diagnosis. Low SNR due to the gradient echos cause blurring in the MRI images [4].

Restricted Boltzmann Machine (RBM) is used to extract features from an image [5]. Typically hidden layers are trained in an RBM using feature activation of its visible layer [6], [7]. RBM has two biases which are distinctive features in comparison to other methods reported in the literature [8], [9]. The hidden bias allows activation in the forward path. Visible layer bias helps in the reconstruction of the RBM in the backward direction. RBMs are shallow networks consisting of only two layers - the visible layer and the hidden layer. Nodes are interconnected across the layers but no two nodes of the same layer are linked. RBMs are called restricted Boltzmann machines because there is no intralayer communication.

Figure 1 shows the proposed methodology of the modified RBM. As shown in Fig. 1 (a) MRI scans are pre-processed to remove the name and other printed information. The name-removed output is then transformed into a 1-D array, with the region of interest (ROI) moved in the center. Each pixel on the visible layer gets its multiplying weight. When all of the pixels of a 2-D image are processed through the visible and hidden layers, a difference image is formed. This image is then compared to the ground truth, yielding a different image. The learning rate and the values in the difference image are used to alter all of the weights and biases. In Fig. 1 (b), a blinded sample with trained mRBM is used for real-time motion artifact correction testing. The RMSE was calculated using the ground truth and the generated output image. With the available dataset, the minimal RMSE value can be as low as 0.008.

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

Lyu *et al.* [10] employed a recurrent neural network to reduce heart motion artifacts. They claim that their approach produces superior image quality than any of the cardiac images published in the literature. Lyu employed a recurrent neural network to reduce heart motion artifacts in MRI images. They integrated bidirectional convolutional long short-term memory with multiscale convolution. They also recommended using the same approach to rebuild missing frames in order to improve temporal resolution. Zhao *et al.* [11] has presented deep learning-based MRI artifact reduction (DMAR). They were successful in lowering the RMSE to 0.068. They were able to obtain a maximum PSNR of 23.38 dB. Oh *et al.* [12] corrected motion artifacts in MRI pictures using unsupervised deep learning algorithms. The photos were 320 x 320 pixels in size. Their recorded PSNR was 24.47, which was higher than the value given by pix2pix. They obtained a PSNR of

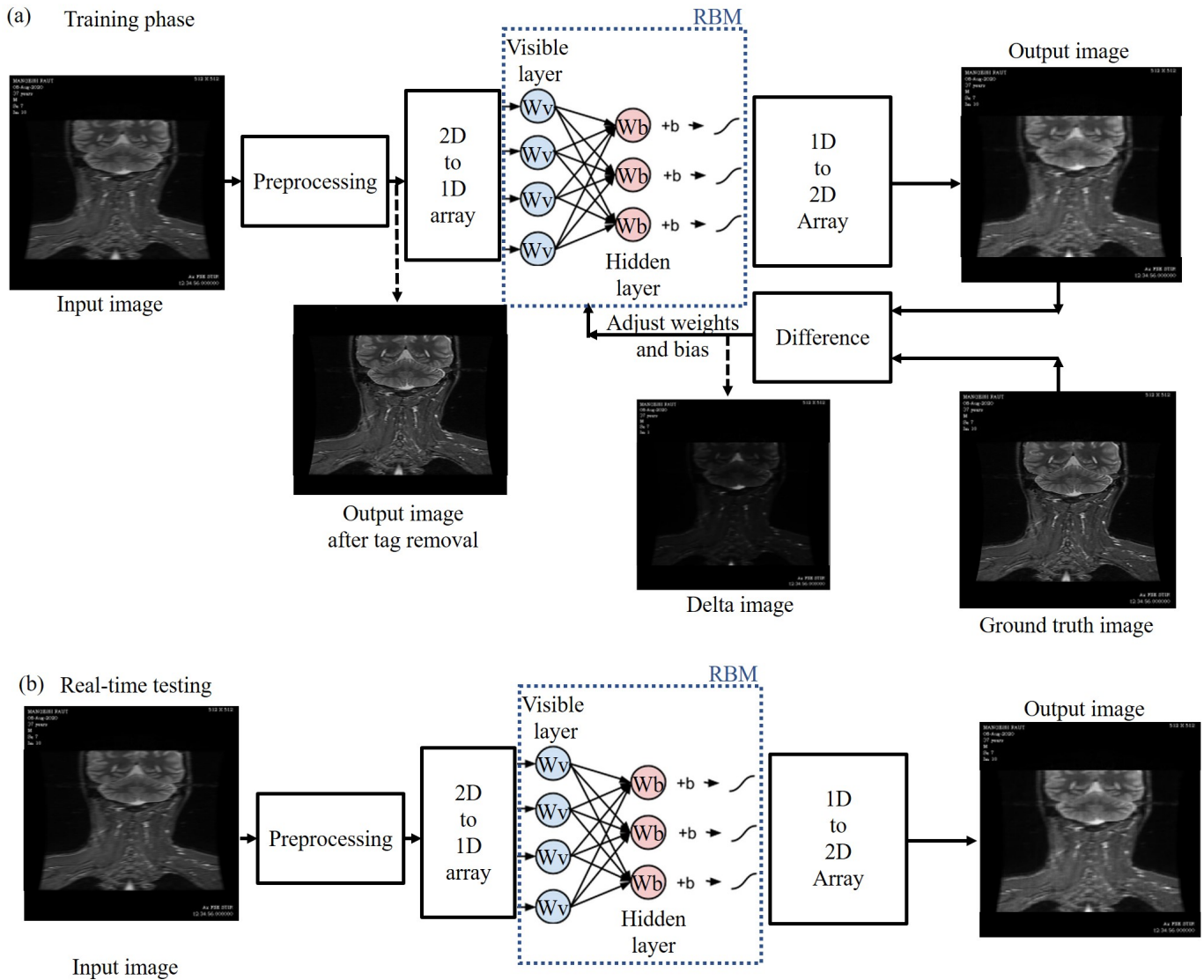


Fig. 1. Concept diagram for the proposed methodology. (a) The proposed system architecture uses a blurry MRI scan and its corresponding ground-truth version that was recaptured, as inputs. The name and other printed information are removed from the MRI images during preprocessing, and the data is converted to a 1D array. The 1D array is then sent into the RBM, where each pixel on the visible layer gets its multiplying weight. After that, all of the pixels are passed through the hidden layers, the weight of each hidden layer is multiplied, and the bias is added. To generate a difference image, the 1D output image is transformed to a 2D image before being compared to the ground truth image. (b) The proposed method is tested in real-time on a blinded sample using trained mRBM, with the resulting output image being used for RMSE estimates. We discovered that RMSE can be as low as 0.008.

34.13. Armanious *et al.* [13] proposed using cycle GAN to fix motion artifacts. They received an MSE of 375.01 for the 256×256 image size. Cycle-MedGAN and Cycle-MedGAN V2.0 were also created. Ciric *et al.* [14] improved MRI scans by 100 times using motion estimation and mathematical expressions. In addition, motion artifacts could be corrected in as little as 40 minutes to 4 hours.

Pipe *et al.* [15] employed Propeller MRI techniques to fix spatial discrepancies by sampling K-Space data. Their approach identifies and rejects data that has motion artifacts. Diffusion-weighted imaging (DW) was employed by Liao *et al.* [16]. They discovered that signal dropout occurs during heart scanning and is proportional to the b value. To eliminate

motion artifacts in MRI, Smith *et al.* [17] employed a pulse sequence, better scanning, and a specific pulse design. To reduce motion artifacts, Goto *et al.* [18] employed regional displacement interaction (RDI) and scrubbing. Wang *et al.* [19] employed a convolutional constrained Boltzmann machine to predict breast cancer pathological response. The feature map is extracted using the CRBM, which is subsequently used for classification. In both the visible and hidden layers of their convolutional RBM model, they used a 2D block. They utilized a standard PCR as a comparison. They were able to obtain a maximum accuracy of 80 %.

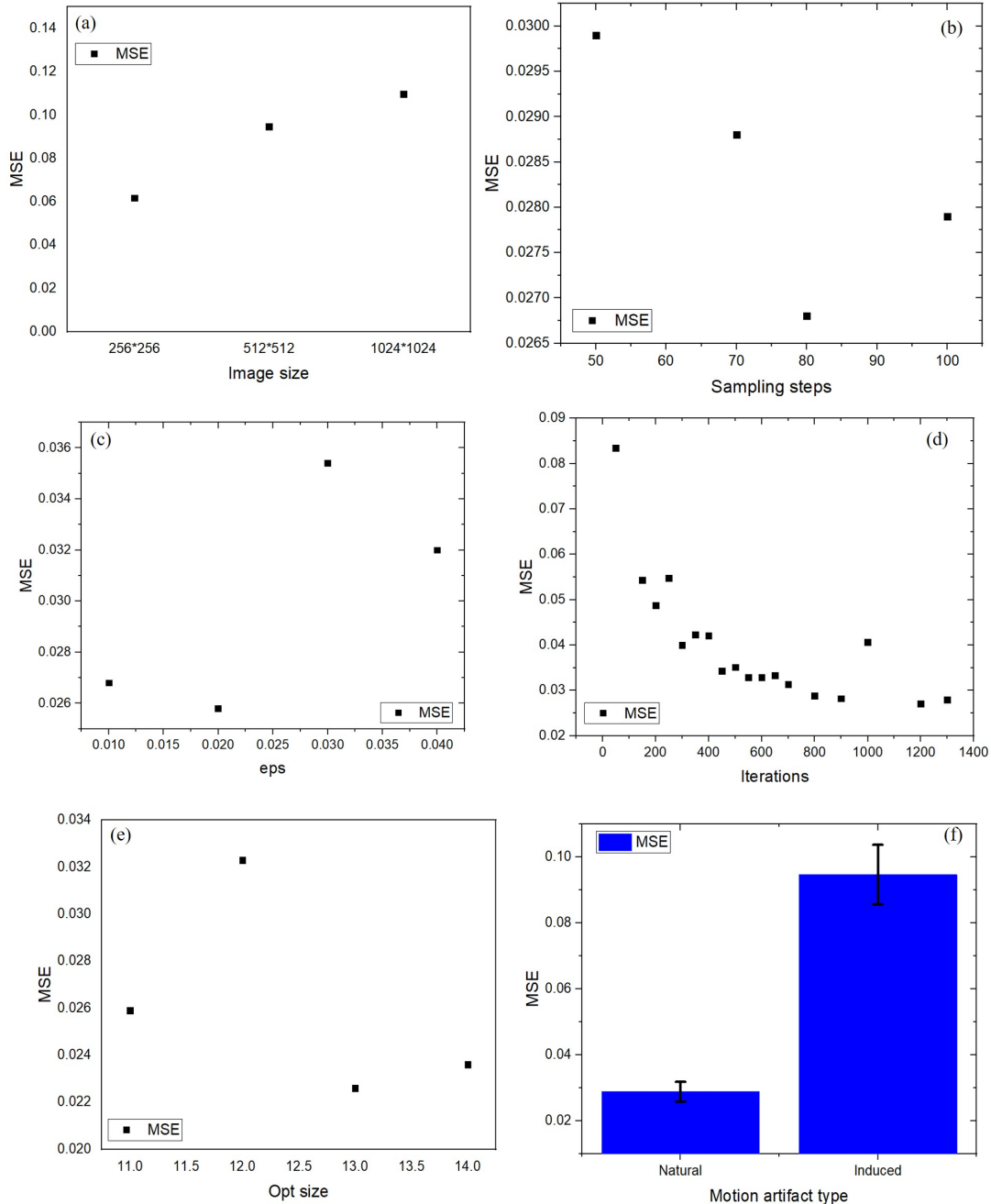


Fig. 2. Optimizing learning parameters with respect to Mean Square Error (MSE). (a) Plot of variation of input image size vs MSE. 256 X 256 pixels yields the lowest RMSE. (b) Plot of variation of sampling steps vs MSE. 80 sampling steps was the most optimal value. (c) Plot of variation of learning rate vs MSE. MSE was lowest at the learning rate of 0.02. (d) Plot of variation of the maximum number of iterations vs MSE. The lowest RMSE was produced in 900 iterations. (e) Plot of variation of the mini-batch size vs MSE. A mini-batch size of 13 yields the lowest RMSE value. (f) Comparison of RMSE for natural and artificially-induced motion artifacts in MRI scans. The average RMSE for natural motion artifacted MRI scans was lower than the average RMSE value of artificial motion artifacted MRI scans. Hence the proposed mRBM system should be preferred in cases of natural motion artifacts occurring in MRI scans.

III. METHODOLOGY

All of the image files that needed to be trained were housed in a single folder. The training inputs were set to a size of 256×256 pixels for the length and breadth of the images.

We also tried 512 X 512 pixels and 1024 X 1024 pixels as size variations. If there were any colored images, they were transformed to grayscale, and all of the photos were changed from their standard uint-8 format to double format for mathematical computation.

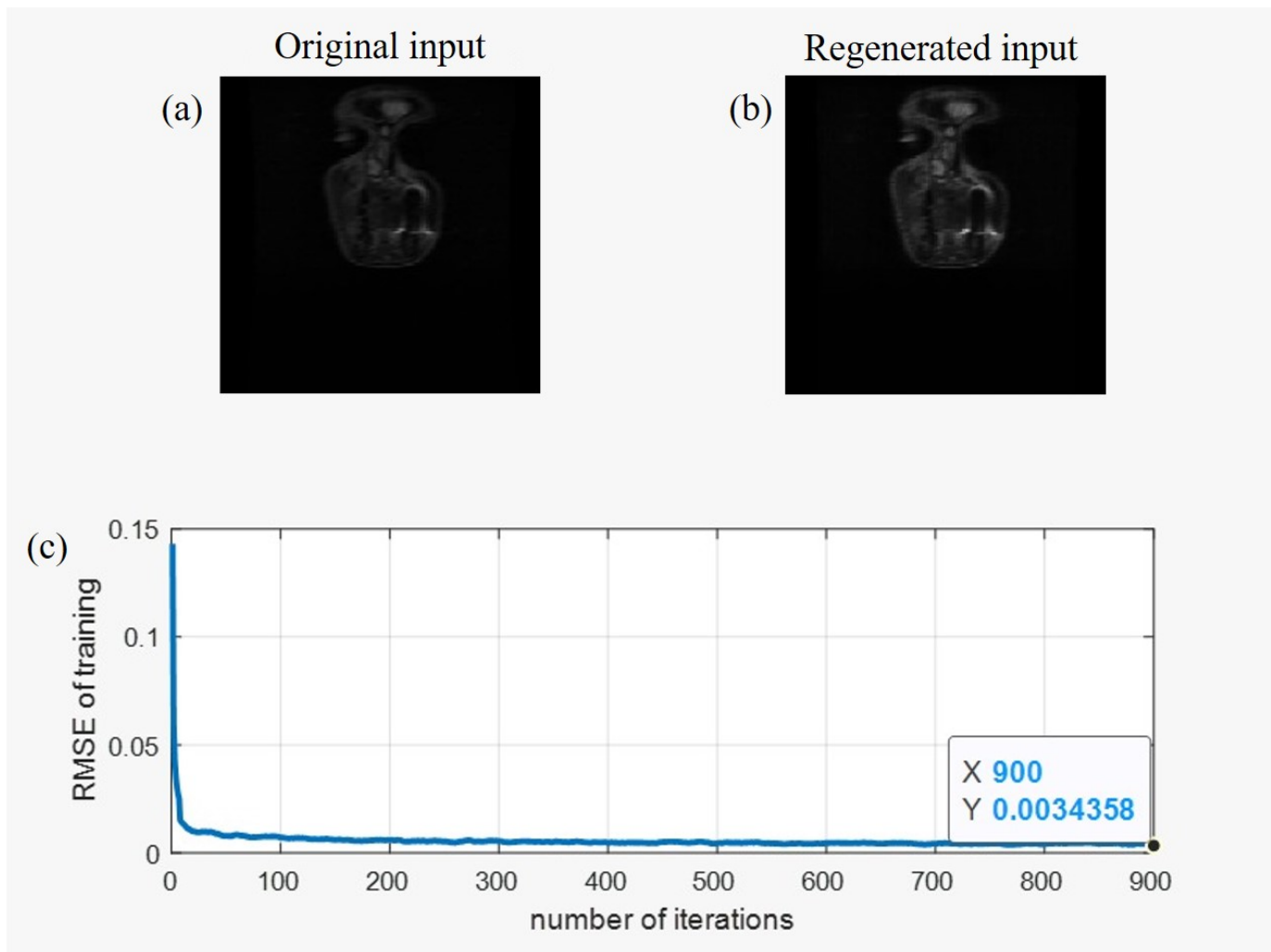


Fig. 3. Testing the proposed mRBM algorithm. (a) A motion blurred MRI scan is provided as input to the system. (b) Corresponding output generated by mRBM. (c) Plot of iterations vs Root Mean Square Error (RMSE). For this particular pair of input and output images, the lowest RMSE was 0.00343 obtained after 900 iterations.

We employed a conventional restricted Boltzmann machine (RBM method) and adjusted its parameters based on the difference between motion artifact corrected photos and their ground truths. The number of learning iterations that could be performed was limited to 900. We performed the algorithm from 50 to 1300 iterations with a configurable step size of 50, 100, and 200 to get the optimal number of iterations for the desired accuracy. The number of neurons in the hidden layer was set to 256 and the size of the mini-batch data was set at 13 images. We experimented with changing the learning rate from 0.01 to 0.04 in 0.1 increments. We also attempted Gibbs sampling steps of 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, and 100. The RMSE was minimized in all of these versions.

A. Details of training with mRBM

The entire input data was normalized between 0 to 1 using equation 1 and 2.

$$xn(i) = x(i) - \min(x) \quad (1)$$

Where,

$xn(i)$ is difference between the current value and the minimum value.

$x(i)$ is the pixel value at i^{th} location where i goes from 0 to $(m \times n)$.

$\min(x)$ is minimum value in image x .

$$x_{normalized}(i) = xn(i) / (\max(x) - \min(x)) \quad (2)$$

Where,

$x_{normalized}$ is the normal value of x .

$\max(x)$ is maximum value in image x .

For both visible and hidden layers, all starting biases were set to 0. The seed point was chosen at random and mini-batch data was loaded following the seed point for training. Each neuron's initial weights were created at random. We began Gibbs sampling with the energy function. The hidden weights

were adjusted using sigmoid functions of the visible layer weights. Equation 3 gives the sigmoid function.

$$S(w) = 1/1 + e^{-w} \quad (3)$$

Where,

$S(w)$ is the sigmoid function at w .

w is the weight value of the other layer.

The weights of visible layers were adjusted as a sigmoid function of the weights of newly discovered hidden layers. In terms of ground truth, positive divergence (pd) and negative divergence (nd) were calculated. As indicated in equation 4, the network weights were changed according to the learning rate specified and constructive divergence.

$$w(itr) = w(itr - 1) + \epsilon X (pd - nd) \quad (4)$$

Where,

$w(itr)$ is the weight value of the current iteration.

$w(itr-1)$ is the weight value of the previous iteration.

ϵ is the learning rate.

pd is the positive divergence.

nd is the negative divergence.

The overall difference between the visible layer and the ground truth image from the mini-batch with which we started was used to update the bias of visible layers.

$$b(itr) = b(itr - 1) + \epsilon X (O(itr) - GT) \quad (5)$$

Where,

$b(itr)$ is the bias value of the visible layer in the current iteration.

$b(itr-1)$ is the bias value of the visible layer in the previous iteration.

$O(itr)$ is the output of the current iteration.

GT is the ground truth

$$hb(itr) = hb(itr - 1) + \epsilon X (O(0) - O(itr)) \quad (6)$$

Where,

$hb(itr)$ is the bias value of the hidden layer in the current iteration.

$hb(itr-1)$ is the bias value of the hidden layer in the previous iteration.

$O(0)$ is the output of the first iteration.

$O(itr)$ is the output of the n^{th} iteration at which the node is activated.

$$RMSE = \sqrt{\frac{1}{m \times n} \sum (O(i) - GT(i))^2} \quad (7)$$

Where,

RMSE is the root mean square error.

$m \times n$ is the total number of locations

$O(i)$ is the output of the i^{th} location.

GT(i) is the ground truth of the i^{th} location.

The visible layer's revised biases are presented in equation 5. Similarly, the hidden layer's biases were adjusted using the learning rate and the difference between the initial output and the output of the last iteration, where the output image is identical to the ground truth (as shown in equation 6). The RMSE of a mini-batch image is calculated by comparing the output of the last visible layer to the ground truth for that image. The existing trained mRBM network is used to import all of the training parameters, such as weights and biases. Visible layer biases and hidden layer biases are examples of these biases. The input is denoised using this trained network after the accuracy is within the specified range. By comparing the output of the last visible layer to the ground truth for that particular mini-batch image, the RMSE is calculated (as shown in equation 7).

B. Experimental Procedure

A group of local hospitals in Mumbai and Akola provided us with 160 motion artifact-induced MRI images. The photographs were in the 32-bit Digital Imaging and Communications in Medicine format (DICOM). Before sending the dataset, the hospital erased the identities of all patients for data privacy reasons. All of the photos were saved in two different datasets, one with 50 % training data and the other with 50 % testing data. The original graphics were 512 by 512 pixels in size. The images were downsampled to a size of 256×256 pixels for analysis and speed optimization. Between the labeling of the two images, there is a perfect correlation. The images were upsampled to a resolution of 1024 by 1024 pixels to better comprehend the influence of size fluctuation. We treated an entire range of 50 samples to 100 samples with a configurable step size to optimize the amount of Gibbs samples to be considered. The number of Gibbs samples and the image size were both optimized. The mRBM's mini-batch size ranged from 11 to 14 images in 1 image increments. We also attempted to create a motion artifact image and fix it for better analysis. Finally, the mRBM's mini-batch size ranged from 11 to 14 images in steps of 1. We employed a rotation and translation procedure to create the intentionally created motion artifact images. The image was rotated by a 10-degree angle and translated to a 10-pixel motion, and the final image was created by averaging the original image with the rotated and translated image. We utilized a motion blur filter with special for averaging, and the final image was created with the imfilter function. For the required image and the generated image from the modified restricted Boltzmann machine, the RMSE was calculated.

IV. RESULTS

The image sizes were modified from 256×256 pixels to 1024×1024 pixels, as shown in Fig. 2 (a). The RMSE increases from 0.6 to 0.11 as the image size increases. The sample steps were varied between 50 and 100, as shown in

TABLE I
COMPARISON OF THE PROPOSED MRBM WITH METHODS REPORTED IN THE LITERATURE

Method	RMSE	Iterations	Execution time (Sec.)	Number of images	PSNR
Tamada <i>et al.</i> [3]	0.01	80	–	40	–
Zhao <i>et al.</i> [11]	0.068	–	–	375	23.38
Armanious <i>et al.</i> [13]	0.805	–	–	–	26.03
Oh <i>et al.</i> [12]	0.9078	–	3.2	150	34.13
Rotman <i>et al.</i> [20]	0.013	120	159	7474	–
Proposed algorithm mRBM	0.00343	900	1.926	160	34.0875

Fig. 2 (b). As a consequence, 80 sample steps and a 256x256 pixel image size were determined to be ideal.

When the learning rate (eps i.e. ϵ) is altered between 0.01 and 0.04, the RMSE ranges from 0.0255 to 0.036. The effect of iterations variation on the least RMSE is shown in Figure 2 (c). With a learning rate ranging from 50 to 1300 in stages of 50, 100, and 200, the minimum RMSE occurs at 900 iterations as shown in Fig. 2 (d).

Because of the small size of the data set, the RMSE of a minibatch of motion artifact photos ranges from 0.022 to 0.034. The effect of changing the size of the mini-batch from 11 to 14 images is seen in Fig. 2 (e). As illustrated in Fig. 2 (f), we compared 160 naturally induced motion-artifact images to programmatically induced motion-augmented images. Artificially generated motion artifact images have an RMSE roughly three times that of naturally occurring motion artifact images. Artificially produced motion artifact images have an error bar of 0.098, whereas naturally, caused-motion artifact images have an error bar of 0.028. Both sorts of images have the same error bar. As a result, the suggested method outperforms the artificially induced method in the situation of naturally induced motion artifact images.

A sample motion blurred MRI scan and its corresponding mRBM regenerated output is shown in Fig. 3. The RMSE of a trained mRBM can be as low as 0.00343 after 900 iterations, as shown in Fig. 3. Because the error decreases exponentially after the first 50 iterations, it is expected that at least 100 iterations will be necessary to fix any image with motion artifacts.

A. Discussions

The suggested mRBM technique is compared to existing methods reported in the literature in Table 1. The best approach for RMSE is mRBM, which has a value of 0.00343. Tamada *et al.* [3] and Rotman *et al.* [20] both have good RMSE in the 0.01 area. Other methods have reported only 80 [3] to 120 [20] iterations, however, the suggested technique takes the maximum number of iterations, ensuring greater quality. We also discovered that after the first 50 rounds, our algorithm works well, and we recommend at least 100 iterations for good accuracy. After training, the suggested approach has the best execution time of around 2 seconds, although others have reported 3 seconds [12] and 159 seconds [20]. The proposed approach has the second-best PSNR with 34.08, and Oh *et al.* [12] has the maximal PSNR of 34.13. Rotman *et al.* [20]

utilized 7474 images, which was the maximum number of images used in the reported literature. Others, including the suggested technique, have samples ranging from a few hundred to a few thousand (it is difficult to get motion artifact data since most of the time rescan is immediately performed and such data is then discarded to save memory).

We needed a ground truth as well as motion artifact-induced images for this particular mRBM technique. To obtain rapid results, we employed an eight-core processor with 16 GB RAM and 6 GB of GPU. Because the entire network size is dependent on the size of the image, tuning a network like RBM is extremely challenging. Our network’s accuracy is determined by the ground truth and their edge-to-edge matching with previous scans. Because the photographs were not aligned in the specific domain, we had to delete around 60 % of the images received. Only when the edge is not blurred can we align a ground truth image with the motion artifact-induced image using an extra pre-processing step based on the Canny edge detector.

V. CONCLUSIONS

Rescanning the MRI is the standard method for eradicating motion-induced artifacts. It is now possible to fix motion artifact photographs using advances in machine learning. The proposed method takes a limited Boltzmann machine and turns it into a closed-loop system that repeats until the error is within acceptable bounds. This mRBM (modified RBM) allows us to fix motion artifacts in less than 2 seconds with an RMSE of 0.00343. PSNR of 34.08 was attained with the proposed approach. The suggested approach required 900 iterations, and we anticipate that in the future, researchers will be able to employ this mRBM algorithm to fix motion artifacts in less time.

DECLARATIONS

Funding information

No funding was involved in the present work.

Conflicts of interest

Authors V. R. Tripathi, M. N. Tibdewal and R. Mishra declare that there has been no conflict of interest.

Code availability

Not applicable.

Authors' contributions

Conceptualization was done by V. R. Tripathi (VT), M. N. Tibdewal(MT), and R. Mishra (RM). All the literature reading and data gathering were performed by VT. All the experiments and coding was performed by VT. The formal analysis was performed by VT and RM. Manuscript writing- original draft preparation was done by VT. Review and editing was done by MT and RM. Visualization work was carried out by VT, MT and RM.

Ethics approval

All authors consciously assure that the manuscript fulfills the following statements: 1) This material is the authors' own original work, which has not been previously published elsewhere. 2) The paper is not currently being considered for publication elsewhere. 3) The paper reflects the authors' own research and analysis in a truthful and complete manner. 4) The paper properly credits the meaningful contributions of co-authors and co-researchers. 5) The results are appropriately placed in the context of prior and existing research.

Consent to participate

This article does not contain any studies with animals or humans performed by any of the authors. Informed consent was not required as there were no human participants. All the necessary permissions were obtained from Institute Ethical committee and concerned authorities.

Consent for publication

Authors have taken all the necessary consents for publication from participants wherever required.

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Abstract:

One of the key difficulties that might impact the diagnosis is motion artifact in MR imaging. A Restricted Boltzmann Machine (RBM) may train itself using a probability distribution over a set of inputs. As a result, RBM may be used to create MRI scans that are devoid of artifacts. The suggested approach for denoising motion artifact-induced MRI data uses a feedback network to modify the existing restricted Boltzmann machine (RBM). Because of RBM, the number of weights and biases that must be calibrated is limited to visible and hidden layers, considerably speeding up the training process. Once trained, RBM output for a 256 x 256-pixel image takes roughly 2 seconds. mRBM has a root mean squared error (RMSE) of 0.00343. Because mRBM does not require repeat MRI, the speed and accuracy of diagnosis can be increased.

Published in: 2022 10th International Conference on Emerging Trends in Engineering and Technology - Signal and Information Processing (ICETET-SIP-22)

Date of Conference: 29-30 April 2022

INSPEC Accession Number: 21842902

Date Added to IEEE Xplore: 15 June 2022

DOI: 10.1109/ICETET-SIP-2254415.2022.9791510

► **ISBN Information:**

Publisher: IEEE

► **ISSN Information:**

Conference Location: Nagpur, India

Implementation of Combinational Logic for Polar Decoder

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Abstract— Error free communication is possible due to channel coding. Polar code has been identified by control channel code for 5G wireless communication. In this paper we implement combinational logic for polar decoder. As compare to sequential circuits for polar decoder, the proposed combinational logic circuit has low complexity in design. The parallel architecture of proposed logic provides fastest logic for the designing of polar decoder. Polar decoder by using sequential bit decoding approach is also proposed here. The design implementation and its simulations are done on Xilinx platform using Verilog HDL. The analysis for complexity and delay is done here.

Keywords—Polar decoder, Polar code, Combinational logic, Channel coding, 5G.

I. INTRODUCTION

Polar code is identified as channel code for 5G wireless communication (by 3GPP – third generation partnership project). The role of channel coding is to recover the noisy channel hence the reliable communication is possible. Such type of channel code is known as Error Correcting Code (ECC). According to Shannon's theorem [1] the receiver can receive correct information bit, if encoder and decoder designed properly. These information bits can be recovered at the receiver with coding rate $R = \frac{K}{N} < C$

$$C = \max_{p(x)} I(X; Y) \quad (1)$$

Where C is the channel capacity and $I(X; Y)$ is the mutual information between input and output and the maximization is over the all probability distribution $p(x)$ on the channel input.

Polar code was first time introduced by Arikan [2] in 2009, which provably achieved channel capacity with low complexity encoding and decoding algorithm. It achieved maximum channel capacity as compare to Turbo codes [3] and Low Density Parity Checked (LDPC) Codes [4][5][6]. Achieving maximum channel capacity for code is challenging. These three turbo codes, LDPC and polar codes are remarkable uses for wireless communication such as HSPA, Wi-Fi, WiMAX, and LTE etc.

LDPC codes can effectively supports multiple code rates, block length with better decoding latency and throughput than other codes; hence it was selected for the data channels of NR replacing the turbo code [7]. Whereas in 3GPP Meeting in 2016, it was discussed that polar codes can have best error correction capability at short length that are used for control information hence polar codes was selected for control channel coding replacing tail-biting convolution codes (TBCC) of LTE [8].

Polar code is low complexity channel coding method which can achieve Shannon's channel capacity for any

binary input discrete memory less channel (B-DMC) W , based on the idea of channel polarization. The code create N synthetic channels from N independent uses of such channel, which turn out to be less or more noisy than the original channel. According to channel polarization, Bhattacharya parameter is used to quantify the reliability of channel W . The good bit channel has lowest Bhattacharya parameter, which is defined as

$$Z(W) = \sum_{y \in Y} \sqrt{W(y|0)W(y|1)} \quad (2)$$

Here Y is output alphabet and input alphabets are $\{0,1\}$ for a binary memoryless Symmetric (BMS) channel W . $\{W(y|x): x \in X, y \in Y\}$ is the transition probability.

In this we paper, we implement combinational logic to design polar decoder. The details of polar encoder and polar decoder are explained. The combination logic is the representation of equation used for decoding purpose. The equations of decoding can be formed from flow diagram of polar decoder. The f -function, g -function and partial sum function equation are used to implement combinational logic. We design SC polar code decoder by directly following the polar code $P(8, 5)$ decoding graph as it is. Also here we present the design by structural way also, which constitute component code for 4-bit polar code. Here the 4-bit polar code is designed by combination logic. Polar decoder using sequential bit decoding approach is also designed here. The synthesis and simulation of SC polar decoder design has been done on Xilinx platform.

This paper is organized as follows: Section II has the details of polar code. The details about polar encoder are mentioned here, with the formulation of code using codeword. The representation of codeword is given in the form of tree as well as in encoder graph. The concept of polar decoder is given in section III. The decoding approach is well defined using different function (f and g) with their equivalent equations. Section IV has proposed work of combinational logic for polar decoder. The combinational logic is implemented for 4-bit polar code. This 4-bit polar code is treated as component code. By using component code we designed polar decoder. Polar decoder using sequential bit decoding approach is present in this section. The simulation and synthesis is done on Xilinx. The synthesis result of proposed design and comparison with present design is given in Section V.

II. POLAR CODE

Polar codes $P(N, K)$ has (K) information bits and $(N - K)$ called frozen bits. It allowed to divide the N - bit input vector u between reliable (message bits) and unreliable (frozen bits) bit channels as due to channel polarization effects. The predefined values of frozen bits are set to θ . The

reliability sequence (position of reliable and unreliable bits) will be known to encoder side and decoder side, which will make easy to decode the bits at decoder side with error correction.

A. Polar Encoder :

Polar encoder encodes the message bits (K) with frozen bits ($N - K$). A polar code is a linear block code of length $N = 2^n$ and rate $R = \frac{K}{N}$. The encoding process of polar code can be represented by modulo-2 matrix multiplication. The code word is

$$X = uG_N \quad (3)$$

Here u is the inputs bits of length N (u_1, u_2, \dots, u_N) and X is the coded output bits of length N (x_1, x_2, \dots, x_N). The key point for this code word is polar transform G_N , which is $N \times N$ generator matrix also known as n -th Kronecker product with a basic kernel of 2×2 .

$$G_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

As $N = 2^n$, hence G_N can be written as

$$G_N = G_{2^n} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}^{\otimes n} = G_2 \otimes G_{2^{(n-1)}} \otimes G_{2^{(n-2)}} \quad (4)$$

Code word for $N = 2$ is

$$X = uG_N$$

$$\begin{aligned} [x_1, x_2] &= [u_1, u_2] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \\ x^{(2)} &= [x_1, x_2] = [u_1 + u_2, u_2] \end{aligned} \quad (5)$$

Here $+$ operator indicates modulo 2 operation that is bitwise xor (\oplus) operation. $X^{(2)}$ is the output decoded bits for $N=2$.

The polar transform for $N = 4$ is

$$G_4 = G_2 \otimes G_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Hence the code ward for $N = 4$ can be found as follows

$$X = uG_N$$

$$[x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4] = [u_1, u_2, u_3, u_4] \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$X^{(4)} = [x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4] = [u_1 + u_2 + u_3 + u_4, u_2 + u_4, u_3 + u_2, u_2] \quad (6)$$

The code word tree representation of equation (6) for $N = 4$ is shown in Fig. 1. Here the dotted rectangular box represents the code word tree of $N = 2$ which follows the equation (5).

We can combine two component code (c_1 and c_2) of $N = 4$ to form the code ward $N = 8$. The code word tree for $N = 8$ is shown in Fig. 2 and its equivalent circuit graph is shown in Fig. 3. The polar encoder graph is having xor circuit elements, which follows equation (3). The rectangular box in Fig. 3 shows the component code of $N = 4$.

We may achieve the code word for highest values of N by combing $N/2$ component codes.

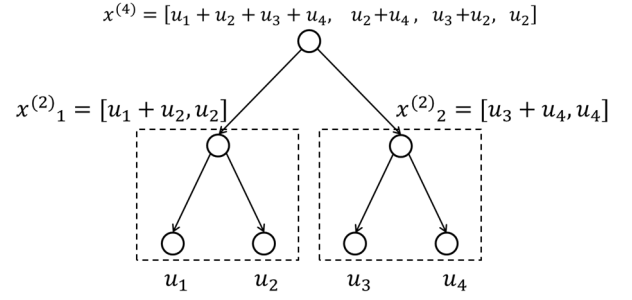


Fig. 1. Polar encoder codeword binary tree for $N = 4$

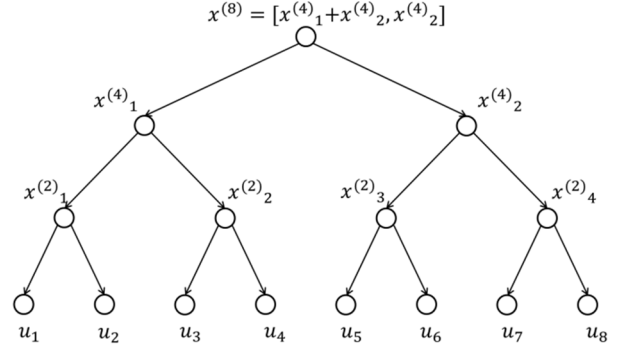


Fig. 2. Polar encoder codeword binary tree for $N = 8$

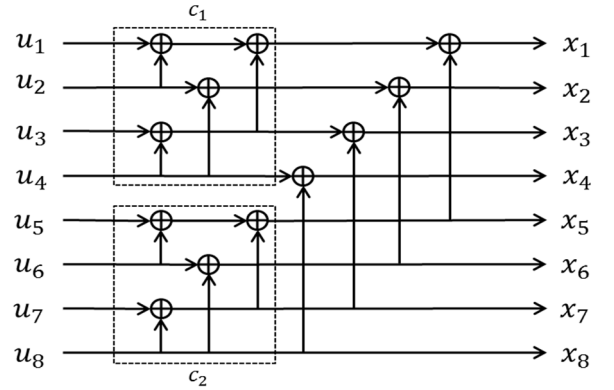


Fig. 3. Polar encoder graph for $N = 8$

III. POLAR DECODER

To decode the original signal from noisy signal at receiver end, we need decoder. Polar code decoder uses a successive cancellation (SC) decoding approach introduced by Arikan in [2]. A code word is transmitted from transmitter; which receives at receiver end with the output vector $y \in Y^N$. The channel W has an input alphabet $X \{0, 1\}$, an output alphabet Y and transition probabilities $\{W(y|x): x \in X, y \in Y\}$. The receiver calculates the log-likelihood ratio (LLR) vector $\ell = (\ell_1, \ell_2, \ell_3, \dots, \ell_N)$ to decode the received message. These LLRs are the input for polar decoder. The LLR can be defined as

$$\ell_i = \ln \left(\frac{P(y_i|x_i=0)}{P(y_i|x_i=1)} \right) \quad (7)$$

Decoding binary tree of polar decoder is shown in Fig. 4. This tree is for polar code $P(8, 3)$ where $N = 8$ and $K = 3$

i.e. last three bits are message bits and 5 bits are frozen bits. The same bit information is known to polar encoder side with reliability sequence. At the decoder side, we have to decode the bits from received vector at receiver side. These received vectors have the LLR values received. The tree shows the root or vertex node at $t = 0$, which received all LLR values. At each stage t of tree, the soft LLR values $\alpha = \{\alpha_1, \alpha_2, \alpha_3, \dots, \alpha_{2^{(t-1)}}\}$ are passed from parent nodes to its child node and hard bit estimates $\beta = \{\beta_1, \beta_2, \beta_3, \dots, \beta_{2^{(t-1)}}\}$ are passed from child node to its parent node [9]. Here in Fig. 4, consider a v root node has α_v LLR values and β_v received hard bit estimation at v root node. Followed by next stage parent node having LLR values α^l and α^r for left and right side respectively, whereas β^l and β^r received hard bit estimations.

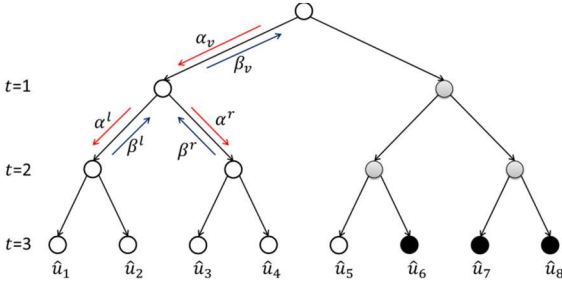


Fig. 4. SC polar decoder tree for Polar code $P(8,3)$

SC polar decoder tree can be depicted in its equivalent XOR circuit graphs shown in Fig. 5, which would be seen to be same as encoder side. The computations of the SC decode pertaining to XORs in the graph; here the XOR functionality will vary according to LLRs value at different steps in decoding process [10].

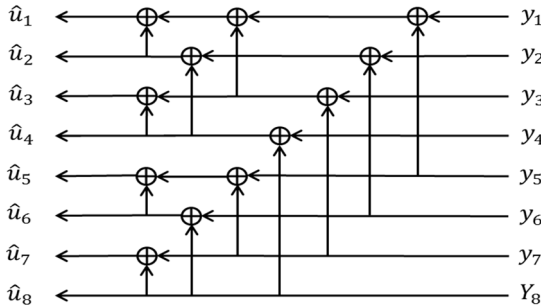


Fig. 5. Polar decoder graph for $N=8$

In the decoding process, the XOR operation is performed according to LLR of various received vector. It has identified by three operations which has f - function, g -function and partial sum function, shown in Fig. 6. Fig. 6(a) is of f -function. Here we consider α_a and α_b are two available LLRs value as inputs for XOR to compute LLR α_c according to function f [13].

$$\alpha_c = f(\alpha_a, \alpha_b)$$

$$\alpha_c = 2 \tan^{-1}(\tanh(\alpha_a/2) \tanh(\alpha_b/2)) \quad (8)$$

or

$$\alpha_c \approx \text{sign}(\alpha_a) \text{sign}(\alpha_b) \min(|\alpha_a|, |\alpha_b|) \quad (9)$$

This equation (9) is min-sum approximation, where $\text{sign}(\cdot)$ returns -1, if argument is negative and returns +1 in case if argument is positive.

According to the value of output LLR (α_c) of f - function, we get the first decoded bit $\hat{\beta}_a$ (hard bit). $\hat{\beta}_a$ bit value is 0 for positive LLR value and 1 and for negative LLR. Using α_a and α_b and hard bit $\hat{\beta}_a$, can compute for LLR α_d according to g function in equation (10).

$$\alpha_d = g(\alpha_a, \alpha_b, \hat{\beta}_a) = (-1)^{\hat{\beta}_a} \alpha_a + \alpha_b \quad (10)$$

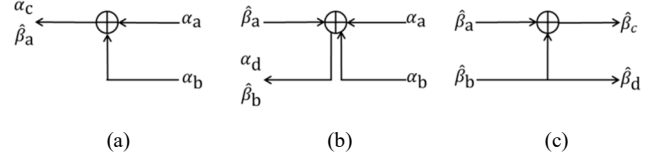


Fig. 6. Bits decoding approach with (a) f function (b) g function and (c) partial sum

Second hard bit detection can be achieved by g - function shown in Fig. 6 (b); it depends on LLR value of α_d . From the decoded bits ($\hat{\beta}_a, \hat{\beta}_b$), we can go reverse back that is left side to right side for partial sum. By XOR function [13], we can find partial sum $\hat{\beta}_c$ and $\hat{\beta}_d$ from equation (10) and (11), same is illustrated in Fig. 6(c).

$$\hat{\beta}_c = \text{XOR}(\hat{\beta}_a, \hat{\beta}_b) \quad (11)$$

$$\hat{\beta}_d = \hat{\beta}_b \quad (12)$$

The SC decoding process is begin with f function (8) or (9) by propagating LLRs from the right hand edge of the graph, to the top connection on the left-hand edge of the graph, allowing the first bit to be recovered as shown in Fig.5. decoding graph of SC decoder. f function continuously calculates LLR using min-sum approximation method till not reaching to first decoded bit. Once first bit is decoded, it may go with g function of (10) to decode second bit for a particular XOR to switch from bit propagation to LLR propagation. Before using the f function to propagate LLRs to the next connection on the left-hand edge of the graph, allowing the corresponding bit to be recovered. Each successive bit from top to bottom is recovered by using the partial sum computations of (11) and (12) to propagate bits from left to right. This process is continuously on till not reaching to last bit. Binary tree of SC decoder of $P(8,3)$ shown in Fig.4 also depicted the same thing. The left child node $\alpha^l = \{\alpha_0^l, \alpha_1^l, \dots, \alpha_{T-1}^l\}$ can be computed by f function (8) or (9), whereas the right child node $\alpha^r = \{\alpha_0^r, \alpha_1^r, \dots, \alpha_{T-1}^r\}$ can be computed using g function (10). Here we assume the LLRs values of respective value of node will be stored in internal LLR memory. The bit will be decoded according to LLR value, when node traverse and reach to leaf node.

The bit estimation in the SC decoder is based on the previous bit values. To complete this decoding process, the decoder takes $(2N - 2)$ steps. To store LLR values, it required channel LLR memory, internal LLR memory and hard estimated bit storage memory to store the decoding bits.

IV. COMBINATIONAL LOGIC FOR POLAR DECODER

In this paper, we designed polar decoder for 8-bit using combination logic of 4-bit polar decoder. The combinational logic is developed from f and g function of equation (9) and (10) respectively. Another implementation of polar decoder

is done, which follows the polar decoder graph shown in Fig. 5.

A. Combinational Logic :

Combinational logic is made by using f -function combinational circuit and g -function combinational circuit with some additive gate for overall design of polar decoder [12]

1. f -function circuit: The f -function circuit is implemented based on equation (8) (min-sum) as discussed in previous section. To implement this, we use a comparator circuit which will compare two LLR values; multiplexer which provide us the minimum values of LLT depends on control signal generated from comparator; another XOR gate is used for sign generation. All the combination of comparator, multiplexer and XOR gate shown in Fig. 7 follows the min-sum equation (8).

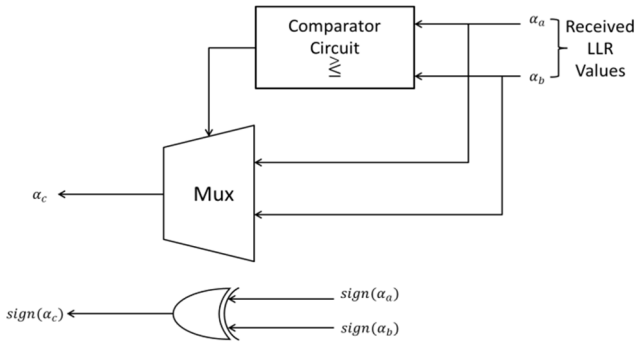


Fig. 7. f -function circuit

2. g -function circuit: The g -function circuit is implemented based on based on equation (9) as discussed in previous section is shown in Fig. 8. To implement this, we used an adder/subtractor circuit which will work depends on previous estimated bit. Multiplexer gives the output LLR, depends on previous estimated bit.

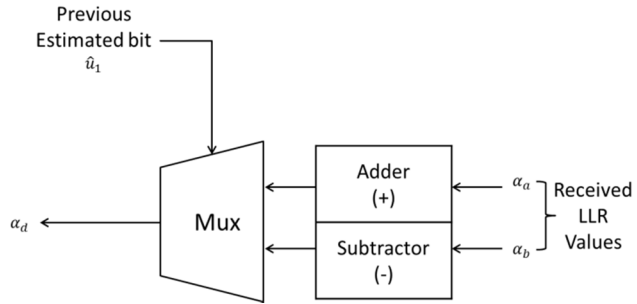


Fig. 8. g -function circuit

3. Polar decoder 4-bit: The polar decoder is implemented using f -function and g -function circuit. The design of this 4-bit polar decoder follows the circuit graph shown in Fig. 9. This circuit graph shows the interconnection between f -function and g -function to form combinational logic for 4-bit polar decoder. The RTL schematic of 4-bit polar decoder using combinational logic is shown in Fig. 10. The simulation and synthesis of 4-bit polar decoder are done on Xilinx platform.

4. Polar decoder 8-bit: According to circuit flow diagram shown in Fig. 11, the 8-bit polar decoder can be

implemented using two 4-bit component codes. Here we design 8-bit polar using 4-bit polar decoder and some f -function and g -function. The RTL schematic of 8-bit polar decoder is shown in Fig. 12. The simulation and synthesis of 4-bit polar decoder are done on Xilinx platform.

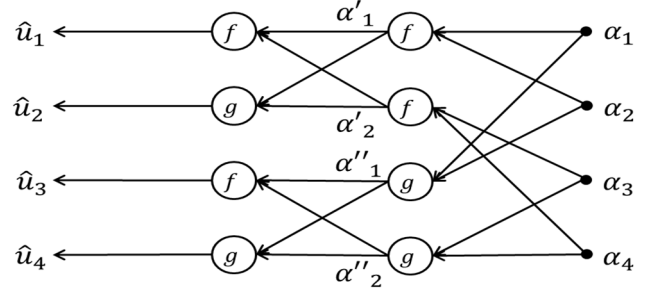


Fig. 9. Circuit graph of polar decoder (4-bit)

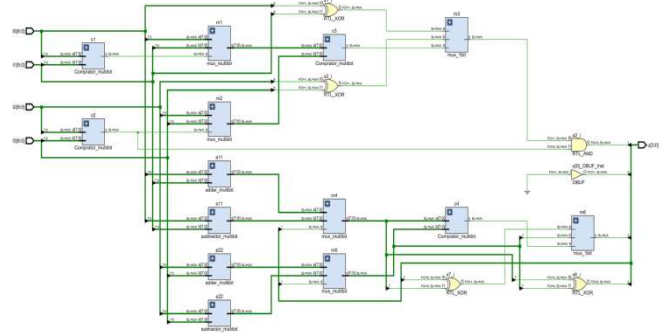


Fig. 10. RTL Schematic of polar decoder (4-bit) using combinational logic

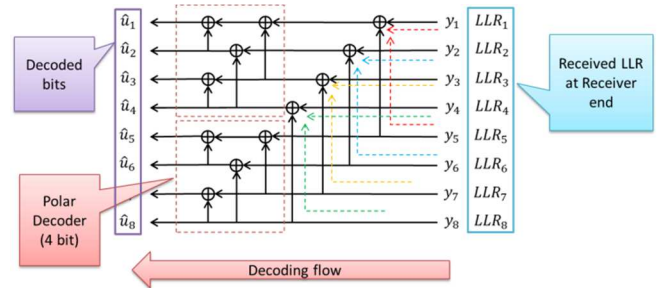


Fig. 11. Polar decoder graph for N=8 with using 4-bit polar decoder

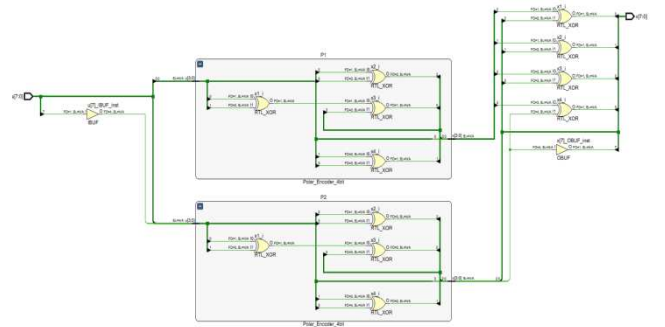


Fig. 12. RTL Schematic of polar decoder using two 4-bit polar decoder

B. Sequential Bit decoding approach:

As SC polar decoder is sequential in nature, the bits at receiving side will be decoded one by one. Decoding of next bits depends on preceding bits. Hence the roles of f and g function are important in this case. Sequential bit decoding approach of polar decoder used three types of function as

discussed in section III. These are f –function, g –function and partial sum or xor function. The design of these functions have to be done very carefully to get correct output, as they will be used many of times in overall circuit of decoder. To design polar decoder for 8-bit, here we will follow polar decoder graph as shown in Fig. 13. As per decoder graph, we designed the polar decoder in the Verilog HDL by considering pre-designed functions (f, g and xor) as components in it. Simulations and synthesis are done on Xilinx. The RTL schematic view of SC polar decoder is shown in Fig. 14. The final outputs are decoded bits, whereas the internal bits and LLR values are stored in memory for decoding the bits.

The external input LLR values are given in pair to f -function as $y_1 y_5, y_2 y_6, y_3 y_7$ and $y_4 y_8$ to f -function f_1^1, f_2^1, f_3^1 and f_4^1 respectively at first stage. These f -functions calculate the internal LLR values and generate output LLR values, which will be fed to next stage f functions denoted by f_1^2 and f_2^2 . Here the output of $f_1^1 f_3^1$ and $f_2^1 f_4^1$ become the inputs to second stage f -function f_1^2 and f_2^2 respectively. The outputs of these f -functions feed forwarded as inputs to f -function of stage three. Finally at stage three, the f -function f_1^3 decoded the first bit u_1 . Using this pre-decoded bit u_1 and output LLR values of f_1^2 and f_2^2 , the g -function decoded second bit u_2 . The process flow of decoding u_1 and u_2 bits using f and g function is shown by color dotted line in Fig. 13. Once u_1 and u_2 bits are decoded, it goes reverse back using $xnor$ -function, f -function and g -function to decode the remaining bits. All these output bits are decoded in sequential way.

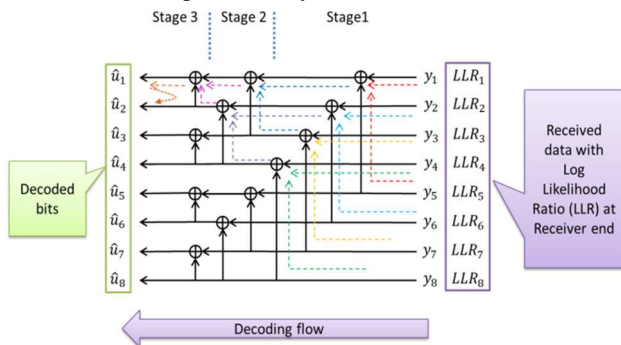


Fig. 13. Polar decoder graph for N=8 with flow details

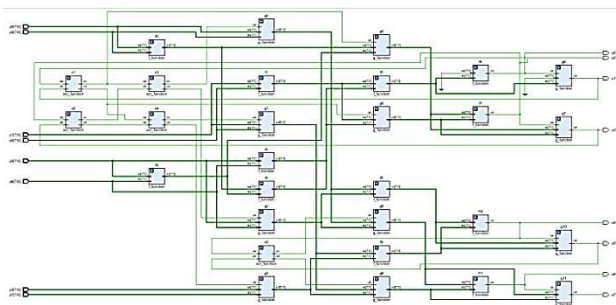


Fig. 14. RTL Schematic of Polar decoder (8-bit) by bit decoding approach

V. RESULTS

As per the functionality of polar decoders, both polar decoders i.e. by using combinational logic and using sequential bit-decoding approach is same, only we found difference in delay and area (used LUTs). We reduce the latency in the case of combinational logic as compare to

sequential bit-decoding approach design polar decoder. The synthesis result of SC polar decoder using combinational logic and using sequential bit decoding approach are shown in Table. I. SC polar decoder using combinational logic is efficient in terms of latency as compare to using sequential bit decoding approach. While with respect to area and dynamic power, the sequential bit decoding approach has performed better than polar decoder using combinational logic. But the delay parameter has a great role for high-speed communication. It will make a great difference while designing higher bits polar decoder like 32, 64 –bits and so on. Table. I also show the comparison of proposed design with existing design mention in various literatures. As compare to work given in [13], the proposed work has remarkable result for latency and area as well as dynamic power. The proposed work is based on 2-bit SC decoder [14] with iterative decomposition technique. The work proposed in [12] has combinational and pipeline combinational decoder with ASIC synthesis result. Out of the proposed work present, we found 16-bit combinational decoder result is related to our result shown in Table.I.

TABLE I. COMPARASION BASED ON PERFORMANCE PARAMETER

Parameter	Proposed Polar Decoder		[13]		[12] (16-bit) combinational decoder
	Using sequential bit-decoding approach	Using combinational logic	2b SC decoder	2b SC decoder with iterative decomposition technique	
Latency	3.351ns	3.105ns	(1.5n-2)	(1.5n-2)	--
Area (LUTs)	446	470	488	259	1479
Dynamic Power (W)	4.141	4.59	5.881	3.261	--

*n- is no. of cycle

VI. CONCLUSIONS

In this paper, we proposed the polar decoder by using combinational logic and by using sequential bit decoding approach. The combinational logic for f function, g -function and 4-bit polar decoder are designed, where 8-bit polar decoder is designed using two 4-bit polar decoder. Polar decoder using sequential bit decoding approach is design with f, g and xor function. These function are followed their mathematical equations. The proposed work has remarkable result as compare to existing one. Polar decoder using combinational logic is more efficient as compare to using sequential bit decoding approach in case delay parameter. But with respect to area and dynamic power, the sequential bit decoding approach has performed better than polar decoder using combinational logic. Combinational logic makes design simple and will have the scope to design for more number of bits. The proposed work is designed using Verilog HDL. The synthesis and simulation are done on Xilinx.

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First published in India 2022
This edition published 2022

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2 4 6 8 10 9 7 5 3 1

Typeset by Fortune Graphics, Naraina, New Delhi
Printed and bound in India by Replika Press Pvt. Ltd

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Taxonomy and Open Challenges of an Innovative Bio-Inspired PSO Algorithm for Optimization in Big Data Analytics Application

AMITKUMAR MANEKAR

Abstract: *Nature-inspired and Bio-inspired computing and artificial intelligence encompass a wide variety of contemporary computer science, mathematics, and biological disciplines. Biomimetic computer optimization techniques are indeed a brilliant way to launch innovative and effective competitiveness methodologies that are based on the concepts and inspiration of biological evolution. In recent decades, bio-inspired optimization algorithms gained popularity in machine learning for overcoming significant challenges in engineering and science. Unfortunately, these problems are frequently regressive and governed by many regressive constraints, creating numerous problems such as time limitations and high dimensionality in choosing the optimum solution. Recent advancements attempt to integrate bio-inspired optimization algorithms to solve the problems of traditional optimization algorithms, which represent a potential approach for tackling complex optimization problems. The state-of-the-art of some contemporary bio-inspired algorithms, gap analysis, and their implementations are presented in this paper.*

Keywords: Genetic Bee Colony Algorithms, Fish Swarm Algorithm, Artificial Algae Algorithm, Chicken Swarm Optimization, Grey Wolf Algorithm, Cat Swarm Optimization, Bioinspired Algorithms, Particle Swarm Optimization

Introduction

The study of optimization is associated with identifying the optimal solutions to various challenges. Day after day, we invented a lot of operations which we endeavored to refine in necessary to come at the optimal resolution; for illustration, the trip to work may be maximized based on the number of parameters such as traffic and distance. On the other hand, the introduction of smart vehicles demands an optimization with a number of goals in mind, namely reduced wind resistance, lower fuel consumption, and increased muscle potency [1]. These optimum solutions are determined by altering the algorithm's parameters to give the solution a maximum or minimum value. As a result, numerous optimization methods have been proposed in past years with the objective of boosting existing solutions [2][3].

The conveyance of data is utilized to make successful judgments for big data analytics in IoT-based smart cities. During data collection and processing from smart devices on IoT networks, information is recorded and processing on cloud servers. Additionally, to process the huge quantity of observations, automatically massively scalable cloud computing is necessary, which may enhance the system's performance [4]. Conventional cloud-based data processing systems, according the literature, are unable to achieve performance requirement

Life has been digitalized up to much extent. Digital endeavors have become central to everything. This book provides deep insights into significant and crucial changes due to touch of digital innovations in all the walks of business entities. The distinguished ways with which leaders, organizations, people have traversed can be experienced and replicated by the experimenters, learners and practitioners in the field of Management. This book will further contribute to comprehend the connection of digital dimensions to business world and will prove to be a bridge between generation of the youth and the experienced. Considering academics, the content in the book will enrich the teaching-learning phenomenon through case methodology.

The chapters in this book are categorized into sections given below:

1. Digital marketing
2. Technological innovations
3. Digital finance
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MRP ₹799 (incl. of all taxes)





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NEW DELHI • LONDON • OXFORD • NEW YORK • SYDNEY

BLOOMSBURY INDIA
Bloomsbury Publishing India Pvt. Ltd
Second Floor, LSC Building No. 4, DDA Complex,
Pocket C – 6 & 7, Vasant Kunj,
New Delhi 110070

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First published in India 2022
This edition published 2022

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ISBN: 978-93-93715-14-2
2 4 6 8 10 9 7 5 3 1

Typeset by Fortune Graphics, Naraina, New Delhi
Printed and bound in India by Replika Press Pvt. Ltd

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Interactive Smart Mirror Using Raspberry Pi 4

AKSHAY J. AGRAWAL, VAISHNAVI S. KANHERKAR, KALYANI U. BONDE,
RADHIKA S. JADHAV AND AMIT S. MANEKAR

Abstract: *IoT is a very emerging trend in today's world it has a variety of application in our life. We are living in 21st century where all the work is done using technology and has become an integrated part of life. The internet of things which is very trending now-a-days is used in various electronic devices as we want all our work to be in fractions of a second. We come up with solutions to problems which are very familiar to everybody, as we all go to corporate offices at one time of our lifetime. As anyone go in any office for the very first time we don't know anything about that office like about the infrastructure, various departments and all. When we don't know anything we ask the receptionist for help and this is time consuming. To solve this time consuming problems Smart Mirror is introduced which will act as the information desk for new visitors, employees and clients. Also we have made our mirror multitasked more information about that is available in this paper. Moreover we have added matrix server in our mirror so that calling and chatting can also be done with this mirror. This paper contains the problem statement and detailed technology stack along with our project development idea and our results and conclusion. The internet of things, AI is used to implement this project.*

Keywords: IOT, Smart Mirror, Raspberry Pi, Voice Command, Magic Mirror, Matrix

Introduction

In this globe of fierce competition, each one needs a comfortable life and stay updated with latest technology. Modern man has proposed high tech technology to make his life at ease. People think necessary to be attached with the external world and they are willing to grab the information easily. Whether it is through the television or internet, people must have to be in contact with the present events happening all over the world. Internet of Things (IoT) is a theory where an entity having the capability to gather and transmit information over a network without the human contact to human or human to system. Due to this technology people can do their task in faster and efficient way. In this we will design and develop a smart mirror that symbolized an useful interface for glancing data in a co-operate office.

In market various smart mirrors are available that acts as a mirror which display date, time, image gallery but it is not sufficient as we can make our mirror more interactive. The main property of the mirror will be that it will totally work as a computer or we can say more than a computer. Now all will think that we have computer already then why one go for this mirror, so the reason for this will be mirror will be available at the 50% cost of the computer. Our mirror broadcast current temperature, weather details, and to-do list along with that we have added the feature of voice command. In addition to that we have added matrix to our

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NEW DELHI • LONDON • OXFORD • NEW YORK • SYDNEY

BLOOMSBURY INDIA
Bloomsbury Publishing India Pvt. Ltd
Second Floor, LSC Building No. 4, DDA Complex,
Pocket C – 6 & 7, Vasant Kunj,
New Delhi 110070

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First published in India 2022
This edition published 2022

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ISBN: 978-93-93715-14-2
2 4 6 8 10 9 7 5 3 1

Typeset by Fortune Graphics, Naraina, New Delhi
Printed and bound in India by Replika Press Pvt. Ltd

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A Review on Pose Estimation and its Recent Progress

OM MASNE, MOHIT BOHRA, GITA FASE,
KSHITIJ KHILLARE AND AMITKUMAR MANEKAR

Abstract: *Pose estimation is a challenge in computer vision field which has been researched for quite some time, reason being the richness of applications that can benefit from such technology. Pose estimation is one of the main components in problems which include the approximation of object placement and location relative to the reference frame. It is the task of using techniques such as machine learning methods to calculate the pose of a character from a video or image by approximating the spatial locations of key body joints.*

Keywords: Human Pose Estimation, Pose Estimation, Deep Learning, 2-D Pose Estimation, 3-D Pose Estimation, Multi-Person Pose Estimation

Introduction

Pose estimation is the procedure of approximating the location of the connections in some human body or other objects and subjects. It has uses in tracking the motion of a person or object, detecting gestures, analysis of changes in pose of a subject, human fall detection, etc. Pose estimation is generally of 2 types – 2-D pose estimation and 3-D pose estimation. 2-D pose estimation results in accurate position approximation in a particular plane or axis. In 3D pose estimation, the results are generated in multiple planes or axis which can be used when the results need to be used in 3D world. Pose estimation can be done by using images of a subject or by using video for input and the output can then be used in the required fashion.

Many known methods of pose estimation include Deep Cut, Regional Multi-Person Pose Estimation (Alpha Pose), Pose Net, High-Resolution Net (HR Net), Open Pose, Dense Pose. Each method has its pros and cons. Some have better results with single object estimation while some give better results when the environment is more supportive. Pose estimation has applications in human activity estimation, motion transfer between objects, training robots, detection of gestures, augmented reality, human fall detection, motion tracking for consoles, full body / sign language communication (for use in accessibility, or a traffic policemen signal understanding), a person falling or is sick.

Other applications include the analysis of basketball, volleyball, tennis, badminton, and other sports, application of posture learning for body works or exercise and fitness, applications in supervision enhancement and defence.

Litratue Survey

Pose Estimation

Pose estimation (PE) is widely explored in computer vision field. It includes approximating the structure of a subject's body segments from input data obtained by camera or other devices,

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Implementing Data Analytics and Architectures for Next Generation Wireless Communications



Chintan Bhatt, Neeraj Kumar, Ali Kashif Bashir,
and Mamoun Alazab

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Implementing Data Analytics and Architectures for Next Generation Wireless Communications

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Charotar University of Science and Technology, India

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Thapar University, India

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A volume in the Advances in Wireless
Technologies and Telecommunication (AWTT)
Book Series



Published in the United States of America by

IGI Global
Information Science Reference (an imprint of IGI Global)
701 E. Chocolate Avenue
Hershey PA, USA 17033
Tel: 717-533-8845
Fax: 717-533-8661
E-mail: cust@igi-global.com
Web site: <http://www.igi-global.com>

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Library of Congress Cataloging-in-Publication Data

Names: Bhatt, Chintan M., 1988- editor. | Kumar, Neeraj (Computer scientist) editor. | Bashir, Ali Kashif, 1982- editor. | Alazab, Mamoun, 1980- editor.

Title: Implementing data analytics and architectures for next generation wireless communications / Chintan Bhatt, Neeraj Kumar, Ali Kashif Bashir, and Mamoun Alazab, editors.

Description: Hershey, PA : Information Science Reference (an imprint of IGI Global), [2021] | Includes bibliographical references and index. |

Summary: "This book covers the existing and emerging theoretical and practical challenges in the design, development and implementation of big data algorithms, protocols, architectures, and applications for next-generation wireless communications and their applications in smart cities"-- Provided by publisher.

Identifiers: LCCN 2021000192 (print) | LCCN 2021000193 (ebook) | ISBN 9781799869887 (hardcover) | ISBN 9781799869894 (paperback) | ISBN 9781799869900 (ebook)

Subjects: LCSH: Computer network architectures. | Big data. | Wireless communication systems. | Internet of things. | Artificial intelligence.

Classification: LCC TK5105.52 .I47 2021 (print) | LCC TK5105.52 (ebook) | DDC 621.39/81--dc23

LC record available at <https://lcn.loc.gov/2021000192>

LC ebook record available at <https://lcn.loc.gov/2021000193>

This book is published in the IGI Global book series Advances in Wireless Technologies and Telecommunication (AWTT) (ISSN: 2327-3305; eISSN: 2327-3313)

British Cataloguing in Publication Data

A Cataloguing in Publication record for this book is available from the British Library.

All work contributed to this book is new, previously-unpublished material. The views expressed in this book are those of the authors, but not necessarily of the publisher.

For electronic access to this publication, please contact: eresources@igi-global.com.

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Chapter 10

Analysis of Bluetooth Versions (4.0, 4.2, 5, 5.1, and 5.2) for IoT Applications

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ABSTRACT

IoT includes many sensors that have to collect the data and send it to the superior nodes; for such interaction between the IoT devices, various wireless technologies are available, like infrared, Li-Fi, WI-Fi, Zigbee, Bluetooth, etc. Among all the available, Bluetooth proved the most promising short-range wireless communication technology due to various factors. To fulfil the increasing demand for wireless connectivity, the Bluetooth SIG must continuously perform up-gradation. Here, analysis of Bluetooth versions are discussed based on the characteristics such as speed, bandwidth, range, power, message capacity, beacon provision, compatibility, reliability, errors detection, correction capability, advertisement packets, duty cycle, slot availability masks, and many more. This analysis concluded that all the versions have their own set of merits and limitations. For the basic IoT applications (limited functionalities), Bluetooth 4.0/4.2 is a good choice, while for the complex IoT applications (advance functionalities), Bluetooth 5/ 5.1/ 5.2 is better.

INTRODUCTION

The Internet of Things (IoT) involves various wireless communication technologies to makes devices capable of interacting with each other. Nowadays, IoT with various dedicated sensors, devices and wireless communication technologies making a human lifestyle easier and smarter. Therefore, in our personal lives, IoT devices are becoming more prevalent and pervasive. Due to the IoT era, sensors are everywhere

DOI: 10.4018/978-1-7998-6988-7.ch010

Implementing Data Analytics and Architectures for Next Generation Wireless Communications

Wireless communication is continuously evolving to improve and be a part of our daily communication. This leads to improved quality of services and applications supported by networking technologies. We are now able to use LTE, LTE-Advanced, and other emerging technologies due to the enormous efforts that are made to improve the quality of service in cellular networks. As the future of networking is uncertain, the use of deep learning and big data analytics is a point of focus as it can work in many capacities at a variety of levels for wireless communications.

Implementing Data Analytics and Architectures for Next Generation Wireless Communications addresses the existing and emerging theoretical and practical challenges in the design, development, and implementation of big data algorithms, protocols, architectures, and applications for next generation wireless communications and their applications in smart cities. The chapters of this book bring together academics and industrial practitioners to exchange, discuss, and implement the latest innovations and applications of data analytics in advanced networks. Specific topics covered include key encryption techniques, smart home appliances, fog communication networks, and security in the internet of things. This book is valuable for technologists, data analysts, networking experts, practitioners, researchers, academicians, and students.

Topics Covered

- Artificial Intelligence
- Big Data
- Data Analytics
- E-Health Systems
- Encryption Techniques
- Fog Computing
- Internet of Things
- Network Optimization
- Network Security
- Smart Cities
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Cover image: www.ingimage.com

Publisher:

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Dodo Books Indian Ocean Ltd., member of the OmniScriptum S.R.L
Publishing group

str. A.Russo 15, of. 61, Chisinau-2068, Republic of Moldova Europe

Printed at: see last page

ISBN: 978-620-3-84811-3

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CHAPTER 1

INTERNET OF THINGS (IoT)

1.1 Introduction

The Internet of Things (IoT) means a network with physical objects considered as “things”, like sensors and actuators for the purpose of interconnection, and data exchange with each other over internet to make system easier. In 1982 at Carnegie Mellon University was discussed for the concept of Internet connected machine “Coca-Cola Vending Machine” with ability to report its inventory and temperature status of drink to the system. In 1999 at MIT's Auto-ID Center the term “Internet of Things” was coined by Mr. Kevin Ashton of P&G with role of radio-frequency identification (RFID) to allow computers to manage all individual things.

For the intercommunication purpose IoT devices have connections with each other, now a day many IoT systems involve smart sensor networks, which have mainly connected by a wireless communication medium, generally known as a Wireless Sensor Network (WSN). Due to small size and limited computational power, nodes of such networks are called, ‘motes’. Motes can also directly connect to the Internet to integrate the web servers. The facility of motes interaction with web servers allows for creating a web of sensors called Web of Things (WoT).

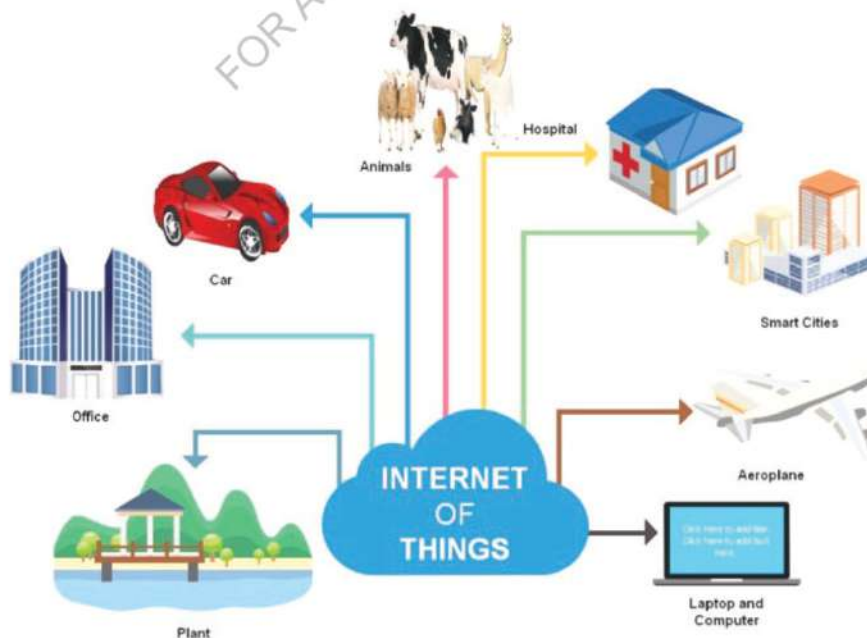


Figure 1.1) Application Areas of IoT

IoT with BLE Beacon comes with an basic knowledge with research opportunities, planning and strategy. The book includes basic of Internet of Things, Wireless Sensor Network, Data Aggregation in WSN, Bluetooth, Bluetooth Low Energy and BLE Beacons.

Chapter 1 includes introduction, architecture, taxonomy and research opportunities of IoT.

Chapter 2 includes introduction, architecture, characteristic, security parameters, and applications of WSN.

Chapter 3 includes introduction, challenges, and types of data aggregation in WSN.

Chapter 4 includes introduction with versions of Bluetooth.

Chapter 5 includes introduction, working, features, market demand, configurations, network topology, protocols and profiles, architecture, versions and applications.

Chapter 6 includes introduction, features, market demand, configurations, applications and research opportunities of BLE Beacon.

Prof. S. D. Padiya, assistant professor at SSGMCE, Shegaon (M.S.), India. Having more than 10 years teaching experience and pursuing Ph.D. to design and develop featherweight telemetry protocol for BLE Beacon in IoT.

Dr. V. S. Gulhane, professor at Sipna's COET, Amravati (M.S), India. Having more than 20 years of teaching experience.



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A Case of AU Small Finance Bank (Badlaav Hamse Hai)

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Identification and assessment of risks involved in construction projects in

Western Vidarbha from the perspective of civil contractors

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Dr. H M Jha "Bidyarthi"

Prof. & Head, Coordinator
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