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CONTENTS

Air Based Flexible Ultra-Thin Transparent ITO Based Broadband and Polarization Insensitivity Metamaterial Absorber,......363-369 Gokhan Ozturk, Fatih Tutar, Mehmet Ertugrul, Abdulsemih Kockeser, Yakup Ozturk

Reflection Coefficient Calculation of a Structure Including a Porous Silicon Layer with Transfer Matrix Method and FDTD,.....402-409 Caglar Duman

Hybrid Convolutional Neural Network Method for Robust Brain Stroke Diagnosis and Segmentation,......410-418 Sercan Yalcin

BALKAN JOURNAL OF ELECTRICAL & COMPUTER ENGINEERING (An International Peer Reviewed, Indexed and Open Access Journal)

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Twisting Sliding Mode Control based Maximum Power Point Tracking

Korhan Kayisli and Ruhi Zafer Caglayan

Abstract— For a world where energy demand is increasing day by day, available resources are constantly decreasing. At this point, it is very important to be able to benefit from the sun, which is the main energy source, with minimum damage to the environment. It is possible to produce electricity directly from sunlight through PV panels. Due to the limited efficiency of these panels, MPPT algorithms are always required. In this study, Sliding Mode Control (SMC) based Twisting Sliding Mode Control (T-SMC) MPPT, known for its robust structure, was performed and the results were compared with the classical SMC. The proposed MPPT algorithm is simulated with MATLAB/Simulink. The efficiency of T-SMC based MPPT is obtained as nearly 99%.

Index Terms—Boost Converter, Maximum Power Point Tracking, Photovoltaic Panel, Twisting Sliding Mode Control.

I. INTRODUCTION

DURING TIME, humans were invented new things that got easier the human life. In the ancient ages, the wheel and the animal power were essential. After some eras, the first steam engine which need steam power was invented, then the jobs got easier. The steam has been produced by using fossil fuels in many years and at the following years. This steam (heat) energy has been used to turn the electric generators. With this production, the electricity has been started to use. The electric machines are more efficient than the fossil fuels, but it needed fossil fuel too due to this indirect generation. The environment has been damaged by the burning reaction of the fossil fuels and the burning reactions coproducts have been distorted in the Earth atmosphere and the greenhouse effect has been changed the climate. The main alternative energy sources named as renewable energy is emerged. More clean, sustainable, and efficient power is produced by using renewable energy. At this point, many researches have been carried out in order to benefit more from the sun, which is the main energy source of the world. Recently, photovoltaic (PV) panels have started to be produced in order to convert solar energy directly into electrical energy.

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Solar energy and PV panels are an important issue because they are renewable energy sources, the cost of sustainability is low, the variety of construction materials of PV panels, PV Panels can be produced for various power values. Due to the chemical properties of the materials used in PV panel production, very high efficiency cannot be achieved yet. One of the methods developed to obtain maximum efficiency from these panels is the Maximum Power Point Tracking (MPPT) technique. The aim is to examine new Maximum Power Point Tracking (MPPT) Method form using renewable sources that find more reliable, and efficient systems. There are many algorithms are used to obtain maximum power such as Incremental Conductance (IC), Open Circuit Voltage, Short Circuit Current, Perturb and Observe (P&O).

In a study, the recent application during the time period (1970s-1994), PV system configurations and the PV related issues were examined such as power conditions, protection, islanding, intermittent output and installation [1]. Another study analyzed the PV-thermal module of the real application in Spain. The main aim was to use solar energy to obtain electrical energy. Special type of PV panel was used in the application. From the analysis the radiation effect and the temperature effect were examined to the special PV-thermal panels. The collateral advantage of the system was heat regulation of the building [2] In [3], Hybrid PV/Thermal performance and system usagein the real live applications is researched. Different types of PV panels were used and optimized the system. Results show that the panel should be smaller than the collector unit. Bekker and Beukes were examined the optimal MPPT methods for examining the voltage control and voltage current control condition and they used Hill Climbing MPPT method. It is mentioned that the optimal control is current voltage control method on this study [4] Dachuan and Yuvarajan investigated the Hybrid PV and PEM Fuel Cell system and they tried to determine load sharing between the sources [5]. Dezso et.al. presented research that how to modelling a PV panel from using datasheet values. From known formulas and the given information on the datasheet, they used mathematical calculations and obtained the necessary, but not given data. [6]. In a study, series PV panels were connected different type DC/DC Converters such as boost converter and flyback converter to achieve more efficient systems with lower power stress. It is emphasized that the efficiency of flyback converter is better than boost converter [7]. A comparative MPPT study was performed to PV system and the performance of parasitic capacitance algorithm came to fore [8]. Another research was related with renewable energy sources and electrical vehicles. The main aim was to obtain a smart energy delivery from

357

renewable energy sources to the loads [9]. Alan et.al. studied on assembly the renewable energy to obtain electrical energy sustainably introducing learning method [10]. Yamegueu et.al. examined the hybrid system without storage components. The results shown that if the load changes the PV panel validity effects the diesel generator's efficiency in the hybrid renewable and diesel generator systems [11]. Another study about to improve the efficiency of the series connected PV panels and they were shaded experimentally. The results shown that if the PV panels were directly connected to the DC/DC Converters, the system would work more efficiently. [12]. Sahoo et.al. tried to model of the PV systems by using Simscape simulation program and presented different type circuit topologies [13]. Palizban et.al. investigated the efficiency of the hybrid renewable system contains PV, wind, Fuel Cell, electrolyzer and super capacitor [14]. Active clamp interleved flyback converter was used to increase the efficiency of PV system and the converter was operated on DCM and CCM modes [15]. In another study, Z source inverter was used with PV panels. The DC output voltage was converted to AC by using this inverter driven with sinusoidal PWM. With this method, voltage gain was increased and voltage stresses were reduced [16]. A research was examined to find the maximum power point of the PV panel and it is aimed to obtain fast control with record the sun's radiation and temperature values on the lookup table by using the classical MPPT methods [17]. In a study, the power losses that occur as a result of the use of PV panels by connecting them in arrays and the formation of shadows was researched. It was tried to be solved by connecting each panel to the converter circuit one by one. For this purpose, buck-boost converter was also used to provide high efficiency [18]. A hybrid power system for low power electronics circuits and noload requirement was investigated to obtain low-cost high efficiency structure [19]. It was aimed to supply the electrical energy needed by electric cars from renewable energy sources as solar energy and fuel cell. The performance was evaluated whether it charges the battery and provides the necessary energy [20]. Kale et.al. was explained to design of a highly efficient and reliable system called micro-inverter which fed from a solar system and to prevent load shedding problem, and islanding problem [21]. The researchers generally use single diode model for PV systems. While a research preferred to use multi-diode model and was simulated with MATLAB [22], others preferred to use the data given datasheets of manufacturers and generalized mathematical models [23]. In another study, PV and thermal panels were used together and artificial neural network were used to get the optimum power under changing temperature and irradiation conditions [24]. A new topology was presented by using buck boost and flyback topologies to provide low voltage to high voltage conversion using renewable energy sources such as PV panels. Benefits were emphasized such as reducing the number of circuit elements in this topology, reducing the diode and switch stress, highly efficiency, and recovering the lost energy [25]. A half wave converter was used to improve the efficiency of PV systems under variable temperature and irradiation. It was aimed to reduce the inductor size and obtain high efficiency with simulations [26]. In [27], Belkaid et.al were aimed to develop the P&O algorithm, also proposed a modified equivalent sliding mode MPPT for better dynamic behavior

[28]. Alhammad et.al. was designed a system contains PV panels and thermoelectric generator to feed electrical vehicles efficiently [29]. In a study, PV/TEG hybrid system was presented and controlled with sliding mode control to cope with temperature and irradiation changes [30]. Raju and Mikkili was explored different connection types such as serial, parallel, serial-parallel, Honey-Comb under shading conditions [31].

Additionally, the effects of single diode PV model on current, voltage, resistances and ideality factor were investigated [32]. Mnati et.al. compared the efficiency and dynamic behaviors of P&O, IC, Constant voltage,Open Circuit Voltage techniques [33]. For fast response, fuzzy logic control was used for MPPT and obtained 99% efficiency [34]. Beyarslan was aimed to design a micro-grid structure by balancing the energy need with storage systems as well as renewable energy sources such as wind, solar and hydroelectric systems. In this way, a system was designed to meet 100% of a region's energy needs [35]. From the literature review, sliding mode control (SMC), fuzzy logic control (FLC), artificial neural network (ANN) and some other methods are much popular to obtain better MPPT performances. Because the performance of traditional methods is limited and modified to achieve the maximum.

There are some studies have been performed to get maximum efficiency under variable atmospheric conditions such as System Identification based ARV MPPT [39], a voltage scanning-based MPPT [40], P&O and INC MPPT Methods using FPGA [41] and system identification-based MPPT [42].

In this study, it is aimed to obtain maximum efficiency from a PV system by using a robust control algorithm. SMC is well known method to control the system under parameter changes and distributions. The amount of radiation is not fixed and is variable. A robust control structure can be obtained with SMC under variable irradiation condition with better MPPT performance. In the meantime, second order SMC algorithms such as twisting SMC (T-SMC) appears with better dynamic behavior. A boost converter fed from PV panel is controlled with T-SMC algorithm to obtain more efficiency and robust structure.

II. PV PANEL MODEL

PV panels are special devices that have been made Silicon and the other materials have p-n junction cells. If the sun light hit this p-n junction and the sun lights contained energy is enough to increase electrons power greater than the band gap (the energy between electrons orbital energy to free electron level). The electrons freed by effect of irradiation with the semiconductor structure that generates electron flow [22] This is the working principle of the PV Panel. In this part The PV Panel Design is detailly discussed [6],[22],[36].



Fig. 1. PV Panel equivalent circuit model (single diode)

The traditional model of PV panel is single diode model and it contains one controlled current source, one diode (controlled current source too), one paralleled, one series resistance.

There are three current loop in this circuit;

- One of them is I_{Ph} current loop
- The second is between I_D and $R_p\, current\, loop$
- The third loop is the I_{PV} current loop

$$I_{PV} = I_{Ph} - I_D - I_{R_p}$$
(1)

The current of the diode is given Eq.2 [27,40].

$$I_D = I_{sat} * (e^{k * \frac{v \, d}{T_K}} - 1)$$
(2)

By using Eq.2 in Eq.1, the final diode current is obtained as Eq.3.

$$I_D = I_{sat} * \left(e^{\frac{V_d}{n_{cell} * V_{thermal}}} - 1 \right)$$
(3)

$$V_t = \frac{quality * k * T_{STC}}{q} \tag{4}$$

$$I_{Ph} = [I_{SCR} + k_i(T - T_{ref})](\frac{S}{S_{ref}})$$
(5)

$$I_{PV} = I_{Ph} - I_{sat} * (e^{\frac{V_{PV} + I_{PV} * R_s}{n_{cell} * V_{thermal}}} - 1) - \frac{V_{PV} + I_{PV} * R_s}{R_p}$$
(6)

From above equations, the open circuit, short circuit and at Maximum Power Point expressions can be obtained as follows:

$$I_{short} = I_{Ph} - I_{sat} * \left(e^{\frac{I_{short} * R_s}{n_{cell} * V thermal}} - 1 \right) - \frac{I_{short} * R_s}{R_p}$$
(7)

$$0 = I_{Ph} - I_{sat} * \left(e^{\frac{v_{PV}}{n_{cell} * V thermal}} - 1 \right) - \frac{v_{PV}}{R_p}$$
(8)

$$I_{PV_{MPPT}} = I_{Ph} - I_{sat} * \left(e^{\frac{V_{PV_{MPT}} + I_{PV_{MPT}} + R_s}{n_{cell} + V_{thermal}}} - 1\right) - \frac{V_{PV_{MPPT}} + I_{PV_{MPPT}} + R_s}{R_p}$$
(9)

III. BOOST CONVERTER MODEL

The most commonly used dc-dc converter type in MPPT process is the boost converter. A classic boost converter circuit is shown in the Fig.2.



The circuit is examined in two cases, depending on whether the power switch S is on and off. Accordingly, the equivalent of the circuit is as in Fig.3. when the switch S is on [27].

• (Switch S on State):

- $0 \le t \le d * t_{switch}$
- (Switch S off State)

 $d * t_{switch} \le t \le t_{switch}$



 $i_L = i_{Linitial} + \frac{1}{L} \int_0^t V_L(t) dt$ Where,

$$V_L(t) = V_{PV} \tag{11}$$

$$i_{L_{initial}} = i_{L_{min}} \tag{12}$$

$$i_L = i_{L_{min}} + \frac{1}{L} * V_L * d * t_{switch}$$
(13)

$$\Delta i_L = \frac{V_L(t) * d * t_{switch}}{L} \tag{14}$$

In case the switch is off, the equivalent of the circuit is as given in Fig.4.



$$i_{L} = i'_{Linitial} + \frac{1}{L} \int_{0}^{t} V'_{L}(t) dt$$
(15)

Where,

$$V'_{L}(t) = V_{PV} - V_{0}$$
 (16)
 $i'_{L} \dots = i_{L}$ (17)

$$L_{initial} = l_{L_{max}} \tag{17}$$

$$i_{L} = i_{L_{max}} - \frac{1}{L} * (V_{O} - V_{PV}) * (t_{switch} - d * t_{switch})$$
(18)

$$A_{i} - \frac{(V_{O} - V_{PV}) * (t_{switch} - d * t_{switch})}{(10)}$$
(10)

$$\Delta i_L = \frac{CO^2 + V^2 C_{\rm SWICh} - M^2 - SWICh}{L} \tag{19}$$

The relationship between output voltage and input voltage is $V_{22} * t = 0$ (20)

$$V_{PV} * t_{on} + (V_{PV} - V_0) * t_{off} = 0$$
(20)
$$t = d * t \dots$$
(21)

$$c_{on} - u * t_{switch}$$
(21)

$$t_{off} = t_{switch} - a * t_{switch}$$
(22)

$$V_{in} * d * t_{switch} = -(V_{in} - V_{out}) * (t_{switch} - d * t_{switch})$$
(23)

$$\frac{V_O}{V_{PV}} = \frac{1}{1-d}$$
 (24)

From these equations,

$$\Delta i_L = \frac{V_O * (d - d^2) * t_{switch}}{L} \tag{25}$$

In the on state the capacitor discharge and the output voltage is produced by capacitor. The capacitors voltage equation is:

$$V_{0} = V_{max} + \frac{1}{c} * (-I_{o} * d * t_{switch})$$
(26)

$$\Delta V_0 = \frac{I_0 * d * t_{switch}}{c} \tag{27}$$

IV. TWISTING SLIDING MODE MPPT

Generally, algorithms such as P&O and IC are used for MPPT process. As an alternative to these methods, SMC-based MPPT can also be preferred. The SMC is a widely used method in nonlinear systems, known as robust controller. There are also

(10)

higher order SMC structures available such as (T-SMC). In this study, T-SMC is designed for MPPT process.

The main difference between SMC and T-SMC is that the trajectories oscillate with twisting on the sliding surface instead of chattering. SMC consists of two basic steps: determining the sliding surface that will enable the boost converter circuit to work as desired and determining the control rule that directs the system to this sliding surface and enables it to operate on this surface. In order to perform the MPPT operation with the boost converter, firstly, the sliding surface can be defined as Eq.28. Here the sliding surface and its derivative are equal to zero. As long as the system trajectories reach and stay on the sliding surface, the system will operate at the maximum power point [43].

$$V(x,t) = \frac{\partial P_{PV}}{\partial V_{PV}} = V_{PV} \left(\frac{\partial I_{PV}}{\partial V_{PV}} + \frac{I_{PV}}{V_{PV}} \right) = 0$$
(28)

The T-SMC contains two control laws named as switching and equivalent control. The equivalent control and T-SMC can be obtained by using the following expression.

$$x = \begin{bmatrix} I_L \\ V_O \end{bmatrix}$$
(29)

$$\dot{\mathbf{x}} = f(\mathbf{x}) + g(\mathbf{x})u \tag{30}$$

$$f(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{V_{PV} - V_O}{L} \\ \frac{I_{PV}}{C_O} - \frac{V_O}{RC_O} \end{bmatrix} \quad g(x) = \begin{bmatrix} \frac{V_O}{L} \\ -\frac{I_{PV}}{C_O} \end{bmatrix}$$
(31)

$$\dot{V} = \left[\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}\right]^T \dot{V} = \left[\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}\right]^T \left(f(x) + g(x)u_{eq}\right) = 0$$
$$u_{eq} = \frac{\left[\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}\right]^T f(x)}{\left[\frac{\partial V}{\partial x}\right]^T g(x)} = 1 - \frac{V_{PV}}{V_0}$$
(32)

$$u_{T-SMC} = u_{eq} - \alpha_1 sign(V) - \alpha_2 sign(\dot{V})$$
(33)

Lyapunov Stability Analysis

The basic logic of Lyapunov's theorem is that a continuously decreasing definite positive function must go to zero. If we can find the negative time derivative $(\dot{L}(x))$ of a strictly positive function L(x), then the system is asymptotically stable.

$$L(x,t) = \frac{1}{2} (V(x,t))^2$$
(34)

$$\dot{L} = \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial x}\right]^T \dot{x} = \left[\frac{\partial L}{\partial I_{PV}}\right] \left(-\frac{V_O}{L}(1-u) + \frac{V_{PV}}{L}\right)$$
(35)

$$\dot{V} = \left[\frac{1}{V_{PV}} - \frac{I_{PV}}{V_{PV}^2} \frac{\partial V_{PV}}{\partial I_{PV}} + \frac{q}{N_S \eta V_T} \frac{\partial I_{PV}}{\partial V_{PV}} \frac{\partial V_{PV}}{\partial I_{PV}}\right] \left(-\frac{V_O}{L} (1-u) + \frac{V_{PV}}{L}\right)$$
(36)

The first derivative of I_{PV} and V_{PV} are defined as in Eq.37 and Eq.38, respectively.

$$\frac{\partial I_{PV}}{\partial V_{PV}} = -\frac{q}{N_{S}\eta V_{T}} I_{D} \exp\left(\frac{q}{N_{S}\eta V_{T}}\right) < 0$$
(37)

$$\frac{\partial V_{PV}}{\partial I_{PV}} = -\frac{N_{S}\eta V_{T}}{q} \ln\left(\frac{I_{D}}{I_{PH}+I_{D}-I_{PV}}\right) < 0$$
(38)

The sign of the first term (Eq.35) is positive when $\frac{\partial V}{\partial I_{PV}} > 0$.

$$\dot{x} = -\frac{v_O}{L} \left(1 - \left(1 - \frac{v_{PV}}{v_O} \right) - u_{T-SMC} \right) + \frac{v_{PV}}{L}$$
(39)

$$V\dot{V} = V \left[\frac{\partial V}{\partial I_{PV}}\right] \frac{V_O}{L} \left(-\alpha_1 sign(V) - \alpha_2 sign(\dot{V})\right)$$
(40)

V and \dot{V} always have different signs and Lyapunov stability criteria is ensured.

V. SIMULATION OF PROPOSED SYSTEM

The PV panel, boost converter and T-SMC based MPPT are simulated by using MATLAB/Simulink software. The simulation of the proposed system is shown in Fig.5.







A variable solar irradiance profile is applied to the PV panel. 2 series and 2 parallel strings A10J-M60-220 solar panel is used on the proposed system. The solar irradiation profile and voltage-current, voltage-power characteristic of the PV array are shown in Fig.7.

The parameters of PV array, boost converter, SMC and T-SMC are given in Table.1.

TABLE 1. SIMULATION PARAMETERS
PARAMETERS OF PV ARRAV

Parameter	Value
Maximum Power (W)	213.15
Cells per Module (N _{cell})	60
Open circuit voltage V _{OC} (V)	36.3
Short circuit current $I_{SC}(A)$	7.84A
Voltage at MPP $V_{MP}(V)$	29
Current at MPP I _{MP} (A)	7.35
Temperature (°C)	25
Parallel strings (N _P)	2
Series connected modules per string (Ns)	2
PARAMETERS OF BOOST CONVE	ERTER
Parameter	Value
Inductor L (mH)	2.2
Capacitor C (µF)	100
Resistance load (Ω)	25
Switching frequency (kHz)	10
Diode forward voltage (V)	0.8
IGBT forward voltage (V)	1
CONTROLLER PARAMETER	RS
CONTROLLER PARAMETER Parameter	RS Value
CONTROLLER PARAMETER Parameter SMC (λ)	XS Value 0.0487
$\frac{CONTROLLER PARAMETER}{Parameter}$ $\frac{SMC (\lambda)}{T-SMC (\alpha_1)}$	Value 0.0487 0.715





VI. RESULTS

There are two simulations are performed in this study. SMC based MPPT and T-SMC based MPPT algorithms are used to show and evaluate the performance of the proposed T-SMC based MPPT algorithm. The results are presented with efficiency, V_{PV} , I_{PV} and V_O of the boost converter. The results

of SMC based MPPT and T-SMC based MPPT algorithms are shown in Fig.8. and Fig.9, respectively. The efficiency of SMC changes between 97%-98% for the high irradiation conditions. But this situation is improved as 97%-100% by using T-SMC. The efficiency of SMC and T-SMC based MPPT algorithms are shown in Fig.10. The efficiency performance of both algorithm is compared by presenting Fig.10. Also, the mean efficiency, maximum and minimum values are given in Table 2.



TABLE 2. PERFORMANCE OF SMC AND	T-SMC BASED MPPT	'S

	SMC MPPT	T-SMC MPPT
Efficiency (Eff.) (Mean)	97.1496%	98.8777%
Fluctuation on Eff. (Min-Max)	96.66%-100%	96.45%-100%
V _{PV} (Max)	62V	63V
I _{PV} (Max)	14.8A	15.02A
Fluctuation on V ₀ (Min-Max)	132.3V	136.8V

VII. CONCLUSION

In this study, T-SMC based MPPT algorithm is proposed and its performance is compared with the classical SMC based algorithm. The dynamic performance of T-SMC is better than SMC when the irradiation levels approach maximum value as 1000 W/m². This situation effects the mean efficiency of MPPT algorithms and T-SMC has 98.8777% efficiency. The efficiency performance is better than SMC based MPPT algorithm. Also, the proposed system cannot much be affected from the irradiation changes and the efficiency is generally higher than 97%. The dynamic response of the proposed MPPT technique is much sufficient especially irradiation changes. Also, mean efficiency is more than 98%. In future studies, efforts will be made to minimize the chattering problem and improve MPPT performance by adapting different control techniques and parameter optimization.

NOMENCLATURE

- I_{SCR} Short circuit current at reference temperature
- K Boltzmann constant
- ki Cell's short circuit current temperature coefficient
- n_{cell} PV panel total cell number
- q electron charge
- S Sun irradiance
- Sref Solar radiation reference
- T Cell temperature
- T_{ref} Cell's reference temperature
- T_{STC} Standard test condition temperature
- V_d Diodes terminals potential difference
- V_L Inductance voltage
- V_{thermal} Thermal voltage
- d duty cycle

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Air Based Flexible Ultra-Thin Transparent ITO Based Broadband and Polarization Insensitivity Metamaterial Absorber

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Abstract—In this study, a metamaterial-based transparent and flexible microwave absorber design was carried out. Transparent PET (polyethylene terephthalate) was used as the dielectric substrate and ITO (indium tin oxide) was used as the conductor for the air and metamaterial structure. The intended absorber provides %90 absorption in the range of 9.6 GHz to 34.8 GHz with a normal incidence angle of approximately 25.2 GHz. Oblique angle performance shows % 80 absorption up to 45 degrees. In addition, the designed absorber works as a polarization insensitive absorber as it provides the same absorption performance in both TE and TM polarization under the normal incidance of the electromagnetic wave. The transparent dielectric is only 2.85 mm thickness, making it thinner than comparable ultra-wideband transparent materials. The study was carried out as a simulation in the CST microwave simulator. The results obtained were compared with other reference studies.

Index Terms—Transparent, ultra-thin, metamaterial absorber, flexible, wide-band

I. INTRODUCTION

 \mathbf{I} N recent years, metamaterials have increased their importance in microwave device design with their superior properties as a negative refractive index (*n*), high resonance and periodically manufacturing. Metamaterials are called left-handed materials because they propagate waves in the opposite direction of conventional materials. The first theoretical work on left-handed materials was carried out by Veselego. Veselego proved that mathematically the refractive index occurs simultaneously with the negative constitutive parameters [1]. Experimentally, Pendry fabricated the negative permittivity

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Manuscript received August 23, 2021; accepted July 20, 2022. DOI: 10.17694/bajece.986271 material with an electric field applied to infinitely thin wires, similar to the behavior of gases at plasma frequency. He also fabricated negative permeability with SRR (Spling Ring Resenator) [2], [3]. Later, these two structures were combined in one material and left-handed material was produced [4]. Besause of the unique feature of metamaterials, they use a lot of area such as optical lens [5], sensor [8], antenna [6], solar systems [7], invisibility cloak [9], polarization converters [11] and absorbers [10].

There are numerous absorber applications to use in civil and military radars. In these applications, it is aimed to reduce the radar cross sectional (RSC) in order to prevent the detection of the target. The first metamaterial absorber designed by Landy inspired the use of metamaterials as absorber[10]. Afterwards, metamaterial based absorbers have been diversified by considering features such as multi [12] or single layer [13], polarization insensivity [14], oblique angle performance [15] and thickness according to wavelength [16] in the literature. The absorbers designed using various geometries were made not only for the GHz frequency region [17] but also for the THz region [18]. In some metamaterial-based broadband absorber applications, SRR structure combined with lumped elements [19] and thin films [20] to overcome their bandwidth limitation. Metamaterial absorbers can also be classified in terms of the bandwidth they cover such as one [17], double [21], triple [22] or penta band [23]. In addition, in order to provide this wide band gap, wideband absorber designs have been carried out using transparent materials, since the selection of completely transparent materials will provide more advantageous situations like invisibility [24]. Various microwave absorbers have been designed using materials such as glass, PDMS, PVC and PET as optically transparent materials. Peng designed an absorber with %90 absorption in the 6.4-30 GHz band using water, PDMS and ITO transparent materials. He did not report the oblique angle performance of his absorber in his study [25]. Gao designed an absorber operating in the 14.4-30.4 GHz band using air, water and ITO transparent materials. The oblique angle performance was the same up to 30 degrees for both TE and TM polarizations, and the thickness of the absorber was only 0.184 λ [24]. In addition, although there is high oblique incidance performance for wider bandwidth in other transparent absorber studies, the thickness of the absorber was a disadvantage for thin applications [26], [27], [28]. In addition, the flexibility of the absorbers was reported as a valnerable feature in studies. In this study, we proposed completely transparent ITO-based metamaterial



Fig. 1. (a) Front profile and (b) side profile of proposed metamaterial based transparent absorbent design

absorber design which operate between the 9.6-34.8 with 25.2 GHz bandwidth approximately and cover the X-, Ku-, K- and Ka- bands with 90% absorption performance. The design consists of air, PET and ITO, which are flexible and transparent. Absorber acts as polarization insensivity, because the proposed design shows the same absorption performance in both TE and TM polarization. The thickness of the intended absorber is only $2.85mm(0.21\lambda)$ and it show ultra-thin feature compared to other transparent metamaterial absorbers in the literature. In Section II, the design of the absorber and the theoretical background are given to understand the absorption mechanism. Absorption, impedance and constitutive parameters were obtained by using the simulation results in Section III. Finaly, the oblique incidance performance, relative bandwidth (RB), flexiblity, thickness of absorber were compared with other reference studies in Section IV.

II. THEORY AND DESIGN

The proposed transparent metamaterial absorber is as shown in Fig. 1 (a-b). As seen in Fig. 1 (a-b), the bottom and top parts of the three-layer structure covered with ITO material, which is a transparent and conductive thin film. The battom level consists entirely of ITO with a thickness of 100nm and $10\Omega/m^2$ resistance. As seen in Fig. 1 (a), the top part consist of metamaterial coated by ITO with 100nm thickness and $35\Omega/m^2$ resistance (the parts shown with dark blue). Dimensions of the ITO structure shown in Fig. 1 (a); L = 12.2 mm, $r_1 = 1.83$ mm, $r_2 = 3.2$ mm, a = 5.10 mm, b = 5.10 mm, x = 0.50 mm, c = 3.14 mm, d = 4.6 mm, g = 2 mm, $r_{1k} = 1.52mm$ and $r_{2k} = 1.52mm$, respectively.

An part of the lowest ITO coated level and a lower level of the uppermost ITO coated metamaterial structure consists of PET as Fig. 1 (b). The dielectric constant of PET is $\varepsilon_r = 3.2$ and the loss tangent is $\sigma = 0.003$. The middle part consists of an air medium with a dielectric $\varepsilon_r = 1$ and a thickness of d = 2.5 mm. The thickness of the upper level and the lowest level PET has a thickness of $t_{pet1} = t_{pet2} = 0.175mm$ and air thickness is $t_a = 2.5mm$. The metamaterial structure at the top consists of ITO with a conductivity of $35\Omega/m2$ and a thickness of 100nm. The design given in Fig. 1 consists of transparent and flexible, which are air, water and PET. Therefore, the design can provide optically transparenty and flexibility advantage. Depending on the scattering parameters, the microwave absorption performance can be obtained as follows [27]

$$Absorbtion = 1 - R(\omega) - T(\omega), \tag{1}$$

Here $R(\omega) = |S_{11}|^2$ and $T(\omega) = |S_{21}|^2$, where S_{11} and S_{21} are reflection and transmission scattering parameters, respectively. Impedance matching is an important criterion to achieve good performance of the absorber. Using the scattering parameters, the normalized wave impedance of the absorber can be obtained as follows [30]

$$\bar{z} = \sqrt{\frac{\mu_{eff}}{\epsilon_{eff}}} = \sqrt{\frac{(1+S_{11}^2) - S_{21}^2}{(1-S_{11}^2) - S_{21}^2}},$$
(2)

Here \bar{z} , ε_{eff} and μ_{eff} are normalized wave impedance, electrical permittivity and magnetic permeability, respectively. The electric and magnetic dielectric constants of the absorber directly affect the normalized impedance as seen in equation 2. The permittivity and permeability of the metamaterial absorber can give information about how the absorber works and performance of absorber. Depending on the scattering parameters, the permittivity and permeability of the absorber can be obtained as follows [30]

$$\epsilon_{eff} = 1 + \frac{2jS_{11} - 1}{k_o dS_{11} + 1},\tag{3}$$

$$\mu_{eff} = 1 + \frac{2jS_{11} + 1}{k_o dS_{11} - 1},\tag{4}$$

Where, k_o is the wave number of the free-space and d is the thickness of the absorber. Since the bottom of the proposed absorber is covered with high conductivity ITO material, ε_r and μ_r can be roughly obtained by assuming that the S_{21} parameter goes to about 0 in equations 3 and 4. For another analysis of the metamaterial absorber physical infrastructure and working mechanism, the equivalent circuit based on transmission line theory is given in Fig.1. Impedance Z_a refers to the part below the metamaterial in Fig. 2 and is expressed as

$$Z_a = j \frac{Z_0}{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}} \tan \frac{2\pi f \sqrt{\epsilon_r} d}{c}, \tag{5}$$

where j is the imaginary part, d is the thickness of the substrate and ϵ_r is the relative permittivity, f the frequency of the incident wave, c is the velocity of light. Z_b , which is the impedance of the metasurface, can be written as [29]

$$Z_b = R + j(2\pi f L - \frac{1}{2\pi C}),$$
 (6)



Fig. 2. RLC Equivalent circuit of proposed metamaterial based transparent absorber

The total input impedance of port c, which includes impedances of Z_a and Z_b , is given with Z_{in} as follow

$$Z_{in} = \frac{Z_a Z_b}{Z_a + Z_b},\tag{7}$$

Port d represents the characteristic impedance of free space and is denoted by Z_o and its value is 377Ω .

 $T(\omega)$ mentioned in equation 1 is the transmission scattering coefficient and it can be taken as approximately zero since the back of the design below shows metal feature and $R(\omega)$ expressed as follow

$$R(\omega) = |\frac{Z_{in} - Z_0}{Z_{in} + Z_0}|^2,$$
(8)

The matching of free space and total impedance Z_{in} has to be equal Z_0 . Equations 9 and 10 are obtained by using equations 5-8.

$$\frac{R}{R + (2\pi f L - \frac{1}{2\pi C})} = \frac{1}{Z_0},\tag{9}$$

$$\frac{\left(2\pi fL - \frac{1}{2\pi C}\right)}{R^2 + (2\pi fL - \frac{1}{2\pi C})^2} = \frac{\sqrt{\epsilon_r}}{Z_0} \cot\left(\frac{2\pi f\sqrt{\epsilon_r}d}{c}\right), \quad (10)$$

The mathematical expression of R, which is in the equivalent circuit by means of equations 9 and 10, is expressed as follow

$$R = \frac{Z_0 \tan^2(\frac{2\pi f \sqrt{\epsilon_r d}}{c})}{\epsilon_r + \tan^2(\frac{2\pi f \sqrt{\epsilon_r d}}{c})},\tag{11}$$

Besides, relationship between equivalent parameters in the Fig. 2 as follow

$$(2\pi fL - \frac{1}{2\pi fC}) = -\frac{\sqrt{\epsilon_r} Z_0 \tan(\frac{2\pi f\sqrt{\epsilon_r}d}{c})}{\epsilon_r + \tan^2(\frac{2\pi f\sqrt{\epsilon_r}d}{c})}, \quad (12)$$

Where, L and C are equivalent inductance and equivalent capacitance, respectively.

III. SIMULATION RESULTS

In order to determine S-parameters in the CST simulator, frequency domain is selected in software and unitcell boundary conditions are applied in flouquet mode for boundary condition. The hexahedral mesh type was chosen for precision



Fig. 3. S-parameters of the proposed metamaterial-based transparent absorber design in dB for TE and TM mode under normal incidance.

analysis. 20x20 mesh cells were set to the unitcell metasurface. Accuracy set to $1e^{-12}$ and solver order high accuracy in frequency domain solver. After applying the boundary conditions in CST, the S-parameters results were obtained for TE and TM mode as given in Fig. 3. As seen in Fig. 3, reflected waves in the range of 9.6 GHz to 34.8 GHz for both modes are below -10dB. The x - y plane symmetrical geometry of the proposed design ensures that the same S-parameters are obtained for both TE and TM modes as polarization insensitivity. Also, at the back of the design, there is metal termination by choosing a very small resistive ITO surface $(10\Omega/m^2)$. This surface acts just like metal termination with good conductor. Thus, the transmission scattering parameter (S_{21}) approached almost zero, providing transmission at approximately -20dB. In Fig. 3, design shows strong resonance and absorbation at 11.73 GHz, 25.84 GHz, 29.71 GHz and 32.85 GHz. The S11 parameter drops sharply at 30.56 GHz, where the reflection is minimum. Fig. 4 show absorbtion results under normal incidence for both TE and TM polarizations. The absorption results are the same in both polarization due to the symmetrical design. As seen in Fig. 4, more than % 90 absorption was achieved from 9.6 to 34.8 GHz. Maximum absorption with % 99.99 were achieved at the 29.71 GHz frequency, because there is a minimum reflection in this frequency. By using the S-parameters to equation 1, oblique incidence absorption performance for TE and TM polarization are presented with % 80 absorption in Fig. 5 (a-b). As it can be seen in Fig. 5 (a-b), if incidence angle increase, absorption performance decreases, gradually. Absorption performance of the design under oblique incidence is up to 45°. Especially, angle sensitivity of absorber for TM mode is more than TE mode between $30^{\circ} - 45^{\circ}$. For strong impedance matching, the normalized impedance of the proposed absorber is expected to approach the normalized impedance of air. The real and imaginary part of the normalized impedance obtained using equation 2, the real and imaginary parts of the electric and magnetic permeability using equation 3-4 are given in Fig. 6 (a-b-c). As can be seen from the impedance of the absorber in Fig. 6 (a), between 9.6-34.8 GHz, the z_{real} expression oscillates around 1 value, while the z_{imag} expression oscillates around 0. Fig. 7 shows the surface current distributions for four resonance



Fig. 4. Percent absorption performance of the proposed metamaterial-based transparent absorbent design for TE and TM mode under normal incidence.



Fig. 5. (a) Percent absorption performance under oblique incidance for TE mod and (b) Percent absorption performance under oblique incidance for TM mod of the proposed metamaterial-based transparent absorber design.

points which are 11.73 GHz, 25.84 GHz, 29.71 GHz and 32.85 GHz. The 11.73 GHz is the first resonance frequency and top and bottom surface currents distribution of 11.73 GHz resonance frequency are shown in Fig. 7 (a). When looking at the directions of the surface current distributions in the top and bottom parts, it is seen that they are in opposite directions, so magnetic resonance has occurred at this resonance point. The top and bottom surface currents distributions of the 25.84 GHz resonance frequency are shown in Fig. 7 (b), when looking at the directions of the surface current distributions in the top and bottom parts, it is seen that they are in the same direction, so electrical resonance has occurred at this resonance point. Likewise, the top and bottom surface currents of 29.71 and 32.85 GHz resonance frequencies are shown in Fig. 7 (c) and Fig. 7 (d), when looking at the directions of the surface current for the surface current for the surface current for the surface point.



Fig. 6. (a) Real and imaginary parts of normalized wave impedance (b) real and imaginary parts of effective permittivity and (c) Real and imaginary parts of effective permeability of the proposed metamaterial-based transparent absorber design.

distributions in the top and bottom parts, it is seen that they are in the same direction, so electrical resonance has occurred at these two resonance points.

We analyzed the absorption performance with the loss tangent variation of the proposed absorber in the Fig. 8. As seen in the figure, the absorption performance of the proposed design decreases when the loss tangent increases too much. We also analyzed the absorption performance by varying the dielectric thickness of the proposed absorber for $t_a = 1.0$ mm, $t_a = 2.5$ mm and $t_a = 3.5$ mm. As seen in the Fig. 8, the performance of the absorber is optimum for $t_a = 2.5$ mm.

Table I give information about the performance of our and other optical transparent metamaterial absorber in the literature. The performance analysis of the study is presented based on some parameters such as the bandwidth, the relative bandwidth (RB), material thickness, flexibility in Table I. As can be seen in Table I, the proposed transparent metamaterialbased absorber is more useful for wide band applications with

 TABLE I

 PERFORMANCE OF THE PROPOSED ABSORBER RELATIVE TO OTHER REFERENCED STUDIES.

Ref.	Op. BW [GHz]	Flex	Angle	Thickness	RB
Ref [25]	6.4-30 GHz (23.6 GHz)	No	-	$4.5mm(0.273\lambda)$	%129.67
Ref [24]	14.4-30.4 GHz (16 GHz)	No	30^{o}	$3.176mm(0.184\lambda)$	%72.07
Ref [26]	14.4-33.7 GHz (19.3 GHz)	No	40^{o}	$6.4mm(0.513\lambda)$	%101.31
Ref [27]	8-18 GHz (10 GHz)	Yes	45^{o}	$4.5mm(0.22\lambda)$	%76.92
Ref [28]	5.61-29.17 GHz (23.5 GHz)	Yes	60^{o}	$4.5mm(0.273\lambda)$	%135.7
Prop. Absorb.	9.6-34.8 GHz (25.2 GHz)	Yes	45^{o}	$2.85mm(0.21\lambda)$	%113.5





Fig. 8. The performance of the proposed absorber (a) according to the loss tangent variation (b) according to the thickness of the substrate

Fig. 7. Surface current distributions at the top and ground layers corresponding to a) 11.73 GHz b) 25.84 GHz c) 29.71 GHz d) 32.85 GHz

25.2 GHz bandwidth than references [24], [25], [26], [27], [28] and more competitive for ultra thin applications with 2.85mm(0.21 λ) thickness in comparison with [24], [25], [26], [27], [28]. Besides, although referances [24], [25], [26] have a non-flexibility disadvantage, our proposed design show the flexibility performance because of selecting the flex materials. Since our design based on the air, we achieved good performance less material compared to [24], [25], [26], [27], [28]. The oblique incidence performance of absorber is up to (45°) with wide angle relatively to other studies [24], [25], [26]. The RB performance with (%113.5) is more than references [24], [26], [27].

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, a metamaterial-based transparent, flexible and ultra-thin absorber design is proposed. For the metamaterial structure, transparent thin film (ITO) and flexible transparent materials (air, PET). The proposed absorber design works for a very wide bandwidth (25.2 GHz) between 9.6 GHz and 34.8 GHz with %90 absorption. The performance of the design is the same for both TE and TM polarized incoming waves, and the structure works as a polarization insensitive microwave absorber. In addition, the absorber shows an absorption performance of more than % 80 up to 45° in both polarization at oblique incidence. Compared to other transparent metamaterial-based ultra wide band absorbers in the literature, it exhibits more comfortable properties in terms of bandwidth, thickness, angle and flexibility.

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Effect of Different Kernel Functions on Hazardous Liquid Detection Using a New Spectroscopy System and Support Vector Machines

Ebru Efeoglu and Gurkan Tuna

Abstract-Spectroscopy methods have become widespread in many applications including liquid classification. In this study, a new spectroscopy system that can classify liquids without opening the lid of their containers is proposed. Thus, the operators are prevented from being exposed to harmful substances and wasting time. Everyday liquids such as carbonated drinks, fruit juices, shampoo, cream and alcoholic beverages and hazardous liquids were characterized remotely by the method in which spectroscopic signatures of a total of 52 liquids were used. In order to be able to classify liquids with the highest accuracy, it is also important to determine the most suitable measurement system as well as the correct selection of the classification algorithm and algorithm parameters that show the best performance. In this study, Support Vector Machines algorithm, which is a very successful algorithm in separating binary classes, is used. In addition, the effects of the algorithm on the classification performance have been examined using different kernel functions and cross-validation technique has been used for the performance analysis. As a result of the performance analysis, it is seen that up to 100% success can be achieved when linear or polynomial kernel functions have been preferred.

Index Terms—Hazardous liquids, Support Vector Machines, Kernel functions, Accuracy.

I. INTRODUCTION

S OME FLAMMABLE liquids that are readily available can be used to make explosives. Examples of these liquids are acetone and alcohol types. By mixing acidic drinks with acetone, a very powerful handmade explosive substance called TATP (Tricycloacetonperoxide) can be obtained. Bottles, which are part of our daily life, can be used to store such liquids. For this reason, methods for non-contact detection of

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liquids in any container are of great importance. Many methods have been developed to detect hazardous liquids at security checkpoints. The relationship between ethanol concentration in alcohol-water solutions at different concentrations and terahertz reflection signals was demonstrated using terahertz (THz) time domain spectrometer [1], and the detection of flammable and explosive liquids was realized [2][3]. The THz transmission spectra of explosives and recent developments in spectroscopic techniques for detection of explosives were investigated using a THz-TDS and Optical Parametric Oscillator based system in [4]. Similarly, Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) method was used to analyze unknown liquids together with infrared (IR) spectroscopy and classical chemical color tests in [5]. As given in [6].NMR method was also used to detect and classify liquid explosives. On the other hand, in [7] Raman spectroscopy method was proposed for non-contact detection of hazardous liquids stored in glass and plastic containers. Similarly, to classify liquids in glass bottles the use of a low energy X-ray transmission system was proposed in [8].

Microwave spectroscopy methods are more practical and less costly than other methods [9]. These features of the method have recently increased the interest in the method. Dielectric properties of liquids can be analyzed with the method of dielectric spectroscopy. Different measurement techniques have been developed for this purpose and several research studies have been carried out in this domain in recent years. Simulation studies were carried out to measure the permeability of liquids using an open-ended microwave waveguide [10]. Static dielectric permittivity ($\varepsilon \theta$) and relaxation time (τ) was acquired by the least-square-fit method in [11]. Dielectric relaxation mechanisms and the temperature dependence of complex permeability of water were calculated in [12]. The relationship between water molecules and dielectric was deduced in [13]. An optimized rectangular waveguide cavity resonator was designed for compositional analysis of liquid solutions in [14]. Cooking oil classification was made using dielectric spectroscopy at 8.2-12.1 GHz microwave frequencies [15]. Microwave spectroscopy method was used not only in liquid classification but also in determining the quality parameters of tomato paste [16] and silicone [17]. Coaxial probe method was the most commonly

used microwave measurement method is the past and it was used for different purposes including the dielectric measurement of biological [18] in the diagnosis of breast cancer [19]. However, in recent years remote and non-contact measurement and machine learning methods have been gaining interest. Machine learning techniques were used in toxic liquid detection with a thick film gas sensor [20]. Performance analysis of a 2% Fe2O3-added thick film gas sensor was performed in toxic liquid detection using machine learning techniques [21].

In this study, an antenna was designed and it was connected to the Vector Network Analyzer (VNA) to collect spectroscopic signatures of liquids in the microwave frequency band. Then, Support Vector Machine (SVM) algorithm was applied to these spectra consisting of hazardous and everyday liquids to classify hazardous liquids. In addition, the effects of using different kernel functions on the success of the SVM algorithm were examined using various performance criteria.

II. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP AND METHODOLOGY

The complex dielectric permeability value varies depending on the chemical composition of the liquid tested in the proposed microwave spectroscopy method. This change in dielectric permeability affects the electromagnetic response of the antenna, and the different electromagnetic responses of liquids enable us to obtain information about the liquid. Measurement system used in this study consists of a VNA and a patch antenna, as shown in Fig.1. From the VNA, a signal is sent to the liquid in the 1.42-1.53 GHz frequency range of the microwave band and the amplitude of the signal reflected from the liquid is measured. The interaction between molecules and microwaves causes the molecules to rotate and align with the electromagnetic field. Polarization and depolarization of molecules in liquids with different dielectric permeability values, and energy loss due to friction of the directing molecules in the wave velocity cause a decrease in the magnitude of the wave. Dielectric loss factor measures the efficiency of energy loss [22]. The signal amplitude is a function of the dielectric constant of the sample and the change in dielectric loss factor [23]. The antenna was formed by placing a circular geometry conductive layer on a dielectric layer on a ground plane. This conductive layer provides the absorption or radiation of electromagnetic waves. Copper is used as the conductive layer. Rjadiation occurs between the conductive layer of the antenna and the ground plane and the most radiation occurs in the edge areas of the conductive layer. The reason why the circle patch was preferred is the symmetrical radiation characteristic of the circular patch which is not found in other types of patches. Another factor contributing to the circular patch selection was the use of a circular bottle for measurements. The thickness of the dielectric layer is directly proportional to the frequency bandwidth. The dielectric constant of the dielectric layer in the designed antenna is 4.4. Its dimensions are 10x10 cm and its

thickness is 1.6 mm. The coaxial probe method was used as the feeding method for the designed antenna because the coaxial probe feeding method is more useful for antennas with thin layers. The inner conductor of the coaxial probe is connected to the radiation patch of the antenna and its outer conductor is connected to the ground plane of the antenna. The antenna illustrated in Fig.1 is feed by 50 Ohm SMA (SubMiniature version A) feed probe. The antenna diameter is calculated using Eq. (1) and Eq. (2).

$$F = \frac{8.791 \times 10^9}{f_r \sqrt{\varepsilon_r}}$$
(1)
$$a = \frac{F}{\left\{\frac{1 + \frac{2h}{\pi \varepsilon_r F[ln(\frac{\pi F}{1+1,7726})^{1/2}}\right\}}$$
(2)

Here, ε_r represents relative permittivity of the substrate, f_r represents resonant frequency, h represents height of the substrate, and a represents radius of the patch.



Fig.1. a) Measurement system used in this study b) Samples c) The geometry of the antenna and front view of the antenna d) Back view of the antenna.

A. Support Vector Machines (SVM)

SVM is an algorithm based on statistical learning theory [24]. This algorithm was originally developed for binary classifications [25]. The algorithm is based on the principle of classifying data by finding the best hyperplane that distinguishes the data of a class from those of the other class [26]. A decision function derived from training data is used to find the optimum hyperplane. In a classification problem that can be linearly divided into two classes, *k* is a training set showing the number of samples, if $x \in$ is an N-dimensional space, $y \in \{-1, +1\}$ is class labels and *b* is the trend value, then

the support vectors are the points that make up the hyperplanes and they are expressed as in Eq. (3). Hyperplane inequalities are given in Eq. (4) and Eq. (5).

$$w. x_i + b = \pm 1 \tag{3}$$

 $w. x_i + b \ge +1$ for each y=+1 (4)

 $w. x_i + b \le +1 \quad \text{for each } y=-1 \tag{5}$

where w is the normal of the hyperplane and is known as the weight vector [27].

According to the algorithm, the limit of the optimum hyperplane must be maximum. In this case, finding the most suitable hyperplane is possible with the solution of the limited optimization problem given in Eq. (6). Constraints due to this are as shown in Eq. (7) [24]. If this problem is solved by Lagrange equations, Eq. (8) is obtained. For data that can be divided into two classes linearly, the decision function is as given by Eq. (9) [27].

$$min \frac{1}{2} ||w||^{2}$$

$$y_{i}(w, x_{i} + b) - 1 \geq 0 \quad ve \; y_{i} \in \{1, -1\}$$

$$L(w, b, \alpha) = \frac{1}{2} ||w||^{2} - \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i} y_{i}(w, x_{i} + b) + \sum_{i=1}^{k} \alpha_{i}$$

$$f(x) = sign(\sum_{i=1}^{k} \lambda_{i} y_{i}(x, x_{i}) + b)$$
(9)

In some cases, a linear hyperplane that can categorize data cannot be found. In this case, the data in the feature space is moved to a higher dimensional kernel space and a classification is made by finding a hyperplane in the kernel space [28]. Some of the data that cannot be separated linearly remain on the other side of the optimal hyperplane. This problem is solved by defining a positive variable (ξ). The C correction parameter is used to check incorrect classifications. Thus, the problem can be expressed as in Eq. (10). The

$$min\left[\frac{\|w\|^{2}}{2} + C \cdot \sum_{i=1}^{r} \xi_{i}\right]$$
(10)
$$y_{i}(w. \phi(x_{i}) + b) - 1 \ge 1 - \xi_{1}$$

$$\xi \ge 0 \text{ and } i = 1, \dots, N$$
(11)

limitations related to this are as given in Eq. (11).

The kernel function used to separate data that cannot be separated linearly is defined mathematically as given by Eq. (12). With the help of this function, data can be classified by making nonlinear transformations. The decision rule for this is as given by Eq. (13) [27].

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \phi(x_i). \phi(x_j)$$
(12)
$$f(x) = sign(\sum_{i=1}^k \alpha_i y_i \phi(x). \phi(x_i) + b)$$
(13)

The accuracy of SVM algorithm depends on the selected kernel function [29]. The kernels used in this study are Linear, Polynomial, Radial Basis and Sigmoid. Linear kernel is the simplest kernel function. It is as given in Eq. (14). Polynomial kernel is as given by Eq. (15).

$$K(x_i, x_j) = x_i^T x_j$$
(14)
$$K(x_i, x_j) = (x_i^T x_j + d)^P$$
(15)

where, *d* is constant term and *p* is polynomial degree.

Gaussian kernel expressed by Eq. (16) is an example of radial basis function kernel. For this kernel, σ determines the width of the Gaussian kernel and plays a major role for the kernel's performance.

$$K(x_i, x_j) = \exp(-||x_i - x_j||^2 / 2\sigma^2)$$
 (16)

The Hyperbolic Tangent Kernel expressed by Eq. (17) is also known as Sigmoid Kernel and as Multilayer Perceptron kernel. Here, α represents slope and δ represents intersection constant.

$$K(X_i, X_j) = \tanh(\alpha x_i^T x_j + \delta)$$
(17)

III. RESULTS

All liquids in the study were measured in pet bottles. 52 liquids were measured, including 23 hazardous liquids and 29 non-hazardous liquids. Liquids that contain alcohol-water solutions with an alcohol content of 70% or more can be hazardous; therefore, these solutions are classified as hazardous liquids [2]. With the proposed measurement system, spectra of liquids were collected in 56 steps in the 1.42-1.53 GHz frequency range and were used as input to SVM algorithm. Liquids used in this study are listed in Table I.

TABLE I

]	LIQUIDS U	JSED IN THIS	STUDY.						
Hazardous liquid	ls	Non-hazardous liquids							
Ethanol (70,80,90,100)%	Acetone	Peach juice	Vinegar	Turnip juice					
Methanol (70,80,90,100)%	Cologne	Shower gel	Shampoo	Champag ne					
1-propanol (70,80,90,100)%	Toluene	Hair conditioner	Screen cleaning fluid	Tequila					
Isopropanol (70,80,90,100)%	Butanol	Lens solution	Buttermilk	Whiskey					
Gasoline	Octanol	Ketchup	Apricot juice	Cocoa milk					
Thinner		Beer	Liqueur	Hair gel					
		Baby food	Water	Liquid soap					
		White wine	Red wine	Milk					
		Cola	Tea	Gin					
		Vodka	Raki						

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The amplitude spectra of the aqueous alcohol solutions are given in Fig.2a, the amplitude spectra of the pure hazardous liquids in Fig.2b, and finally the amplitude spectra of the nonhazardous liquids in Fig.2c. Flowchart of the proposed approach is given in Fig. 3.



Fig.2. Amplitude spectra of liquids a) Aqueous alcohol solutions b) Hazardous liquids c) Non-hazardous liquids.



Fig.3. Flowchart of the proposed approach

A. Performance Evaluation

Since kernel functions can affect the performance of the algorithm, to analyze its effects a classification was made using four different kernel functions. K-fold cross validation technique was used in the performance evaluation of this study. In this technique, a dataset is divided into parts and some of it is used as training data and the remaining is used as test data. In this way, it is understood how the model performs on a dataset that it has not seen before. Therefore, a successful algorithm must be able to make an accurate prediction even about a liquid type it does not know at all.

1) Performance metrics

Performance criteria used in this study consists of False Positive Rate (FPR), True Positive Rate (TPR), Confusion matrix, ROC curve, F-Measure, and accuracy. Confusion matrix is a matrix containing information about the actual classes and predicted classes of liquids and is given in Fig.4. The diagonal values of the matrix in green show the number of liquids that the algorithm predicts correctly (True Positive (TP) and True Negative (TN)), and the cells in pink show the number of liquids that it predicts incorrectly (False Negative (FN) and False Positive (FP)). When Fig. 4 is examined, it can be seen that all 52 liquids were correctly classified in both training and cross validation when linear and polynomial functions were preferred. Radial basis function classified 3 hazardous liquids incorrectly. Sigmoid function classified all of the hazardous liquids as non-hazardous.

TPR is the ratio of true positive samples. It is also called recall and is calculated using Eq. (18). FPR is the ratio of false positive samples and is calculated using Eq. (19).

$$TPR = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$
(18)
$$FPR = \frac{FP}{TN + FP}$$
(19)

Accuracy shows the overall performance of the model. It is the most popular performance evaluation measure and can be calculated using Eq. (20). F-Measure is a hybrid metric useful for unbalanced classes and is calculated using Eq. (21).

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$
(20)

$$F - Measure = \frac{2TP}{2TP + FP + FN}$$
(21)

In a successful classification, F-Measure and TP values are desired to be as close to 1 as possible.

2) Experimental results

TPR, FPR, F-Measure metrics and accuracy values of all the kernels are listed in Table II. In a ROC curve, FPR is on the X axis and TPR is on the Y axis. As the remaining under the curve increases, the discrimination performance between classes increases. The ROC curves are given in Fig.5 for different kernels.

As it can be seen from the ROC curves of polynomial and linear functions, liquids were correctly classified. The areas under the ROC curves took the value of 1. On the other hand, as it can be seen from the ROC curves of Radial basic function, some misclassifications were done so the ROC area value was calculated as 0.93. Finally, as it can be seen from the ROC curves of Sigmoid function, the function did not classify any liquids correctly, so the ROC area value was calculated as 0.5. This indicates that Sigmoid function is not suitable for liquid classification when SVM algorithm has been preferred.

When Table II is examined, it is seen that the algorithm achieved 100% accuracy by correctly predicting all the liquids when Polynomial and linear kernels were used. Therefore, Kappa, F-Measure and TP values were 1. Moreover, Root Mean Squared Error value of 0 indicates that the algorithm made the classification error-free. When Sigmoid kernel function was used, the algorithm did not accurately predict any hazardous liquid. Therefore, F-Measure value was not computed.

TABLE II AVERAGE VALUES OF PERFORMANCE METRICS OF DIFFERENT KERNEL FUNCTIONS.

Metric	Linear	Polynomial	Radial basis function	Sigmoid
TPR	1	1	0.94	0.55
FPR	0	0	0.07	0.55
F-Measure	1	1	0.94	
Accuracy (%)	100	100	94.23	55.76

	T		TRAIN	ING		1	CE	ROSS VAL	IDATION	
				Predicted				1	Predicted	
			True Positive	True Negative	TOTAL			True Positive	True Negative	TOTAL
mear	Inut	True Positive	23	-0	23	theat	True Positive	23	(0)	23
-	AC	True Negative	0	29	29	Ac	True Negative	0	29	29
		TOTAL	23	29	52		TOTAL	23	29	52
				Predicted					Predicted	
			True Positive	True Negative	TOTAL			True Positive	True Negative	TOTAL
omul	tat 1	True Positive	23	0	23	Inu	True Positive	23	0	23
Polyn	Act	True Negative	0	29	29	Act	True Negative	0	29	29
	1	TOTAL	23	29	52		TOTAL	23	29	52
_	+		1000	Predicted	1000	+		-	Preducted	
ictiou	Γ		True Positive	True Negative	TOTAL	Γ		True Positive	True Negative	TOTAL
sts fu	had	True Positive	-20	3	23	Innt	True Positive	20	3	23
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		TOTAL	0	52	52	1	TOTAL	0	52	52

Fig.4. Performance of different kernel functions.



Fig.5. ROC curve of hazardous liquids with different kernel functions a)Linear b) Polynomial c) Radial basis d) Sigmoid.

IV. CONCLUSION

In this study, a system that can be used for non-contact detection of hazardous liquids is proposed. With this system, hazardous liquids can be evaluated independently of operator interpretation. Therefore, the obtained result does not vary from person to person. In addition, as the measuring system can scan liquids with a closed container, it prevents the operator from experiencing health problems caused by smelling these hazardous liquids and touching them.

When the measurement system and the embedded SVM algorithm are used, hazardous liquids can be detected quickly and with high accuracy. Kernel functions (Linear, Polynomial, Sigmoid or Radial) can be used to increase the success of the SVM algorithm. As a result of the classification made when Linear and Polynomial functions were used, the TPR value was 1 and the FPR value was 0. In addition, the accuracy rate was 100%. These values prove that the algorithm can classify all liquids correctly when Linear and Polynomial functions have been used. The confusion matrices and ROC curves presented in this paper support this conclusion. Consequently, it is recommended to use Polynomial or Linear kernel functions in the proposed system.

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Detection of TrickBot and Emotet Banking Trojans with Machine Learning

Ruveyda Celik and Ali Gezer

Abstract— Internet banking is getting more popular with the increasing number and demand of online banking customers. Almost all transactions that could be performed in bank branches could also be realized through internet banking. Internet banking, which has become widespread with the increasing use of the Internet, has also led to an increase in cases of financial fraud. This has made the protection of personal data and the security of banking services more important than ever. It is very important for institutions and organizations providing online banking services to take security measures in their systems. Cybercriminals target internet users with methods such as malware infection, botnets, spam, phishing, identity theft, and social engineering that they use and develop every day. Therefore, there are always potential risks in using internet banking. Banking viruses commonly used by cybercriminals today are TrickBot and Emotet. Nowadays TrickBot and Emotet are popular banking trojans which gives hard times for online banking customers. Their primary goal is to steal user's banking and personal information. In this study, we will investigate the behavior analysis and new tricks of TrickBot and Emotet banking viruses, which use different methods to compromise the security of online banking customers. We benefited WEKA program to detect these banking viruses. In addition to this, we also focused on the detection of TrickBot and Emotet Banking viruses with using Random Tree, J48, Naive Bayes, SMO Techniques.

Index Terms— Banking Trojan, Emotet, Machine Learning Methods, Malware Analysis, TrickBot, Web Injections

I. INTRODUCTION

BANKING TROJANS are viruses that pretend to be a legitimate program or file, infiltrate computers and perform harmful actions. Although no one wants to be exposed to cyberattacks, millions of people become victim of attackers each year. In addition, banking viruses can create a backdoor that can copy the credentials of a bank customer by imitating the login web page of financial institutions.

TrickBot and Emotet are popular banking trojans that make such transactions from online banking and finance sites to attackers digital systems. Emotet is a Trojan that is primarily spread through spam emails (<u>malspam</u>). The malware may

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infect either via malicious script, macro-enabled document files, or malicious links. Emotet emails may contain familiar branding which designed to look like a legitimate email. Emotet may try to persuade users to click the malicious files by using tempting language such as "Your Invoice," "Payment Details," or possibly an upcoming shipment from well-known parcel companies [1].

Emotet has gone through a few iterations. Early versions arrived as malicious JavaScript file. Later versions evolved to use macro-enabled documents to retrieve the virus payload from command and control (C&C) servers.

Emotet uses a number of tricks to try and prevent detection and analysis. Notably, Emotet knows if it's running inside a virtual machine (VM) and will lay dormant if it detects a sandbox environment, which is a tool cybersecurity researchers use to observe malware within a safe, controlled space [2].

Emotet also uses C&C servers to receive updates. This works in the same way as the operating system updates on your PC and can happen seamlessly and without any outward signs. This allows the attackers to install updated versions of the software, install additional malware such as other banking trojans, or to act as a dumping ground for stolen information such as financial credentials, usernames, passwords, and email addresses [3].

TrickBot was created to steal users' banking information. When Malwarebytes researchers first discovered TrickBot in 2016, they thought it was an ordinary identity theft purpose malware. But TrickBot targeted financial services and users for their banking data. It has also exploited other malwares to achieve its goals [4].TrickBot has the reputation of being the successor to another credential thief, Dyreza, who first appeared in 2014. TrickBot shared similarities with Dyreza, such as certain variables with similar values and the way that the functioning of command and control (C&C) servers. This has led many researchers to believe that the person or group that created Dyreza also created TrickBot [5].

In 2017, developers added a worm module to TrickBot, which we believe was inspired by successful ransomware campaigns with worm-like capabilities such as WannaCry and EternalPetya [6]. The developers also added a module for collecting Outlook credentials. The reason for adding this module is that hundreds of organizations and millions of people around the world often use this web mail service. The range of data TrickBot plays has also expanded. These are: cookies, browsing history, URLs visited, Flash LSO (Local Shared Objects) and many more. Although these modules were new at that time, they weren't coded well enough.

In 2018, TrickBot continued to exploit the SMB

vulnerability. It was also equipped with the module that disables Windows Defender's real-time monitoring using a PowerShell command. While it had also updated its encryption algorithm, the rest of its module function stayed the same. TrickBot developers also started securing their code from being taken apart by security researchers via incorporating obfuscation elements [7]. At the end of the year, TrickBot was ranked as the top threat against businesses, and has overtaken Emotet. TrickBot developers made some changes to the Trojan in 2019. Specifically, they made changes to the way that webinject feature works against the some US-based mobile carriers.

Recently, researchers have noted an improvement in this Trojan's evasion method. Mworm, the module responsible for spreading a copy of itself, was replaced by a new module called Nworm. This new module alters TrickBot's HTTP traffic, allowing it to run from memory after infecting a domain controller. This ensures that TrickBot doesn't leave any traces of infection on affected machines.

These banking viruses have allowed them to install updated versions of the software, install additional malware such as other banking Trojans, or act as intermediaries for stolen information such as financial credentials, usernames, passwords, and email addresses [8]. The chain of infection diagram for banking malicious viruses for Emotet and TrickBot is shown in Figure 1.



Fig.1. Infection chain for Emotet and TrickBot

II. PROSED METHOD

A. Data Collection Through Static And Dynamic Analysis

Static and dynamic analyzes could be performed to reveal the signatures of malicious softwares. Via determining network flows, virus detection was investigated in virtual machines infected with TrickBot and Emotet. When the TrickBot and Emotet trojans infect a system, their first action is to identify their victims. It performs a network activity via e-mail or HTTP request to some service sites, websites of targeted banks or websites where users can access their personal data.



When the infected file in the email is executed the compromised system tries to connect to one of Command and Control servers of these two currently active banking viruses. Some server IPs are encoded into the malware's binary. After the connection is established, TrickBot and Emotet viruses try to download the encrypted file modules. They try to access new IPs by leaking stolen data to Downloaders. We can see the IPs that these viruses interact with using Process Hacker and Wireshark programs.

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Fig.3. Process Hacker output of a computer infected with Emotet



Fig.4. Process Hacker output of a computer infected with TrickBot

Process Hacker is an open source tool that allows you to see what processes are running on a device, identify programs consuming CPU resources, and identify network connections associated with a process. Such features make Process Hacker an ideal tool for monitoring malware on a device. Being able to see what processes are spawned identify network connections and interesting threads could give us valuable indicators of danger (IOCs) [9].

IP addresses and malicious domain names are valuable indicators in incident response. Using Process Hacker is helpful to gather such information which also compromised hosts can be identified in the network.



Fig.5. Wireshark output of a computer infected with TrickBot

Wireshark is a packet sniffer and protocol analysis tool. It captures network traffic in the local network and stores this data for offline analysis. Wireshark captures network traffic from Ethernet, Bluetooth, Wireless (IEEE.802.11), Token Ring, Frame Relay connections and more. Wireshark lets you filter the log before capture starts or during analysis so you can narrow down what you're looking for. For example, you can set a filter to see TCP traffic between two IP addresses. You can set it to show you only packets sent from a computer. The powerful filtering mechanisms in Wireshark is one of the main reasons it has become the standard tool for packet analysis [10].

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Fig.6. Wireshark output of a computer infected with Emotet

When we look at network traffic, the compromised system tries to make a connection to one of the C&C servers of TrickBot and Emotet. Some server IPs are encoded into the malware's binary. After the connection is established, TrickBot and Emotet viruses try to download the encrypted file modules. It tries to access new IP's by leaking stolen data.

TrickBot and Emotet virus download files in AppData folder. While TrickBot spawns in Roaming, Emotet spawns in Local directory.

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Fig.7. Directories that TrickBot and Emotet cloned themselves

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TrickBot cloned itself in

C:\Users*\AppData\Roaming\7_Zip6686668680) copied itself and downloaded different files for different purposes.

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Figure.9. Created Files after Emotet Infection

Emotet cloned itself in

C:\Users*\AppData\Local\avatarearcom and downloaded files to realized its purposes.



Fig.10. Created files and downloads by Emotet and TrickBot infection

Emotet and TrickBot download files for some specific purposes. Each of these files has different properties and purposes. The most important of these are as follows:

• TrickBot and Emotet modules are delivered as Dynamic Link Libraries (DLLs) loaders.

• Mainly TrickBot and Emotet have two core modules, Injectdll and systeminfo.

• Injectdll module is used to target banking and financial data, monitors banking website activity and uses web injections to steal financial information. Systeminfo is used to fingerprint the infected system specifications [11].

• Besides the above features, other files TrickBot and Emotet download are as follows:

- **ModuleDll/ImportDll:** Collects browser data (eg cookies and browser configurations).
- **Dinj:** File contains bank information; uses server-side web injections.

- **Dpost:** Most of the data leaked by TrickBot is sent to the dpost IP address.
- Sinj: Keeps information about targeted online banks; Uses redirect attacks (fake web injections) to leak financial data
- **DomainDll:** Uses LDAP to collect credentials and configuration data. Domain controller by accessing shared SYSVOL files.
- **OutlookDll:** Harvests saved Microsoft Outlook credentials by querying several registry keys.
- **SquIDII:** Force enables WDigest authentication and utilizes Mimikatz to scrape credentials from LSASS.exe. The worming modules use these credentials to spread TrickBot and Emotet laterally across networks.
- NetworkDll, wormDll, shareDll: Used for network reconnaissance and lateral movement.
- **RdpScanDll:** Bruteforces RDP for a specific list of victims.

TrickBot banking trojan uses a domain creation algorithm to communicate with its servers. Once infected, the trojan starts executing DNS queries for the created domains. Another popular banking trojan, Emotet, which exhibits a completely different network communication model, sets up a local proxy and routes internet traffic through the proxy server.

Modules can be downloaded from one of TrickBot's or Emotet's C2s using simple GET requests such as https://<CC_IP>:<CC_PORT>/<gtag>/<bot_ID>/5/<module_ name>/. Although module names are case sensitive and we define 32-bit modules, in most cases 64-bit versions can be downloaded by typing '64' instead of '32' in the module name. In most cases, valid <gtag> and <bot_ID> values are not required for successful download. Files which are encrypted could be decrypted with the following Python script [12].

I ABLE I									
PROPERTIES	OF FILES	DOWNLOADED	TICKBOT AN	ND EMOTET					

TID

Name	Function
importDll64	Browser data stealer module
	Handles web-injects, including support for several hundred banking/financial sites
injectDll64	
mailsearcher64	Recon module parses specific file types for "of interest" data
	Lateral movement / enumeration module via LDAP and SMB exploitation. Mshare and mworm modules work in
mshareDll64	cooperation
mwormDll64	Lateral movement / enumeration module via LDAP and SMB exploitation. Mshare and mworm modules work in
mshareDll	cooperation
networkDll64	Recon module queries network specific environmental data
psfin64	Point-of-sale recon module
pwgrab64	Steals credentials, autofill data, history, and other information from browsers as well as several software applications.
systeminfo64	Recon module. Provides system-specific information and data to the C2
	Credential theft module. Sometimes contains additional lateral movement code. Uses the EternalRomance exploit
tabDll64	(CVE-2017-0147) to spread via SMBv1.

imp	ort hashlib
fro	m Crypto.Cipher import AES
def	hash_rounds (data) :
	while len(data) <= 0x1000:
	<pre>buf_hash = hashlib.sha256(data).digest()</pre>
	data += buf_hash
	return buf_hash
def	decrypt (data) :
	pad = lambda s: s + (16 - len(s) % 16) * chr(16 - len(s) % 16)
	<pre>key = hash_rounds(data[:0x20])[:0x20]</pre>
	<pre>iv = hash_rounds(data[0x10:0x30])[:0x10]</pre>
	<pre>aes = AES.new(key, AES.MODE_CBC, iv)</pre>
	data = pad(data[0x30:])
	return aes.decrypt(data)

Fig.11. Python script with module decrypt routine

Dosya	Düzenle Ara Görünüm Kodlama Diller Ayarlar Araçlar Makrolar Çalıştır
66	🗃 🕼 🕼 🌡 🌡 🛍 🚺 ⊃ ⊄ # 🏂 🤏 🕞 🗔 🚍 💷 🏾
📄 arff.r	notepadplus 🔀 🔚 dini;.out 🔀 💾 dpost.out 😣
1	@relation "Kotu Amaclı Yazılım Tespıtı"
2	
3	<pre>@attribute outlook {TRICKBOT, EMOTET}</pre>
4	<pre>@attribute "Where files are downloaded"{roaming, local}</pre>
5	<pre>@attribute conclusion {yes, no}</pre>
6	
7	Ødata
8	TRICKBOT, roaming, yes
9	EMOTET, local, yes
10	

Fig.12. Notepadplus arff file created as a result of Python password analysis

🕘 🔵 💌 📕 🕨 Arsh A	krora 🕨 AppData	a 🕨 Roaming 🕨	newmslib 🕨 c	lata ▶ injectDll32_config:
Organize - Includ	e in library 🔻	Share with 👻	New folder	
😭 Favorites	Name	*		Date modified
	🗌 dinj			3/3/2020 4:14 AM
🧊 Libraries	dpost			3/3/2020 4:15 AM
Documents	🗋 sinj			3/3/2020 4:14 AM

Fig.13. Encrypted dinj, dpost and sinj files

Dosva	Düzenle Ara Görünüm Kodlama Diller Avarlar Araclar Makrola
gosya	Dagene Ala Goldham Bodiania Diret Agana Algori Makola
0	
📄 dpost	out 🖾 🔚 dinj. out 🖾
1	CEORIUM NUM · ESNUMEON < dpost>
2	<handler>http://203.176.135.102:8082</handler>
з	<handler>http://112.78.164.34:8082</handler>
4	<handler>http://103.94.122.254:8082</handler>
5	<pre><handler>http://170.238.117.187:8082</handler></pre>
6	<handler>http://190.100.16.210:8082</handler>
7	<pre><handler>http://190.119.180.226:8082</handler></pre>
8	<handler>http://96.9.77.142:80</handler>
9	<handler>http://96.9.73.73:80</handler>
10	<handler>http://36.89.106.69:80</handler>
11	<handler>http://177.74.232.124:80</handler>
12	<handler>http://103.84.238.3:80</handler>
13	<handler>http://194.5.250.188:443</handler>
14	<handler>http://217.12.209.163:443</handler>
15	<handler>http://185.98.87.94:443</handler>
16	<pre><handler>http://92.38.135.164:443</handler></pre>
17	<handler>http://212.80.218.64:443</handler>
18	<handler>http://64.44.51.106:443</handler>
19	<pre><handler>http://146.185.253.123:443</handler></pre>
20	<handler>http://185.99.2.164:443</handler>
21	<handler>http://51.89.115.117:443</handler>
22	<handler>http://188.209.52.162:443</handler>
23	<pre><handler>http://185.164.32.107:443</handler></pre>
24	<handler>http://107.172.191.12:443</handler>
25	<handler>http://51.89.115.123:443</handler>
26	
27	>v"š NGC 6Êi+ NGC 3mië°Ù¤ŠC'*ůX-81L0^¤£ (55)ců.+ D0

Fig.14. Decrypted dpost.out arff file with Python

Dosya	Dügenle Ara Görünüm Kodlama Diller Ayarlar Argçlar Makrolar Çalıştır Eklentiler Pencereler ?
00	H & G & H & M D D C A & K & C G G 5 1 📰 🛛 🖉 🗉 D H H H H H
doos	nut 🕄 🖂 drij out 🖾
97	<lm>https://account.t-mobile.com/svr/authenticate</lm>
98	<hl>https://162.247.155.173:446/response.php?s=1565282033663493&id=Dgsp7&65cj1XJFoJf3c8</hl>
99	<pri>l00</pri>
100	<pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre>
102	<dinj></dinj>
103	<lm>https://account.t-mobile.com/signin/v2*</lm>
104	<pre><hl>https://162.247.155.173:446/response.php?s=1565282033663493&id=ElBbloyrKBawVVCDCmva</hl></pre>
105	<pri>100</pri>
106	<pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre>
107	<require header="">*text/html*</require>
108	
109	
110	<igroup></igroup>
	<dinj></dinj>
112	<lm>*/rcrd/1528137865954561*</lm>
113	<hl>https://162.247.155.173:446/response/rcrd.php?s=1528137865954561</hl>
114	<pri>100</pri>
115	<pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre>
116	
117	<dinj></dinj>
118	<lm>https://bank.bbt.com/mfapp/web/myfi/home*</lm>
119	<hl>https://162.247.155.173:446/response.php?s=1528137865954561&id=XXAyORpnQLGdSLz7wpIx</hl>
	<pri>100</pri>
121	<pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre><pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre></pre>
122	<ignore_mask>*bbtdealsdash*</ignore_mask>
123	<require header="">*text/html*</require>
124	
	<pre><dint></dint></pre>

Fig.15. Decrypted dnj.out arff file with Python

We know that TrickBot and Emotet use a virtual network system that allows them to take over the victim's computer systems. TrickBot also used different modules to enter user credentials into any banking session. It mostly gets the downloaded modules and configuration files by running them on their servers. After running these modules, it also needs a network communication to accomplish its destructive goals. However, due to the encrypted content of the exchanged packets, their purpose is difficult to understand. Therefore, revealing the TrickBot and Emotet networking pattern will help us detect any viral infection in a system. We focus on the communication patterns between the TrickBot and Emotet servers and the compromised system.

TrickBot and Emotet network traffics were examined to determine network flow patterns. We will use machine learning techniques to detect the TrickBot and Emotet infection. Each traffic flow is defined by a set of statistical properties that can be calculated from one or more packages. Therefore, each stream will be characterized by the same set of attribute names, but different attribute values [13].

B. Machine Learning Approach to Identify TrickBot and Emotet Streams Color Space

In our methodology, we use a supervised machine learning approach to classify traffic flows by class membership. In supervised classification, classes must be predefined before the system is trained. First, a classification model is used via using a training dataset containing examples of each class. This model is then used to predict class membership for new traffic flows represented as statistical features.

We analyzed many TrickBot and Emotet malware samples statically and dynamically over 1 year period. After executing the samples of TrickBot and Emotet, a network is created between the compromised computer and a URL call is performed to reveal the public IP address of the infected computer. During the dynamic analysis, we observed the %AppData%Roaming folder to see if there were any newly created folders related to the TrickBot infection. We observed the %AppData%Local folder to see if there were any newly created folders related to the Emotet infection [14].

Before running TrickBot and Emotet malware samples in a virtual machine, we set it up to capture network traffic with some predefined filtering rules to not to capture broadcast packets with the Wireshark protocol analyzer. In Windows Task Manager it can be easily observed when the TrickBot and

382

Emotet process is started, finished and deployed and how many svchost processes are started by the main executable to run the downloaded module DLLs [15].

svchost.e	xe (2776) (0>	2af(000 -	0x3	000	00)									
00000640	72	a8	64	e8	0a	40	9c	c5	f4	71	ae	7b	7b	6a	07	ea	r.d@g.{{j
00000650	90	14	4f	8d	89	af	94	ab	b2	06	d4	02	6a	7b	98	1f	0j{
00000660	59	b9	3a	cd	54	fa	20	df	b2	2a	0a	e9	b8	dd	69	90	Y.:.I*i.
00000670	c0	29	d3	4e	d0	97	ed	66	cc	c5	19	49	06	7f	fa	5e	.).Nf^
00000680	2c	7c	7b	85	1b	32	42	df	7b	95	25	02	03	01	00	01	, {2B. {.%
00000690	a3	82	01	78	30	82	01	74	30	12	06	03	55	1d	13	01	x0t0U
000006a0	01	ff	04	80	30	06	01	01	ff	02	01	00	30	5c	06	03	00\
000006b0	55	1d	20	04	55	30	53	30	48	06	09	2b	06	01	04	01	UUOSOH+
000006c0	b1	3e	01	00	30	3b	30	39	06	08	2b	06	01	05	05	07	.>0;09+
000006d0	02	01	16	2d	66												http://cyber
000006e0	74																trust.cmnircot.c
000006f0	65	6d	2f	72	65	70	6f	73	-69	74	6f	72	78	26	63	66	or/repository.cf
00000700	6d.	30	07	06	05	60	83	4a	01	01	30	0e	06	03	55	1d	0`.JOU.
00000710	Of	01	01	ff	04	04	03	02	01	e6	30	81	89	06	03	55	U
00000720	1d	23	04	81	81	30	7f	a1	79	a4	77	30	75	31	0b	30	.#0y.w0u1.0
00000730	09	06	03	55	04	06	13	02	55	53	31	18	30	16	06	03	UUS1.0
00000740	55	04	0a	13	Of	47	54	45	20	43	6f	72	70	6f	72	61	UGTE Corpora
00000750	74	69	6f	6e	31	27	30	25	06	03	55	04	0b	13	1e	47	tion1'0%UG
00000760	54	45	20	43	79	62	65	72	54	72	75	73	74	20	53	6f	TE CyberTrust So
00000770	6c	75	74	69	6f	6e	73	2c	20	49	6e	63	2e	31	23	30	lutions, Inc.1#0
00000780	21	06	03	55	04	03	13	1a	47	54	45	20	43	79	62	65	!UGIE Cybe
00000790	72	54	72	75	73	74	20	47	6C	6f	62	61	6c	20	52	6f	rTrust Global Ro
000007a0	6f	74	82	02	01	a5	30	45	06	03	55	1d	1f	04	3e	30	ot0E0>0
000007b0	3c	30	3a	a0	38	a0	36	86	34	68	74	74	70	3a	2f	2f	<0:.8.6.4http://
000007c0	77	77	77	2e	70	75	62	60	69	63	2d	74	72	75	73	74	www.public-trust
000007d0	2e	63	6f	6d	2f	63	67	69	2d	62	69	6e	2f	43	52	4c	.com/cgi-bin/CRL
000007e0	2f	32	30	31	38	2f	63	64	70	2e	63	72	6c	30	1d	06	/2018/cdp.cr10 +
00000750	~		14	00	20	16	0.4	1.4	1ĉ	16	0.0	10	16	17	5	10	
Re-read		Ċ	Writ	e		G	to.		16	5 byt	tes p	er ro	W		•		Sav Network

Fig.16. ASCII codes that appear in svchost after TrickBot and Emotet viruses are executed

Svchost.exe actually stands for "service host" and it is a file used by most Windows applications. Despite this, it is generally considered a virus, as malware developers are known to add malicious files to the svchost.exe service to avoid detection. In addition, malware authors often create misspelled files such as "svhost.exe" and "svchosl.exe" to avoid detection by observers.

Address	Length	Result	3
0x2b5b23	37	"http://www.digicert.com.my/cps.ht	
0x2b5b58	35	http://crl.entrust.net/2048ca.crl0	
0x2b6234	47	-http://www.public-trust.com/CPS/	
0x2b6327	54	4http://www.public-trust.com/cgi-bi	
0x2b6801	41	'http://www.diginotar.nl/cps/pkiove	
0x2b68df	46	,http://crl.pkioverheid.nl/DomOvLat	
0x2b7990	25	http://www.usertrust.com1	
0x2b7ca0	31	https://secure.comodo.com/CPS0{	
0x2b7ccf	53	2http://crl.comodoca.com/UTN-USE	
0x2b7d09	51	Ohttp://crl.comodo.net/UTN-USERFi	
0x2b7d57	50	/http://crt.comodoca.com/UTNAddT	
0x2b7d95	26	http://ocsp.comodoca.com0-	
0x2baf8f	25	http://www.usertrust.com1	
0x2bb2a0	31	https://secure.comodo.com/CPS0{	1
0x2bb2cf	53	2http://crl.comodoca.com/UTN-USE	1
0x2bb309	51	Ohttp://crl.comodo.net/UTN-USERFi	
0x2bb357	50	/http://crt.comodoca.com/UTNAddT	
0x2bb395	25	http://ocsp.comodoca.com0	
0x2bbf7a	25	http://ocsp.entrust.net03	
0x2bbfa3	36	"http://crl.entrust.net/server1.crl0	
0x2bc5e3	66	?http://crl.microsoft.com/pki/crl/pro	
0x2bc640	59	8http://www.microsoft.com/pki/cert	

Fig.17. Website samples obtained as a result of svchost filtering after infection

We analyzed more than 100 different TrickBot and Emotet samples over 1 year to observe how TrickBot and Emotet banking viruses evolve and discover new behavioral patterns. With Static and Dynamic analysis, we observed the interaction of TrickBot and Emotet on our computer after they were executed We filtered the network traffic through the Wireshark protocol analyzer. We perform this because we define a network communication model and show that this interruption is caused by TrickBot and Emotet related flows in the network. During the process of capturing network traffic while the TrickBot instance is running, initial HTTP traffic is intentionally generated through interaction with popular domains. Such bona fide traffic is generated by visiting university domains, online newspaper, well-known social media websites, and some well-known websites [16].

The .pcap files captured this way also contain regular web traffic, as opposed to containing only TrickBot and Emotet-specific traffic. That's why we run each sample (infected file content) at different times. Sometimes when visiting banking web sites, it may take only a few minutes initially to observe the network traffic, and sometimes more than 2 hours to observe the injection. We captured pcap files containing both TrickBot and Emotet related traffic and also benign traffic. This difference in traffic captured in .pcap files is very useful for training and testing data for our proposed model [17]. The QUIC protocol is often observed after the Emotet virus is executed.

QUIC is an experimental low-latency new internet protocol implemented by Google over UDP. Generally, UDP is used in areas where speed is important and latency is not tolerated.QUIC is a protocol developed by Google. QUIC supports replicated link aggregation and aims to provide secure data transmission with similar features to TLS/SSL. It works in the same structure as the HTTP/2 protocol, but contains features that the HTTP/2 protocol cannot provide [18].

QUIC has taken a new approach to reduce latency by addressing the problems of packet loss and long RTTs (Round-round Times). It manages the former using ubiquitous TCP with UDP (User Datagram Protocol) and then minimizes the number of round trips between the sender and receiver. TCP-based delays on websites sometimes exceed milliseconds and reach up to seconds. This is where Google's new protocol QUIC comes into play. For this reason, Emotet generally prefers to exchange packets over this protocol [19].

III. IMPLEMENTATION

It is very difficult to reveal the signatures of banking viruses, which can be transmitted via e-transmitted during any banking transaction. The methodology we developed here is related to the detection of banking viruses that are harmful in such cases. While creating our classification model, we defined a data set in Excel environment to summarize different characteristics. While creating our dataset, we benefited from traffic flows and also HTTP adresses in sychost.

Our data set was created by examining the protocols. During the dataset collection phase, we collected 41437 samples from different sources including Contagio security block, MalDozer, VirusTotal, AMD datasets.

c:\users\ruveyda\desktop\downloads1232020\37	engine (73/73)	score (51/73)		
Jul indicators (wait)	Paloalto	generic.ml		
virustotal (51/73)	Kaspersky	Trojan-Dropper.Win32.Agent.bjzing		
dos-header (64 bytes)	BitDefender	Trojan.GenericKD.33035731		
dos-stub (wait)	NANO-Antivirus	Trojan.Win32.Inject3.gzidas		
P rich-header (8)	AegisLab	Trojan.Multi.Generic.4!c		
 P file-neader (Feb.2020) p optional header (GUD) 	Avast	Win32:Trojan-gen		
directories (5)	Ad-Aware	Trojan.GenericKD.33035731		
b sections (wait)	Emsisoft	Trojan.Emotet (A)		
E libraries (wait)	F-Secure	Trojan.TR/AD.TrickBot.ivvdp		
imports (wait)	DrWeb	Trojan.Inject3.34263		
- 🔂 exports (n/a)	VIPRE	Trojan.Win32.Generic!BT		
🐉 exceptions (n/a)	TrendMicro	TrojanSpy.Win32.EMOTET.SML.hp		
	McAfee-GW-Edition	RDN/Generic.grp		
ŷ relocations (n/a)	Trapmine	malicious.high.ml.score		
	Sophos	Mal/Encpk-APH		
abc strings (wait)	Webroot	W32.Trojan.Emotet		
	Avira	TR/AD.TrickBot.ivvdp		
,🗐 manifest (asInvoker)	Fortinet	W32/GenKryptik.EEEI!tr		
version (language)	Endgame	malicious (high confidence)		
	Microsoft	Trojan:Win32/Detplock		
	ViRobot	Trojan.Win32.Trickbot.517632		
	ZoneAlarm	Trojan-Dropper.Win32.Agent.bjzinq		
	Ahnl ah-V3	Mahware/Win32 Trojansny (2995963		
M	·	m		

Fig.18. Infected IPs discovered as a result of Virustotal analysis

Due to the analysis performed, 13077 out of 41437 samples were determined as working samples. After data collection from December 2021 to December 2022, we categorized the data according to its functionality whether it was malware and, if so, what type. As a result, we obtained a set containing 13077 data, consisting of a total of 5 categories. Our dataset has 9803 row, including Benign flows, Banking Malware (Emotet, TrickBot). The row number of benign flows are 1795 and it is marked as in the benign software category. They also presented as two different sets which contain 470 and 139 features. In this study, datasets containing 500 extracted features were used. Below, we display the data set, which contain 10 Benign, 10 TrickBot and 10 Emotet samples.

1	A	В	C	D	E	F	G	н
1	No.	Time	Source	Destination	Protocol	Length	Info	Trickbot Emotet Benign
2	1	0	10.0.2.15	192.168.1.1	DNS	67	Standard query 0xc38c A bdns.io	0
3	2	0,672407	10.0.2.15	181.176.160.145	TCP	66	53420 > 449 [SYN] Seq=0 Win=8192 Len=0 MSS=1460 WS=4 SACK_PERM=1	0
4	3	1,953287	192.168.1.1	10.0.2.15	DNS	67	Standard query response 0xc38c Refused A bdns.io	0
5	4	1,953608	10.0.2.15	10.0.2.255	NBNS	92	Name query NB BDNS.IO<00>	0
6	5	2,702395	10.0.2.15	10.0.2.255	NBNS	92	Name query NB BDNS.IO<00>	0
7	6	3,453052	10.0.2.15	10.0.2.255	NBNS	92	Name query NB BDNS.IO<00>	0
8	7	3,686467	10.0.2.15	181.176.160.145	TCP	66	[TCP Retransmission] 53420 > 449 [SYN] Seq=0	0
9	8	9,702922	10.0.2.15	181.176.160.145	TCP	62	[TCP Retransmission] 53420 > 449 [SYN] Seq=0	0
10	9	14,43813	PcsCompu_4c:d5:4c	RealtekU_12:35:02	ARP	42	Who has 10.0.2.2? Tell 10.0.2.15	0
11	10	14,43836	RealtekU_12:35:02	PcsCompu_4c:d5:4c	ARP	60	10.0.2.2 is at 52:54:00:12:35:02	0
12	11	17,85446	10.0.2.15	192.168.1.1	DNS	83	Standard query 0x7e1a A	0
13	12	17,87702	192.168.1.1	10.0.2.15	DNS	289	Standard query response 0x7e1a A ctidi windowsundate.com CNAME au-be-	0
14	13	17,87769	10.0.2.15	23.6.112.113	TCP	66	53421 > 80 [SYN] Seq=0 Win=8192 Len=0 MSS=1460 WS=4 SACK_PERM=1	0
15	14	17,92426	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	60	80 > 53421 [SYN, ACK] Seq=0 Ack=1 Win=65535 Len=0 MSS=1460	0
16	15	17,92431	10.0.2.15	23.6.112.113	TCP	54	53421 > 80 [ACK] Seq=1 Ack=1 Win=64240 Len=0	0
17	16	17,92445	10.0.2.15	23.6.112.113	HTTP	333	GET /msdownload/update/v3/static/trustedr/en/auth rootstl.cab?3e5cf51d1a804d6c HTTP/1.1	0
18	17	17,92469	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	тср	60	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=1 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=0	0
19	18	17,96945	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=1 Ack=280 Win=65535	0
20	19	17,96945	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	тср	86	80 > 53421 [PSH, ACK] Seq=1421 Ack=280	0
21	20	17,96945	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=1453 Ack=280	0
4		EXCELL	۲					1

Fig.19.a.Dataset example Benign flows (except TrickBot and Emotet)

1	A	В	C	D	E	E F G		Н
1	No.	Time	Source	Destination	Protocol	ol Length Info		Trickbot Emotet Benign
22	21	17,9695	10.0.2.15	23.6.112.113	TCP	54	53421 > 80 [ACK] Seq=280 Ack=2873 Win=64240 Len=0	1
23	22	17,9697	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	80 > 53421 [PSH, ACK] Seq=2873 Ack=280 P 86 Win=65535 Len=32 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]		1
24	23	17,9701	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	ТСР	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=2905 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=1420 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	1
25	24	17,9701	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	тср	80 > 53421 [PSH, ACK] Seq=4325 Ack=280 TCP 86 Win=65535 Len=32 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]		1
26	25	17,9702	10.0.2.15	23.6.112.113	TCP	54	53421 > 80 [ACK] Seq=280 Ack=4357 Win=64240 Len=0	1
27	26	17,9725	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=14489 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=1420 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	1
28	27	17,9725	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	тср	118	80 > 53421 [PSH, ACK] Seq=15909 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=64 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	1
29	28	17,9725	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=15973 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=1420 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	1
30	29	17,9725	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	86	80 > 53421 [PSH, ACK] Seq=17393 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=32 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	1
31	30	17,9726	10.0.2.15	23.6.112.113	TCP	54	53421 > 80 [ACK] Seq=280 Ack=17425 Win=64240 Len=0	1
32	31	17,9735	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=17425 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=1420 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	1
		EXCELL	۲					÷ (•)

Fig.19.b.Dataset example for TrickBot

A	В	С	D	E	F	G	Н
No.	Time	Source	Destination	Protocol	Length	Info	Trickbot Emotet Benign
32	17,9735	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	86	80 > 53421 [PSH, ACK] Seq=18845 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=32 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	2
33	17,9735	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=18877 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=1420 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	2
34	17,9735	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	86	80 > 53421 [PSH, ACK] Seq=20297 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=32 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	2
35	17,9735	10.0.2.15	23.6.112.113	TCP	54	53421 > 80 [ACK] Seq=280 Ack=20329 Win=64240 Len=0	2
36	17,9737	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=20329 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=1420 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	2
37	17,9737	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	ТСР	86	80 > 53421 [PSH, ACK] Seq=21749 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=32 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	2
38	17,9737	10.0.2.15	23.6.112.113	TCP	54	53421 > 80 [ACK] Seq=280 Ack=21781 Win=62788 Len=0	2
39	17,9747	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	ТСР	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=21781 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=1420 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	2
40	17,9747	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	ТСР	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=23201 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=1420 [TCP segment of a reassembled PDU]	2
41	17,9747	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	TCP	1474	80 > 53421 [ACK] Seq=24621 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=1420 [TCP segment of a	2
42	17,9747	23.6.112.113	10.0.2.15	ТСР	150	80 > 53421 [PSH, ACK] Seq=26041 Ack=280 Win=65535 Len=96 [TCP segment of a	2
	A No. 32 33 34 35 36 37 38 39 40 41 42	A B R Teme 32 7,9735 33 7,9735 34 7,9735 35 17,9735 36 17,9735 37 2,9737 38 17,9737 39 17,9737 39 17,9737 40 17,9747 41 12,9747 42 12,9747	A B C X Teme Source 32 17,9735 23.6.112.113 33 17,9735 23.6.112.113 34 17,9735 23.6.112.113 35 17,9735 23.6.112.113 36 17,9737 23.6.112.113 37 17,9737 23.6.112.113 38 17,9737 23.6.112.113 39 17,9737 10.0.2.15 39 17,9747 23.6.112.113 40 17,9747 23.6.112.113 41 17,9747 23.6.112.113	A B C D 100 Source Obligation Debination 32 7,9735 C36.112.113 310.02.15 34 7,9735 C36.112.113 310.02.15 34 7,9735 C36.112.113 310.02.15 35 7,9735 C30.012.15 C36.112.113 36 7,9737 C36.112.113 310.02.15 37 7,9737 C36.112.113 310.02.15 38 7,9737 C36.112.113 310.02.15 39 7,9737 C36.112.113 310.02.15 40 7,9747 C36.112.113 310.02.15 41 17,9749 C36.112.113 310.02.15 42 17,974 C36.112.113 310.02.15	A B C D E No Two Source Octavity Periodel Periodel 32 7,975 23.6.112.113 310.0.2.15 7CP 33 7,975 23.6.112.113 310.0.2.15 7CP 34 17,975 23.6.112.113 310.0.2.15 7CP 35 17,975 23.6.112.113 310.0.2.15 7CP 36 17,973 23.6.112.113 310.0.2.15 7CP 37 17,973 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 7CP 38 17,973 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 7CP 39 17,973 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 7CP 39 17,974 23.6.112.113 310.0.2.15 7CP 40 17,974 23.6.112.113 310.0.2.15 7CP 41 17,974 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 7CP	A B C D E F Source Obstainant Potos Ured Ured 32 7,9735 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ 33 7,9735 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ \$ 34 17,9735 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ \$ 35 17,9735 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ \$ 36 17,9737 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ \$ 37 17,9737 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ \$ 38 17,9737 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ \$ 39 17,9737 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ \$ 40 17,9747 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ \$ 41 17,9747 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP \$ \$	A B CC D E F G Source Source Obvisuable Protocol Info Info 32 17,975 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP 86 Win-65555 Ine-31 (CP segment of a reassembled POU) 33 17,975 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP 1474 Win-65555 Ine-31 (CP segment of a reassembled POU) 34 17,975 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP 1474 Win-65555 Ine-31 (CP segment of a reassembled POU) 35 17,975 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP 1474 Win-6553 Ine-31 (CP segment of a reassembled POU) 36 17,973 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP 86 Win-6523 Ine-31 (CP segment of a reassembled POU) 37 17,973 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP 174 86 S3.421 (PS) 4.6.20379 38 17,9737 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP 164 86 S3.421 (PS) 4.6.20379 37 17,9747 23.6.112.113 10.0.2.15 TCP

Fig.19.c.Dataset example for Emotet

The analysis of the dataset using machine-learning classifiers was carried out with the WEKA software which was developed at the University of Waikato. It is the abbreviation for Waikato Environment for Knowledge Analysis. This code, which is a JAVA open source library, contains an algorithm that can be applied to devices with Android operating system [20]. In the classification results made with WEKA, False Positive Ratio (FPR), True Positive Ratio (TPR), Precision, Recall, FMeasure etc. values are given. These values are an important criterion in interpreting the results. TPR, correctly defined data; FPR, misidentified data; Precision is expressed as the ratio of the correct data of a category to the incorrect data of that category and is formulated as follows [20, 21].

$TPR = TP \ FN + TP \tag{(1)}$	1))
	- /	

FPR = FI	P TN+FP	(2))
----------	---------	-----	---

 $Precision = TP TP + FP \tag{3}$

$F - Measure = 2*TP \ 2*TP + FP + FN \tag{4}$

Recall=TP FN+TP(5)

$$Accuracy(\%) = TN + TP TP + FN + FP + TN * 100$$
(6)

The path followed in the study is given in Figure 20. Up to this point, the dataset and WEKA evaluation criterias are included. The next steps are covered in the 'Results and Discussion' section in detail.



Fig.20. Flow chart of study

In this study, in which analyzes were made for the detection of malware, first of all, the data set was first analyzed using machine learning (ML) classifiers such as SMO, Naive Bayes (NB), J48 and Random Tree (RT) algorithms. Then, feature extraction was performed and the results were compared with the same ML classifiers. The effect of different parameters was examined by using the algorithm that gave the best results.

A. Effects of Algorithms

When the literature is examined, it is seen that ML (Machine Learning) algorithms are frequently used in malware detection. In this context, 4 different classifiers, namely SMO, NB (Naive Bayes), J48 and RT (Random Tree), were included in the study. Classification results using the WEKA program are given in Figures 21, 22, 23 and 24. It is seen that the Random Tree classifier is the algorithm that gives the best result with a success rate of 83% in the success evaluation using the accuracy percentage. The lowest success is the SMO algorithm with 60%. Results for J48 and NB were 77% and 64%, respectively. TPR, FPR etc. given in WEKA analysis outputs in Figure 25. The results of the criteria are given. All classifiers, SMS Malware appear to have high accuracy. This result is consistent with the findings from the study [22].

		t	rees.F	Ranc	lomT	ree			
<pre>=== Stratified === Summary ===</pre>	cross-vali	idation ==	-						
Correctly Class	ified Inst	ances	83		83	*			
Kappa statistic			0.60	72					
Mean absolute e	rror		0.27	85					
Root mean squar	ed error		0.35	82					
Relative absolu	te error		61.82	92 \$					
Root relative s	quared err	or	75.52	79 %					
Total Number of	Instances	•	100						
Detailed Ac	curacy By	Class							
	TP Rate	FP Rate	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area	Class
	0,909	0,324	0,845	0,909	0,876	0,611	0,897	0,950	c0
	0,676	0,091	0,793	0,676	0,730	0,611	0,897	0,790	c1
Weighted Avg.	0,830	0,244	0,827	0,830	0,826	0,611	0,897	0,896	
Confusion M	atrix ===								
a b < cl	assified a	15							
60 6 a = c	0								

Fig.21. Random Tree classification algorithm example result in WEKA application

			tr	ees.J	48				
=== Stratified	cross-vali	dation ==	-						
Summary									
Correctly Class	77		77	8					
Kappa statistic			0.48	38					
Mean absolute e	rror		0.31	80.					
Root mean squar	ed error		0.39	21					
Relative absolu	te error		68.99	37 %					
Root relative s	quared err	ror	82.66	09 8					
Iotal Number of	Instances		100						
	_								
=== Detailed Ac	curacy By	Class ===							
	TP Rate	FP Rate	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area	Class
	0,833	0,353	0,821	0,833	0,827	0,484	0,820	0,870	c0
	0,647	0,167	0,667	0,647	0,657	0,484	0,820	0,660	cl
Weighted Avg.	0,770	0,290	0,768	0,770	0,769	0,484	0,820	0,799	
=== Confusion M	atrix ===								
a b con cl	assified a								
55 11 1 2 = 0	0	10							
12 22 b = c	1								

Fig.22. Trees.J48 classification algorithm example result in WEKA application

bayes.NaiveBayes

nces r	64 0.28 0.36 0.6 72.06 120.00	34	64	8			
r	0.28 0.36 0.6 72.06 120.00	34					
r	0.36 0.6 72.06 120.00	27 💲					
r	0.6 72.06 120.00	27 💲					
r	72.06	27 %					
r	120.00						
		79 %					
	100						
lass ===							
FP Rate	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area	Class
0,292	0,682	0,577	0,625	0,287	0,643	0,613	Valuel
0,423	0,607	0,708	0,654	0,287	0,643	0,570	Value2
0,355	0,646	0,640	0,639	0,287	0,643	0,593	
	lass === FP Rate 0,292 0,423 0,355	lass === FF Rate Precision 0,292 0,682 0,423 0,607 0,423 0,646	lass FF Rate Precision Recall 0,292 0,682 0,577 0,423 0,607 0,708 0,355 0,646 0,640	lass === FP Rate Precision Recall F-Measure 0,292 0,682 0,577 0,625 0,423 0,607 0,708 0,654 0,355 0,646 0,640 0,639	lass === FF Rate Precision Recall F-Measure MCC 0,292 0,682 0,577 0,625 0,287 0,423 0,607 0,708 0,654 0,287 0,355 0,646 0,640 0,639 0,287	lass === FF Rate Frecision Recall F-Measure MCC ROC Area 0,292 0,682 0,577 0,625 0,287 0,643 0,423 0,607 0,708 0,654 0,287 0,643 0,355 0,646 0,640 0,639 0,287 0,643	lass === FP Rate Precision Recall F-Measure MCC ROC Area PRC Area 0,292 0,682 0,577 0,625 0,287 0,643 0,613 0,423 0,607 0,708 0,654 0,287 0,643 0,570 0,355 0,646 0,640 0,639 0,287 0,643 0,593

Fig.23. Naive Bayes classification algorithm example result in WEKA application

			fun	ction	is.SM(9			
== Stratified == Summary ===	cross-vali	dation ==	-						
-									
orrectly Class	ified Inst	ances	60		60	\$			
appa statistic			0.19	61					
ean absolute e	rror		0.46	64					
oot mean squar	ed error		0.50	800					
elative absolu	te error		93.35	64 %					
oot relative s	quared err	or	100.16	66 %					
otal Number of	Instances		100						
== Detailed Ac	curacy By	Class ===							
	TP Rate	FP Rate	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	MCC	ROC Area	PRC Area	Class
	0,654	0,458	0,607	0,654	0,630	0,197	0,610	0,614	Valuel
	0,542	0,346	0,591	0,542	0,565	0,197	0,610	0,565	Value2
eighted Avg.	0,600	0,404	0,599	0,600	0,599	0,197	0,610	0,591	
== Confusion M	atrix ===								
a b < cl	assified a	13							
34 18 a = V	aluel								
$22 \ 26 \mid b = V$	alue2								

Fig.24. SMO classification algorithm example result in WEKA application



	CATEGORY	TPR	FPR	PRECISION	RECALL	F-MEASURE	ACCURACY(%)
DANDONA	1	0,909	0,324	0,845	0,909	0,876	
TDEE	2	0,676	0,091	0,793	0,676	0,73	83%
INLL	3	0,83	0,244	0,827	0,83	0,826	
	1	0,833	0,353	0,821	0,833	0,827	
J48	2	0,647	0,167	0,667	0,647	0,657	77%
	3	0,77	0,29	0,768	0,77	0,769	
NAIVE	1	0,577	0,292	0,682	0,577	0,625	
DAVES	2	0,708	0,423	0,607	0,708	0,654	64%
DATES	3	0,64	0,355	0,646	0,64	0,639	
	1	0,654	0,458	0,607	0,654	0,63	
SMO	2	0,542	0,346	0,591	0,542	0,565	60%
	3	0,6	0,404	0,599	0,6	0,599	

Fig.26. Classification optimization results from the WEKA

In Figure.26, the data numbers classified according to the categories are given. Category 1 (Benign), Category 2 (TrickBot), Category 3 (Emotet) are expressed as 1, 2, 3, respectively. Highest result (Random Tree- 83% vs. J48 - 77%), compared to the number of benign software detected in J48 (1459) is higher than that found in Random Tree (1379). Sum of numbers for each category data is 10607 for a correctly classified Random Tree. In J48, the correct classification result in all categories is as follows: 10181. In short, although the success of detecting benign software in J48 was 77% (83% for Random Tree), considering the overall percentage of accuracy, Random Tree appears to be a better classifier under these categories.

B. Feature Extraction Effect

Feature reduction is one of the key pieces of work in malware detection. In this study, 116 features with the lowest effect on the ranking were removed and reconstructed. We count 470 feature for the analysis. The results obtained for the RT, NB, J48 and SMO classifiers, compared with the results before feature extraction (Figure 27).



In Figure 27, the change in accuracy for the Random Tree classifier after feature extraction was minimal. The greatest increase in the accuracy of the results was observed for NB. Contrary to the others, there is a small decrease in J48. In the analysis made so far, the success of different classifiers and the effect of feature extraction in malware detection have been examined. In the comparison, as seen in Figure 25, the malware was tagged with the best Random Tree classifier. Based on this achievement, analyzes were made for the Random Tree classifier and 354 features in the next parts of the study.

C. Tree Effect Criteria to be Developed

According to the findings of the study, Random Tree is the best performing classifier for detecting banking malicious software (TrickBot and Emotet). Among other classifiers, new analyzes were made by changing the number based on this information.

Random forest algorithm in Random Tree algorithm is one of the supervised classification algorithms. It is used in both regression and classification problems. The algorithm aims to increase the classification value during the classification process by producing more than one decision tree. Random forest algorithm is the process of choosing the highest score among many decision trees that work independently of each other. As the number of trees (our data) increases, our rate of obtaining a precise result increases [23]. The main difference between the decision tree algorithm and the random forest algorithm is that the process of finding the root node and splitting the nodes is random. The random forest algorithm reduces the problem of over-learning if you have enough trees. It requires little data preparation. It requires little data preparation. It requires little data preparation. The aim is to observe in the algorithm with the best classification, different parameters are tried to determine the accuracy and reach the final result.



Fig.28. Tree Effect Criteria to be Developed

IV. CONCLUSION

The information age that we live in has brought along some problems as well as providing great convenience for humanity. As the access to information, technology and internet became easier, malicious use of internet also has become a significant problem. In parallel with the increase in these threats, which pose a great danger to information security, prevention and detection activities in these areas have also accelerated. In the field of information security, malware detection studies, which are also frequently encountered in the academic world, are conducted to identify threats developed with malicious intent. In this study, we develop a technique by using ML classifiers to determine the banking trojan infection.

The percentage of success in malware detection studies is associated with accurate detection of malwares. Tagging good software as malicious software can cost money and time. However, since labeling malware as benign will cause even greater damage. In this context, it has been seen that tagging malware correctly has improved the reliability of our study. Also in addition to the effect of feature extraction, we also study the classifier performance. According to the findings of these two phases, the best classification success (before and after feature extraction) belongs to Random Tree algorithm for TrickBot and Emotet detection. The change in the number of trees has provided the desired success in malware detection.

In our analysis, we observe that Random Tree and J48 give better results compared to other detection techniques. Despite higher flow detection with J48, Random Tree performed better overall. We obtained 83% Our dataset, which we ran in the Weka program, yielded the following results: Random Tree 83%, J48 77%, Naive Bayes 64% and SMO 60%.

In short, in this age where information is under threat, malware detection and prevention is of great importance. Detection of banking malicious software is one of the shining areas for the security of banking customers. This study has enriched the literature in terms of examining this correct labeling. After evaluating the classifier performance and feature extraction efficiency, Random Tree gives best results in terms of classification of benign TrickBot and Emotet traffic flows. Figure 28 examines the effect of the number of trees to be developed for the Random Tree classifier. For Benign, Emotet and TrickBot an increase in n indicates the impact on malware detection.

It is concluded that for malware detection, the Random Tree classifier determines the best discrimination.

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BIOGRAPHIES

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A Novel Approach to Improve the Performance of the Database Storing Big Data with Time Information

Murat Tasyurek

Abstract— Big data is defined as data sets that are too large and/or complex to be processed by classical data processing methods. Big data analysis is essential because it enables more competent business movements, more efficient operations, and higher profits by using the data of institutions and organizations. However, large data sets are difficult to analyze because they are produced quickly, require large storage areas in computer systems, and the diversity of their data. In this study, a new approach using the denormalization method is proposed to accelerate the response time of the database in database systems where large volumes of data containing historical information are stored. Denormalization is defined as the process of adding rows or columns that are not needed to increase the reading performance of the database to the database system that has been normalized. In the proposed approach in this study, a largevolume data set consisting of real spatial data belonging to Kayseri Metropolitan Municipality (KBB), containing temporal information and having approximately 96,000,000 row records, was used. In the proposed approach, the response time of the query is accelerated by recording the time information as numbers to increase the query performance of large volumes of data recorded in date format due to the temporal query process. The performance of the proposed method is compared with the performance of the normalization method using actual data on Microsoft SQL Server and Oracle database systems. The method proposed in the experimental evaluations shows that it works approximately eight times faster. In addition, the experimental results showed that the proposed method improves query performance more than the normalization-based method as the data size increases.

Index Terms— Database performance, Denormalization, Large valume data, Temporal query.

I. INTRODUCTION

WITH THE widespread use of technology, data with different attributes are formed in many application areas [1]. For instance, data sent by smartphones and sensors, surveys, publicly shared comments (images, videos) on

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websites are data with different attributes [2]. If data is produced quickly, needs large storage areas, or consists of data with various features, it shows big data characteristics [3]. Big data is defined as data sets that are too large and/or complex to be processed by classical data processing methods [4]. Big data is usually stored in databases and analyzed using software specifically designed to handle large and complex data sets [5]. Big data analysis is vital because it enables more competent business movements, more efficient operations, and higher profits by using the data of institutions and organizations [6]. However, large data sets are difficult to analyze because they are produced quickly, require large storage areas in computer systems, and the diversity of their data [7].

The data production rate, size (volume), and diversity of big data do not mean anything on their own [8]. For the data set to be useful or usable, it must be transformed into information using various techniques. To analyze the data, it must be saved in a file or database system in a specific format. Database systems are widely used because they are designed to easily organize, store and retrieve large amounts of data [9]. The normalization method known as relational database theory is used in database design [10]. Normalization, also known as parsing, parses a table consisting of many columns and rows into subsets with fewer rows and columns to avoid duplication [11]. However, the increase in the number of records and tables in the database increases the response time of the database. To accelerate the response time of the database system to the queries, the process of accelerating the response time of the database by adding rows or columns that are not needed after the normalization process in the database design is defined as denormalization [12, 13]. In this study, a new denormalization-based method was proposed to accelerate the analysis of the data stored in the relational database, which consists of actual spatial data belonging to the KBB, contains time information, approximately 96,000,000 row records. In this study, the performance of the proposed novel approach is compared with the performance of the normalization-based method by storing the actual data in Oracle and MS SQL database systems.

A. Contributions

• In this study, a new approach is proposed to improve the performance of database querying in which large

volumes of data containing time information are stored.

• The performance of the proposed approach is compared on MS SQL and Oracle database systems using actual data from KBB.

B. Scope and Outline

• The main purpose of this study is to develop a new query technique for large databases containing space and time information with fast growth and large volume. For this reason, examining other features such as the variety that make up big data is out of the scope of this study.

In the following parts of this study, a literature review is presented, problems and approaches are introduced, the results of the experiments are discussed, and the results are shared.

II. RELATED WORKS

A database is an organized system of structured information and/or data stored digitally (electronically) in computer systems [14]. Database systems are widely used because they make it easy to access, manage, modify, update, control, and organize data [15]. To use these features of the database system and to work quickly, table designs must be created in a certain order. To ensure data integrity in the database system, dividing the data into sub-tables and to save them relationally is defined as normalization. However, as the number of tables and data increases in database systems, the response times of the queries used to extract information from the database get longer. To speed up the search process in database systems, indexing the searched columns using one of the indexing methods provided by the relevant database system is a widely used technique [16, 17]. However, since the indexing process requires a lot of storage space in computer systems, it cannot be used in cases where the storage space is limited. On the other hand, Online Analytical Processing (OLAP) method is an additional software technology that provides information by combining, grouping, or combining the attributes in databases and is used for rapid extraction of information from database systems [18, 19]. The denormalization method, known as accelerating the response time of the database by adding rows or columns that are not needed in the database system, is used instead of the OLAP system, which requires additional costs [20]. The denormalization method is a widely used technique to improve the performance of the database system [21-24]. On the other hand, NoSQL database systems, which have flexible schemas for modern applications and are specially designed for certain data models, have become widespread due to their practical use, ease of development, and performance [25, 26]. NoSQL databases use different data models, including graph, key-value, document, in-memory search [27]. On the other hand, NoSQL databases are designed for various data access patterns involving low latency applications [28, 29]. For this reason, NoSQL database

systems are not preferred in cases where low latency is important.

In addition, many devices that make up the transportation system are constantly generating data. For this reason, the data obtained from the devices used in the transportation system is considered big data. Special solutions need to be developed to overcome the problems running in the transport system. For example, Vela et al. [30] focused on the problem of designing the NoSQL document database with which to manage the information concerning accessible routes obtained by means of crowdsourcing techniques. Asaithambi et al. [31] proposed the microservice oriented big data architecture incorporating data processing techniques, like predictive modelling for achieving smart transportation and analytics microservices required towards smart cities. Gonzalez et al. [32 investigated into the testing of transactional services in NoSQL databases in order to test and analyses the data consistency by taking into account the characteristics of NoSQL databases for efficiency and velocity.

In this study, a new approach is proposed to overcome the problem of low latency in NoSQL database systems and to additional costs of OLAP systems, and to improve the datebased filtering and sorting performance of large volumes of spatial data containing time information.

III. APPROACHES

A. Basic Problem

The problem arose in keeping and analyzing the location information of the movements of the vehicles operating in the KBB public transportation system. In the KBB public transportation fare collection system, payments are made by considering the number of kilometers traveled by the vehicles along the route. However, traffic density, etc. Due to the reasons, the start and end times of the flights do not fully comply with the planned departure times. On the other hand, some of the delays during the voyage hours are caused by errors or omissions caused by the driver. Whatever the reason, it is vital to detect and solve the problem since the delays in the public transportation system affect the citizens using this system. To analyze a voyage in the public transport system, the locations sent by the vehicle before the start time of the journey, the locations sent during the trip, and the location information sent after the end time of the voyage can be determined together. To carry out this analysis, the location information (latitude and longitude), line information, speed, vehicle side number, and time information sent by the vehicles working in the public transportation system were recorded in the database system used by the KBB using the normalization method. In Fig. 1, the voyage start time, voyage duration, number of passengers carried, end time, and location information sent along the route of a vehicle with side number 387 operating on route 563 belonging to the KBB transportation system are presented on the map. The icons shown in Fig. 1 represent the following meanings:


Fig.1. Display of vehicle location information on the map

- 🦃 : The map equivalent of the GPS position sent by the transportation vehicle
- 💙: Bus station
- —: Line route
- Δ : Direction of line route

When the map layer and icons presented in Fig. 1 are examined in detail, it is seen that the bus with side number 387 is on the route of line 563. However, when it is desired to explore the accuracy and details of the voyage start and end times of the relevant vehicle, it is necessary to examine the locations it has sent before the route starts, instead of only the locations it sends along the route. In this case, the locations sent by the vehicle according to the vehicle side number and time information can be queried from the database system, and information about the vehicle can be obtained as a result of examining the relevant records on the map.

B. Normalization Based Approach

In database systems, the normalization process is defined as parsing a table with too many rows and columns into subsets of fewer rows and columns to eliminate repetitions [33, 34]. The of database table structure the called VEHICLE LOCATION, which is created as a result of the Normalization process for the bus side number, line number, time information up to the second detail, point location information consisting of latitude and longitude values, the number of passengers in the vehicle and the speed information of the vehicle sent by the vehicles belonging to the KBB public transportation system. It is presented in Table I.

TABLE I Information of VEHICLE_LOCATION Table

	Information of VERICLE_LO	CATION Table
Column	Column description	Data type
name		
Vehicle	Side number to distinguish	Integer
ID	vehicles from each other	
Douto ID	Number of the route where	Integra
Koute ID	the vehicle is running	Integer
Date of	Sending time of GPS	Data tima
data	location information	Date tille
Logation	Point position of the vehicle	Coometry (neint)
Location	(latitude and longitude)	Geometry (point)
Number of	Total number of passengers	Integra
Passengers	in the vehicle	Integer

VEHICLE_LOCATION table presented in Table I is a database table where the information sent instantly by all vehicles working in the public transportation system is stored. Queries run for analysis operations work on this table. For the voyage information presented in Fig. 1, the query sentences for MS SQL and Oracle database systems, which show all the information sent by the vehicle 10 minutes before and 10 minutes after the voyage, in chronological order and run in the table created with the normalization process, are shown in Fig. 2 (a) and 2 (b), respectively. In the query shown in Fig. 2 (a) and 2 (b), since the text expression to date field conversion functions of MS SQL and Oracle database systems and the parameters taken by the functions are different, the results of the queries are the same, but the query sentences differ from each other. In the MS SQL database system, the convert function is used to convert the text expression to date format, and the to date function is used in the Oracle database system [35]. In the MS SQL database system, the expression 120 in the convert function means "yyyy-MM-dd hh:mm:ss".

```
SELECT * FROM VEHICLE LOCATION
                                                    SELECT * FROM VEHICLE LOCATION
WHERE VehicleID=387
                                                    WHERE VehicleID=387
AND (DateOfData BETWEEN
                                                    AND (DateOfData BETWEEN
                                                         TO DATE (DATETIME, '31.12.2020 13:14:09',
    CONVERT (DATETIME, '2020-12-31 13:14:09',
    120)
                                                         'DD.MM.YYYY HH24:MI.SS')
                                                        AND
    AND
                                                         TO DATE (DATETIME, '31.12.2020 14:12:44',
    CONVERT (DATETIME, '2020-12-31 14:12:44',
                                                         'DD.MM.YYYY HH24:MI.SS')
    120)
                                                    1
1
                                                    order by DateOfData
order by DateOfData
                                                                     (b) Oracle temporal query
                (a) MS SQL temporal query
```

Fig.2. Temporal query

In the queries shown in Fig. 2 (a) and 2 (b), "yyyy" includes year information, "MM" shows month information, "dd" shows day information, "hh" - "HH24" show hour information, "mm" - "MI" show minute information, and "ss" shows seconds.

Although an index was created for the Vehicle ID and date fields of the VEHICLE_LOCATION table, which was created as a result of the normalization process in MS SQL and Oracle database systems, the running time of the queries presented in Fig. 2 (a) and 2 (b), which were run for the analysis of the public transport system, did not decrease at the desired level. Therefore, a novel approach has been proposed to speed up the running time of the query run with the normalization method and, therefore, to reduce the response time of the queries run for public transport system analysis operations.

C. Proposed Novel Approach

Accelerating the response time of the database by adding rows or columns that are not needed to a database system that has been normalized is defined as denormalization [22, 23]. As a result of the normalization processes, the database table described in detail in Table I was created, and the queries presented in Fig. 2 (a) and 2 (b) were run on this table. However, since the response time of the queries is very long, the analysis process takes longer. To overcome this problem, a new column of digit data type named Date Number has been added to the database table presented in Table I as part of the denormalization process. In the new column called Date_Number, it is suggested to keep the numerical equivalent of the date-time data format in the Date field. To convert date fields to numeric values, the functions are shown in Fig. 3 (a) and 3 (b) created for MS SQL and Oracle databases systems, respectively.

When only new record is added а to VEHICLE LOCATION table, the date field is converted to numeric values using these functions and recorded in the Date Number field. The numeric value of the date field in the format YYMMDDHH24MISS was created by only two digits of the year information YY, the month information MM, the day information DD, the hour information HH24, the minute information MI and the second information SS. The query of the denormalization-based method is presented in Fig. 4.

The query presented in Fig. 4 shows the query format shown in Fig. 2 (a) and 2 (b) converted to MS SQL and Oracle databases after denormalization. In the query shown in Fig. 4, the Date_Number field created after the denormalization process is used instead of the date field. Filtering and sorting are done according to the Date_Number field, a number field, instead of a date field. As in the normalization method, an index is created for the Date_Number field in the denormalization-based method.

```
CREATE OR ALTER FUNCTION [dbo]. [FN DATE AS NUMBER] (%Time DATETIME)
                                                                                    create or replace function FN DATE AS NUMBER (P DATE DATE ) RETURN NUMBER
Returns bigint
                                                                                     15
AS
BEGIN
                                                                                    resultNumber NUMBER :
                                                                                    number of Time varchar2(100) :='';
    Declare Snumber of Time varchar(20)
                                                                                    BEGIN
    Declare BregultNumber bigint.
    REGIN
                                                                                        number of Time := to_char(F DATE, 'TT')))to_char(F DATE, 'MM'))))
        SET Hnumber of Time = convert(varchar, #Time, 12) + convert(
                                                                                        to_char(P_DATE, 'DD')))to_char(P_DATE, 'HH24')))to_char(P_DATE, 'HD')
        varchar, Onumber of Time, [])
                                                                                        ) [] to_char (F DATE, '00');
        SET Snumber of Time=BEPLACE (Snumber of Time, ':', '')
        SET #resultNumber = convert(higint, #number of Time)
                                                                                        resultNumber :=to_number(number_of_Time);
    END.
    return @resultNumber
                                                                                        RETURN cemultNumber r
END
```

(a) Function to convert MS SQL date format to numeric value

(b) Function to convert Oracle date format to numeric value

Fig.3. Function to convert date format to numeric value



Fig. 4. Query of the proposed method

IV. EXPERIMENTAL EVALUATIONS

This study was carried out using the actual data of the vehicles working in the KBB public transportation system for December 2020. In Table II, the number of records of the entire data sets obtained from the KBB and the storage areas occupied by this data. In the KBB public transportation system, the communes sent by the vehicles for a month consist of 96,000,000 data sets. These data, which are sent instantly by hundreds of vehicles on a per-second basis, show big data characteristics because they are sent continuously and take up a lot of memory. Furthermore, since there is latitude and longitude information in the incoming data and it is known at which point the vehicle is on the geography, this data is also spatial data. Also, the data set is temporal since a vehicle sends data continuously at certain time intervals. Thus, the data set stores the historical data of the vehicles together with the time information.

TABLE II DATA SETS

Sequence	Record Count	Size (megabyte)
1	100.000	551
2	250,000	1,380
3	500,000	2,765
4	1,000,000	5,546
5	2,000,000	11,136
6	3,000,000	16,815
7	4,000,000	22,622
8	5,000,000	28,595
9	10,000,000	57,647
10	15,000,000	87,508
11	20,000,000	118,428
12	25,000,000	150,640
13	30,000,000	184,383
14	40,000,000	250,638
15	50,000,000	320,316
16	60,000,000	393,989
17	70,000,000	472,260
18	80,000,000	555,784
19	90,000,000	645,265
20	96,000,000	712 803

Experimental evaluations sought answers to the following questions:

- What are the runtimes of normalization based and recommended approaches on incremental data set in MS SQL database?
- What are the runtimes of normalization based and recommended approaches on incremental data set in Oracle database?

To evaluate the performance of the methods in the experimental evaluations, the queries detailed in Fig. 2 (a), 2 (b) and 4 were run for 20 different vehicles operating in the KBB public transport system, and the average times were examined as the working time the methods. The experiments in this study were carried out on a desktop computer with Intel i7 11700 2.5GHz (8 Core), 32 GB Ram, 4 GB QUADRO graphics card, 2 TB SATA DISK, and Windows 10 Pro operating system installed.

A. Running Times of Methods in MS SQL Database System

In this experiment, the normalization and the result of the proposed method were examined in the MS SQL database system using the data sets detailed in Table II. In Table III, the working times of the methods are presented in seconds, and in Fig. 5, the operational times of the methods are examined in minutes. As the number of records in the data set increases, the working time of the methods increases.

KUN I	INES OF METHODS IN MS S	QL DATABASE STSTEM
Sequence	Normalization Based	Proposed Method
ID	Method (millisecond)	(millisecond)
1	3	3
2	5	4
3	12	10
4	28	15
5	64	26
6	90	32
7	161	64
8	254	118
9	584	240
10	874	270
11	1,175	310
12	1,574	340
13	1,807	390
14	2,400	430
15	3,101	466
16	3,751	524
17	4,400	572
18	5,027	604
19	5,913	722
20	6,215	809

TABLE III RUN TIMES OF METHODS IN MS SQL DATABASE SYSTEM

When Table III and Fig. 5 are examined in detail, there is almost no difference between normalization and denormalization methods up to 1,000,000 data sets. However, in cases where the data set has more than 10,000,000 rows of records, the response time of the query run with the normalization method exceeds a second. If the size of the data set is 96,000,000, the response time of the normalizationbased method is over 6 seconds, which is a very long time for a system that works in real-time and is analyzed instantly. On the other hand, as the size of the data set increases, the working time of the normalization-based method increases much more than the proposed method. Although the proposed method's performance increases as the data set's size increases, a linear increase cannot be observed. The proposed method can run analysis queries in a very short time frame, such as 0.8 seconds, even in the worst case where the data set has

96,000,000 records. When the queries shown in Fig. 2 (a) and Fig. 4 are examined in detail, not only filtering but also sorting is performed. In the denormalization-based method, although it is not needed in the database design, the Date_Number column is added. The data in the Date column is converted to number format with the function presented in Fig. 3 (a). This column, which was added as part of the denormalization method, accelerated the performance of the database by approximately eight times for 96,000,000 data sets.

denormalization-based method. In the Oracle database system, although the performance of the proposed denormalizationbased method increases as the size of the data set increases, a linear increase cannot be observed. The proposed method can run analysis queries in a very short time frame, such as 0.7 seconds, even in the worst case where the data set has 96,000,000 records. In the Oracle database system, the Date_Number column added within the scope of the denormalization method accelerated the performance of the



Fig. 5. Run times of methods in MS SQL database system

B. Running Times of Methods in Oracle Database System

In this experiment, the normalization and the result of the proposed denormalization-based method were examined in the Oracle database system using the data sets detailed in Table II. In Table IV, the working times of the methods are presented in seconds, and in Fig. 6, the working times of the methods are examined in minutes. As in the MS SQL database system, the operating times of the methods increase as the number of records in the data set increases in the Oracle database system. Similar to the MS SQL database system, when Table IV and Fig. 6 are examined in detail, there is almost no difference between normalization and denormalization methods up to 1,000,000 data sets. However, unlike the MS SQL database system, the response time of the query executed with the normalization method exceeds a second when the data set has over 20,000,000 rows of records. If the data set size is 96,000,000, the response time of the normalization-based method is over 5 seconds, which is a very long time for a system that works in real-time and is analyzed instantly. Similar to the experiments performed in the MS SQL database system, as the data set's size increases, the normalizationbased method's running time increases much more than the

database to 96,000,000 data sets, approximately eight times as in the MS SQL database system.

	TABLE IV							
RUN TIMES OF METHODS IN ORACLE DATABASE SYSTEM								
Sequence	Normalization Based	Proposed Method						
ID	Method (millisecond)	(millisecond)						
1	2	2						
2	4	3						
3	9	8						
4	24	14						
5	55	21						
6	80	31						
7	150	39						
8	270	52						
9	500	60						
10	810	95						
11	1,030	120						
12	1,300	150						
13	1,600	190						
14	2,150	250						
15	2,700	310						
16	3,300	380						
17	3,800	430						
18	4,300	490						
19	4,980	588						
20	5,311	658						



C. Application

The application developed within the scope of this study is actively used by the KBB. It is used for route violation, stop violation, and control of the journey time of the lines operating in the public transportation system. Thanks to the proposed application, the list of lines that were violated is automatically presented, and by clicking the detail button, how the violation was made is displayed on the map thanks to the proposed application. Before the proposed practice was used, the detection of violations was only detected upon complaint. Thanks to the application, the detection of violations can be viewed instantly. The screenshot of the application used is presented in Fig. 7 and Fig. 8 in the Appendix part. Fig. 7 shows the list of voyages operating according to important criteria such as line name, number, start time, and end time. Fig. 8 presents the list of violating lines. In Fig. 8, the word GI indicates route violation, the word DI indicates to stop the violation, and the word HD indicates the line number changes while the voyage continues.

V. CONCLUSION

Big data systems can be used in transportation, banking, communication, media, entertainment, healthcare, education, manufacturing, etc. It is widely used in many different fields. Due to big data as the oil, the low latency of NoSQL database systems and the additional cost of data stored in relational database systems, and showing big data characteristics to OLAP systems are big problems. This study proposes a new approach to improve date-based filtering and sorting performance in relational database systems where large volumes of spatial data containing time information are stored. The performance of the proposed method is examined using actual data in MS SQL and Oracle database systems. Experimental evaluations Since normalization and denormalization-based methods work very closely in data sets with less than 1,000,000 record numbers. There is no need for a denormalization-based approach in such data sets. However, as the amount of data in the data set increases, the working time of the normalization-based method increases more than the denormalization-based method. When the data set with 96,000,000 records is examined, the denormalization-based method responded eight times faster than the normalizationbased method, since it performs both filtering and sorting operations numerically. Experimental evaluations have shown that as the number of records in the data set increases, the denormalization-based method works much faster than the normalization-based method.

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We would like to thank the KBB for sharing large volumes of spatial data containing real-time information of the vehicles operating in the public transportation system used within the scope of this study. In addition, this study was supported by the Scientific Research Projects Coordination Unit of Kayseri University within the scope of project #FHD-2021-1043.

APPENDIX

(YP)	DRI										Memoba Sh.M	unat tegenek in	Ranywiek
Ser	nh Qinn	77											
R0/ 5	te Ne) 13-15 TENN cord Routes	UZ CAD ANA	NULTITALL	RRAYA > CU	But ha Facanger Coast 30 Vovenant Chel Seco	33.05.2021 37.05.2021		a 00:00	ovel Time 07.95-3023	π	7159		
	969-111-15 9 4	NULL CALL AND	wort day		Handvet Antelligi Sa	epit		* Rhow Origoing	Expeditions	Show rout	e vislotian		
	white web	des (-Us Gear			
ate afai	cel Akcar No. 100	+ koje gita											
	Order	Route No	Bus Ro	Vechicle No	Line Route	Violations	Route Time	Kursber of Passengers Carried	Start Time	EndTime	Boute 10	Distance	De
10	*	562	3	100005657	SUS IS TEMMUE CKD. AMAYORT (TABLARAYA 		28	4	31,05,2021 10:06:58	51.65.2021 10:31.16	STREET AND	10266	Cetu
9	ai -	965 ().	4	2820105437	Salo 16 TEXANDEL CAD. ANALYSIST. (CENTRAL WATER - THE CARAVAR)		33	3	31.05.2021 10:35.13	31.08.2021 11:06:58	639401043	12626	Deta
0	£	963	1	2820165407	SGS-15 TEMMUZ CKD, ANMTURT (TABLAKAYA # (UNIMURITET)		21	-41	31.05.2021 11.35.36	33.05.2021 12:08:02	839463082	11282	- Gette
0	<u>*</u>	965	1	2830105487	105-71 TEMPLIC CHIL WILWART		34	39	17.05.2021 12.11.53	31.09.2021 12:26:23	639481539	12669	() where
0	5	943	1	3830105437	SUS-IS TEMALIZ CKD. ANWIGHT (TABLARAM) IN (LIMHORNET)		31	at .	31.05.2021 13:08.23	51.65.2021 13/36.36	633484563	10209	Cete
9	4	\$63	1	1120105457	sais to those of the location of the second se		38	.53	13:43:38	91 08:2021 14:19:38	933485048	taree.	Oela
0	ž.	363	1	2820145457	SGS-15 TEMMUE CKIL AWAYURT (TABLAKAYA — CUMMURINET)		31	n	31.05.2021 1.6.36.33	31.05.2021 19:02.63	839465022	19562	Rela
0	8	563	1	2520105457	SUS-19 TEMPINE CAD ANNUAT		12	19	31,05,2001 1006,20	31,05,2021	6,95496428	1,206.9	046

Fig. 7. Search Screen Used by KBB

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Fig. 8. List of Violated Routes Used by KBB

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BIOGRAPHIES



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Actionable Data Visualization for Air Quality Data in the Istanbul Location

Damla Mengüş and Bihter Daş

Abstract— Air pollution is increasing day by day due to the increasing population, urbanization, and industrial development. In our country, the amounts of pollutants in the air are recorded every day at different points. These recorded data continue to be collected in an increasing amount day by day. Information overload, which renders the data meaningless, complicates the interpretation of these data. One of the ways to solve this problem is to visualize curves and trends in measured pollution concentrations over time. In this study, using the data provided by the continuous monitoring center of the Turkey Ministry of Environment, Urbanization and Climate Change, visualization of different pollutants in the air was provided. Scatter plots, line scatter plots, and bar plots were used as data visualization. Data visualization from the concentration profiles displayed.

Index Terms— Data visualization, air pollution, air quality assessment, visual analytics

I. INTRODUCTION

 ${
m A}$ IR POLLUTION is defined as the presence of foreign substances above normal, which should not be present in the air, which adversely affect human health and environmental balance. There are many factors to air pollution, especially the population, urbanization, and increasing industrial developments [1-3]. Carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen dioxide (NO2), sulfur dioxide (SO2), ozone (O3), particulate matter (PM), and NOx, which is a combination of nitric oxide and nitrogen dioxide, are the leading gases that cause air pollution[4-6]. Particulate matter PM10 and PM2.5 are one of the most important pollutants affecting human health. Since it is very small in size, it passes through our respiratory system very easily and penetrates our lungs. May cause cancer if inhaled for a long time. As other pollutants can easily penetrate the lungs, all of them are very dangerous for human health [7-9]. Evaluation of air quality is made according to the air quality index. This index is a measure used to express air quality.

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As the measured value gets larger, it is understood that the air starts to have negative effects on human health. Air quality index 0-50 range is good, 51-100 range is medium, 101-150 range is sensitive, 151-200 range is unhealthy, 201-300 range is bad, 301-500 range is dangerous. There is a high probability of experiencing health problems with a value of 151 and above, and it is not necessary to go to the open area during these times [10,11].

In this study, data visualization is carried out to observe the air quality by using the air pollutant data of the Basaksehir district of Istanbul city. There are continuous monitoring centers (SIMs) at 39 different points in Istanbul. It is very suitable for monitoring the air quality in different parts of the city and making inferences from the data. The differences in the districts of Istanbul, located in the middle or by the sea, provide better observation with visualization tools. Figure 1 shows the location of the Başakşehir district.



Fig.1. The location of the Basaksehir

A. Contributions of the paper

The main contributions of the study are listed below.

- *1)* Air quality indices (AQI) and environmental data are combined with data visualization.
- 2) A practical experiment on which visualization tools would be appropriate for what type of data is provided.
- 3) Visualization methods help non-experts to interpret big data.

The rest of the article is organized as follows. The methods used are mentioned in Chapter 2. In Chapter 3, the application steps and the data used are mentioned. In Chapter 4, the results of the study are mentioned. In section 5, inferences are made.

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B. Related works

There are many areas in the literature where data visualization is used. In most places with big data, visualization is used to understand the data[12,13]. Bachechi et al. used information visualization techniques to analyze urban traffic data and the effect of traffic emissions on urban air quality. Traffic data statistics for months or years provided a clear understanding of the similarities and differences between days[14]. Von Bromssen et al. studied the acidification of the river by using Swedish riverbank data during 1988-2017. They have tried to summarize complex information over nearly thirty years of data and have used data visualization while doing this [15]. Huang et al. Shenzhen, a mega-city in China, has made efforts to promote the transition to green transport by enforcing license plate restrictions. However, it is unclear whether the restrictions improve urban air quality. They have studied the effect of diesel vehicles on air pollution. Thanks to the data visualization tools used in the study, the result was easily achieved [16]. Pérez-Campuzano et al. took 30 years of data from 18 different US passenger airlines and made visualization on these data in their study. As a result of the study, it was revealed how much the passenger airline of the USA was affected during the Covid-19 period [17]. In the study of Prasad et al., existing data visualization methods have been enhanced by spectral modeling to overcome the problem of cluster bias on non-CS datasets, which efficiently recognizes the spectral features of non-CS datasets and cluster patterns[18]. New visualization techniques are used not only for environmental data, but also for other types of data such as satellite information, X-ray spectra processing or big data [19-22]. For this purpose, a software platform was developed with an integration in the form of two measurement stations and satellite information in a unified view to process publicly available data from various sources. In [23], authors superposed health risk information from 9 different Air Quality Indices (AQIs) on different kinds of graphs. They visualizated tha data, which is obtained from two monitoring stations located in regions, Ghent and Vielsalm in Belgian Environment Agency.

II. BACKGROUND

In this part of the study, general information about data visualization methods and incomplete data completion techniques is given. The process of making large and complex data meaningful and understandable with certain graphics is called data visualization. Three different types of charts were used in this study:

Point scatter plot: Point scatter plot is a data visualization method created using two different numerical data. It allows us to directly see the connection between these two numerical values. We can visualize not only two values, but many values at the same time through different colors or sizes. Thus, complex data becomes more understandable thanks to visualization.

Line scatter plot: Line scatter plot gives similar output when used in the same way as point scatter plot. However, the line scatter plot is easier to read than the point scatter plot in some cases. Breakpoints that are not clearly visible in the point scatter plot can be observed better with the line scatter plot. For this reason, data visualization with line scatter plot may be more advantageous depending on the usage area.

Bar plot: It provides the opportunity to visualize data in categories with bar plot. Data can be displayed in multiple groups in a single image. This provides an advantage for the bar plot.

One of the other problems when working with data is the problem of missing data. Accurate inference or visualization cannot be made due to missing data. In such cases, there are various algorithms that can be used to complete the missing data. Two different methods were used for this study. Based on the results, it was decided that the most appropriate method for this study was to complete the missing data with the mean technique.

Complete missing data with k-nn technique: K-nearest neighbor (KNN) is a kind of algorithm used for classification and regression in supervised learning. Training and testing are pretty much the same. It is not an ideal algorithm to complete missing values in large datasets. *Complete missing data with mean technique:* In this method, the missing data part is filled by taking the average of the other data in the area where the missing data is located. Data range is very important for using this method. Using this method in data sets with very high data range increases the error rate.

III. METHODOLOGY AND IMPLEMENTATION

In this study, firstly annual data were collected and then missing data was completed with k-nn and average algorithms. Then, different visualization methods were applied to the data. Point scatter plot, line scatter plot and bar plot were used on the data, respectively. The mean technique was used as the missing data completion algorithm in the study because the data range is low, using mean in such data provides better performance. The flowchart showing the application steps is shown in Figure 2.



Fig. 2. The flowchart of the study

A. Data description

In this study, the data provided by the continuous monitoring center of the Turkey Ministry of Environment, Urbanization and Climate Change were used [24]. It consists of data on different pollutants recorded daily or hourly. In our study, visualization was made on the data of six pollutants for one year. These inhibitors are NOx, which is a combination of carbon monoxide (CO), nitrogen dioxide (NO2), sulfur dioxide (SO2), ozone (O3), particulate matter (PM), nitric oxide and nitrogen dioxide. Table 1 shows the first six rows of the data set.

Table 1. First six rows of data set

Date	İstanbul- Basaksehir								
	PM10 (µg/m3)	SO2 (µg/m3)	NO2 (µg/m3)	O3 (µg/m3)	CO (µg/m3)	NOX (µg/m3)			
05.09.2022 00:00:56	11,48	2,66	26,35	45,15	751,43	5,22			
06.09.2022 00:00:56	16,21	2,73	26,37	44,00	757,58	5,58			
07.09.2022 00:00:56	18,33	2,86	26,77	45,61	744,61	5,68			
08.09.2022 00:00:56	18,28	2,31	27,05	42,35	789,02	5,73			
09.09.2022 00:00:56	19,40	2,55	28,71	41,63	746,33	6,11			
10.09.2022 00:00:56	21,30	2,08	22,28	41,63	739,98	6,23			

B. Data preprocessing

In this study, the average method was used while filling the missing values of the data set consisting of one-year data. The reason for choosing the incomplete data completion algorithm with the mean is that the data set is large and the data range is small.

C. Actionable data visualization

The most important reason for choosing point scatter, line scatter and bar plot as visualization methods in this study is that the data set is independent of each other. While simpler visualization tools are used in independent and unrelated data sets, different visualization methods are used in linked related data.

IV. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The visualizations that emerged as a result of the study are given below, respectively. In Figure 3, it is seen that the PM10 value is not very high throughout the year and is high on very rare dates. In particular, it is clearly seen that it reached the highest point in April 2022.



Fig. 3. Point Scatter for PM10

In Figure 4, it is seen that the SO2 value is much higher, especially in April and May, compared to the rest of the year. It can be said that the annual sulfur dioxide value is higher than normal.



Fig. 4. Point Scatter for SO2

In Figure 5, annual NO2 values are more evenly distributed. High values can be easily seen.



Fig. 5. Point Scatter for NO₂

Figure 6 shows a more balanced distribution for the NOX value. It is observed that the annual values are normal and very slightly increase to high values.



Fig. 6. Point Scatter for NOX

In Figure 7, very high O3 values were observed in May, July and August. Even looking at the annual value in general, it is mostly seen to be high.



Fig. 7. Point Scatter for O3

The visualizations for the line scatter on the same data set are given below, respectively. In the Figure 8-12, the peaks are more prominent. The highest and lowest values can be easily observed in these figures. In Figure 8, unlike the point scatter, the highest PM10 value was shown in March. The upper values are more prominent in the image.



Fig. 8. Line Scatter for PM10

Figure 9 shows that the values are distributed unevenly. High and low values are easily visible.



Fig. 9. Line Scatter for SO2

Figure 10 shows that the NO2 value is evenly distributed. High and low values are evident.



Fig. 10. Line Scatter for NO2

Figure 11 shows a balanced distribution in annual values. The highest value belongs to November.



Fig. 11. Line Scatter for NOX

The annual data for Figure 12 are shown below. Annually the values are mostly high.



Fig. 12. Line Scatter for O3

The coloring process used for the bar plot is important in terms of both understanding the value of the data and seeing the peak values. Again, the images created on the same data set are shown in Figures 13-17 respectively. Figure 13 shows the distribution of annual PM10 values. High and low values are clearly visible and its coloring helps a lot.



Fig. 13. Bar Plot for PM10

An uneven distribution is seen in Figure 14. High and low values are clearly visible thanks to both colors and the use of bar plots.



Fig. 14. Bar Plot for SO2

Annual NO2 values are shown in Figure 15. It is seen that there is a balanced distribution.



Fig. 15. Bar Plot for NO2

Figure 16 shows NOX values. High values are clearly visible. In general, it is seen to be at normal annual levels. The highest value belongs to November.



Fig. 16. Bar Plot for NOX

In Figure 17, it is seen that the annual O3 values are generally high.



Fig. 17. Bar Plot for O3

Point scatter helped to show the distribution of air pollutants more clearly than other graphs. However, the line scatter allowed us to see the peak values more clearly. Like the point scatter plot, the bar plot allowed us to see the distribution more clearly as a result of coloring. In addition, the peaks can be easily seen in the bar plot.

V. CONCLUSION

In this study, trends in measured air pollution concentrations are visualized to make sense of large amounts of air data. One-year air pollutants data provided by the continuous monitoring center of the Turkish Ministry of Environment, Urbanization and Climate Change were obtained, and missing data were completed with the mean algorithm. Then, using data visualization methods such as point scatter plot, line scatter plot and bar plot, it was ensured that large amounts of data on environmental parameters were understandable by different stakeholders. Here, the excess and confused data has become more understandable with visualization. In future studies, it is planned to work on longer-term data, to use related data, to use different data visualizations suitable for these data types, to conduct a study that reveals the values of pollutants and what environmental effects are. Thus, researchers will be shown which visualization methods will have more appropriate use on which data types. Although we can see the distribution and minimum-maximum values with these three visualization methods used in our study, we could not get much detail about the data. This is a limiting feature of our study.

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Reflection Coefficient Calculation of a Structure Including a Porous Silicon Layer with Transfer Matrix Method and FDTD

Caglar Duman

Abstract—Porous silicon is an important material for a variety of application area such as anti-reflective coating for solar cells. Today, solar cell market is mostly dominated by silicon based solar cells. Porous silicon thin films are easy to fabricate and it is compatible with silicon technology. Designing porous silicon antireflective coating layers is a critical issue to enhance silicon based solar cell performance. There are several methods to calculate reflection coefficient of porous silicon thin layers. In this study, transfer matrix method and finite-difference time-domain method are used to calculate reflection coefficient of porous silicon thin layers. Because finite-difference time-domain method gives more accurate results, the results obtained with finitedifference time-domain method are used to control the results obtained with transfer matrix method. In transfer matrix method, refractive indices of the porous silicon layers are calculated with Bruggeman effective medium approximation. A slab consists of 20 nm thick porous silicon layer on a 30 nm thick silicon layer free standing in the air is considered for the simulations. Porosity of the porous silicon layer is taken as 30%, 40% and 50%. Also, the porous silicon layer is considered as consisted of random placed pores with randomly changing diameters between 12 and 18 nm. The simulation results show that increasing the porosity and the pore diameters cause more divergence of transfer matrix method and finite-difference timedomain method results. Transfer matrix method results are more reliable for longer wavelengths because the porous silicon begins to resemble a homogeneous medium. In this study, it is aimed to investigate validity limits of transfer matrix method by comparing finite-difference time-domain method results. In the literature, there are several numerical and experimental studies investigating reflection coefficient of porous silicon. But best of our knowledge, there is no study investigating dependence of reflection coefficient on both the porosity and the pore sizes of porous silicon and validity limitation of transfer matrix method in the literature.

Index Terms— Anti-Reflective Coating, Solar Cell, Reflection Coefficient, TMM, FDTD.

I. INTRODUCTION

ABUNDANCE OF silicon in the nature and its compatibility with today's electronic technology make it

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useful for a variety of applications. Porous silicon (PSi) is discovered in 1956 at Bell Labs, and it has great attention in 1990 by the scientific community with Leigh Canham's study. In following years, papers about its potential applications in microelectronics, optoelectronic devices, chemical and biological sensing are published. PSi is a sponge-like form of the silicon [1-3]. PSi is used for many applications in solar cells. fuel cells. biology, nanoenergetics, microelectromechanical systems, sensors, and photonic crystals [4]. An important feature of PSi is photoluminescence property. This property is because of excitonic recombination quantum confined in silicon nanocrystals. Although, its chemical instability, slow speed operation, disordered nature and fabrications problems are limits PSi usage for the photoluminescence applications, there are ongoing studies to overcome these problems [5]. Multilayer PSi structures are important for various areas such as optoelectronic and sensing applications. Some fabrication errors can cause significant changes optical properties of multilayer PSi structures. In a pioneer study investigating multilayer PSi structures with numerical and experimental methods, it is stated that with some basic precautions in multilayer PSi structure fabrication their optical performances can be increased [6]. In silicon thin film solar cells, layer or layers consist of PSi can be used as anti-reflective coating (ARC) which very necessary to enhance light trapping mechanism of the solar cell [2].

In [7], mathematical modeling of anti-reflective subwavelength structures is reviewed. The methods include effective medium theory (EMT), finite-difference timedomain (FDTD), transfer matrix method (TMM), the Fourier modal method (FMM)/rigorous coupled-wave analysis (RCWA) and the finite element method (FEM). All methods predict the broadband reflection of tapered nanostructures with periods smaller than the wavelengths of light of interest and lengths that are at least a large portion of the wavelengths. In [8], reflection spectra are obtained for designed nanostructure geometries on amorphous silicon thin-film solar cells, using a Ray Tracing modelling approach. This coating reduced reflectance in the wavelength of 300-800 nm range by an average of 2.665% and 11.36% at 0° and 80° incident light, respectively. A reflectance reduction of 19.192% is obtained for wavelength of 300 nm and 80° incident light.

To design ARCs consisted of PSi layer or layers, refractive index of the PSi is to be known. Bruggeman effective medium approximation (EMA) is an effective method to calculate refractive index of the PSi but it is reliable if wavelength of incident light is much larger than the pore sizes of the PSi. If refractive index of the PSi is known by using transfer matrix method (TMM), reflection coefficient of the PSi including structure can be calculated. In the literature several studies, using TMM to analysis structures including PSi [9-11]. FDTD method also can be used to the reflection coefficient [12, 13]. While using FDTD method, knowing refractive index of the PSi is not necessarily so FDTD gives more accurate reflection coefficient results. In [14], FDTD calculation and reflectance measurement are performed for PSi with porosity equal to 60% and it is found that FDTD calculations agree with the measured reflectance. Best of our knowledge, there is no study investigating dependence of reflection coefficient both on the porosity and the pore sizes of porous silicon and validity limitation of transfer matrix method in the literature.

In the study, a two layered structure, consists of 20 nm thick PSi layer on a 30 nm thick silicon layer free standing in the air is considered. For different porosities and pore sizes, TMM and FDTD simulations are performed to observe limitation of TMM method. In the 2^{nd} and 3^{rd} sections of this manuscript, information about pore structure of PSi thin films and calculation of refractive index of PSi are presented, respectively. In 4^{th} and 5^{th} sections of the manuscript, reflection coefficient calculation with TMM and FDTD are explained. In the 6^{th} section, the model used in simulations and obtained results are given. Finally, in the Conclusions section, the results are summarized and argued.

II. POROUS SILICON FABRICATION

Even though, there are more than 20 methods to fabricate PSi structures, electrochemical etching is the most preferred method to fabricate PSi structures because it is simple and economical. This method is performed in hydrofluoric (HF) solution but just dipping the silicon in HF is not formed PSi. A current flow between two electrodes, which is the silicon at the anode and platinum at the cathode is needed [3, 15]. In electrochemical etching, current density, HF concentration, temperature, etching time, type of silicon and dopant concentration are the parameters effecting formation of the pores [16].

There are ongoing debates about exact pore formation mechanism [4]. But there are studies in the literature showing selective pore direction is <100>. For (001) oriented silicon substrates, there is only one <100> direction which is perpendicular to the surface thus the pores form in well-defined columnar structure [17]. From TEM images of such PSi layers it is seen that it is possible to obtain pores with smooth walls and homogeneous thicknesses without inter connections between the pores [3]. In this study, the pores are considered as randomly distributed cylindrical structures perpendicular to the surface with smooth walls. Because of their random distribution they can overlap with each other and form a more complex pattern.

III. REFRACTIVE INDEX OF POROUS SILICON

Porosity of a PSi wafer is show air volume in the structure and determined as in Equation 1 [1].

$$P = \frac{m_1 - m_2}{m_1 - m_3} \tag{1},$$

where P is the porosity. m_1 , m_2 and m_3 are the results from weight measurements before the anodic reaction, after the anodic reaction and finally after dissolution of the porous material in a molar acidic aqueous solution, respectively. Pores in a PSi are randomly arranged and the PSi can be group according to pore sizes. If the pore sizes are less than 4 nm it named as nanoporous silicon and if the pore sizes are in the range of 4 – 50 nm it named as mesoporous silicon [14]. By using Bruggeman EMA, refractive index of the PSi can be determined. EMA approximation is acceptable while wavelength of the incidence light is much larger than the pore sizes. Under this condition, the incident light does not distinguish the silicon and the void (air) and the PSi can be considered as a homogeneous medium. From Bruggeman EMA, the dielectric constant of a PSi layer can be determined as in Equation 2 [1, 18].

$$(1-P)\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{r,si}-\varepsilon_{r,eff}}{\varepsilon_{r,si}+(d-1)\varepsilon_{r,eff}}\right)+P\left(\frac{\varepsilon_{r,air}-\varepsilon_{r,eff}}{\varepsilon_{r,air}+(d-1)\varepsilon_{r,eff}}\right)=0 \ (2),$$

where $\varepsilon_{r,si}$, $\varepsilon_{r,eff}$, and $\varepsilon_{r,air}$ are the dielectric constants of silicon, PSi and air, respectively. In Equation 2, *d* is the system dimensionality and it is 3 for the nanoporous silicon and 2 for the mesoporous silicon [18]. The calculated effective dielectric constant ($\varepsilon_{r,eff}$) can be used to determine complex refractive index of the PSi (\tilde{n}) by using equality of $\varepsilon_{r,eff} = \tilde{n}^2$. By using Equation 2, refractive index variation with porosity of a nanoporous silicon and mesoporous silicon is obtained as shown in Figure 1.



Figure 1. Refractive index variation with porosity for nanoporous silicon and mesoporous silicon.

It is seen from Figure 1, refractive index of the PSi varies between refractive index of silicon which is taken as 3.4 and refractive index of the air and with it is decrease with increasing of the porosity, as expected.

IV. REFLECTION COEFFICIENT CALCULATION WITH TMM

After calculating the refractive index, reflection coefficient of the layers composed of a PSi layer and a silicon layer can be calculated. For the calculation, transfer matrix of the structure is generated as in Equation 3 [19].

$$T_{l} = \begin{bmatrix} (1+p_{l})e^{-i\tilde{n}_{l}d_{l}\%_{c}} & (1-p_{l})e^{-i\tilde{n}_{l}d_{l}\%_{c}} \\ (1-p_{l})e^{+i\tilde{n}_{l}d_{l}\%_{c}} & (1+p_{l})e^{+i\tilde{n}_{l}d_{l}\%_{c}} \end{bmatrix}$$
(3).

In Equation 3, $n_l = n_l \cos \theta$ where n_l is refractive index of the l^{th} layer and θ is the angle of incidence. Also, d_l , ω and c show thickness of the l^{th} layer, radial frequency of the incident wave and speed of light, respectively. Finally, p_l is expressed as in Equation (4).

$$p_{l}(\omega) = \begin{cases} \frac{\tilde{n}_{l-1}}{\tilde{n}_{l}} & \text{for TE waves} \\ \\ \frac{\tilde{n}_{l-1}}{\tilde{n}_{l}} n_{l-1}^{2} & \text{for TM waves} \end{cases}$$
(4).

The overall transfer matrix is obtained by sequentially multiplying the transfer matrices. The obtained transfer matrix can be considered as in Equation (5).

$$T = \begin{bmatrix} a & b \\ b^* & a^* \end{bmatrix}$$
(5),

where * is denotes the complex conjugate. Reflection coefficient of the structure is given as in Equation (6).

$$\Gamma = -\frac{b^*}{a^*} \tag{6}.$$

V. REFLECTION COEFFICIENT CALCULATION WITH FDTD METHOD

FDTD method is first described by Yee in 1966. It solves time dependent Maxwell's equations by approximating time and space as finite differences. FDTD method can be used for solving electromagnetic problems involving arbitrary geometries with no approximations other than curved structures modelled with a stair step approximation which cause errors [20, 21]. Also, FDTD method needs great computation power and time but it can simulate electromagnetic waves interaction with actual geometries more accurately [8].

For calculating reflection coefficient of a slab, a technique that integrating sources far from the problem zone into the FDTD method can be used. This method is known as scattered field formulation. Far-zone sources generate the incident fields outside the FDTD problem space and so there are no scatterers.



Figure 2. Reflection coefficients and their differences for porosity of a) 0% and b) 100%.

The field in the FDTD problem space is called total field and it is sum of the incident field and the scattering field. By rearranging FDTD equations accordingly, the scattered field and the incident field can be calculated while the simulation is running. The reflected field from the slab is the scattered field, and the ratio of the reflected field to incident field is the reflection coefficient as shown in Equation 7 [19].

$$\left|\Gamma\right| = \frac{\left|\overrightarrow{E}_{scat}\right|}{\left|\overrightarrow{E}_{inc}\right|} \tag{7}$$

For a slab including PSi layer, the scattered field should be sampled at a surface below the slab, and the incident field should be sampled at the same surface. In this study, 3D FDTD calculation with CPML boundaries are applied and detailed explanation of the FDTD calculations is as in [22].

VI. MODEL AND SIMULATION RESULTS

In the study, a slab consists of 20 nm thick PSi layer on a 30 nm thick silicon layer free standing in the air is considered. Porosity of the PSi layer is taken as 30%, 40% and 50% and the refractive indices for these porosities is calculated with Bruggeman EMA. For FDTD simulation a slab with same thickness is considered. It is assumed that the slab is lies in the xy plane by penetrating into the CPML boundaries for 16 cells long in positive and negative x and y directions. 10 cells long air buffer and 16 cells long CPML layer are placed in positive and negative z boundaries. The width and length of the slab are 80 nm.



Figure 3. Obtained PSi layers for porosities of (a) 30%, (b) 40% and (c) 50%.





Figure 4. Obtained reflection coefficient and their differences for PSi layers with porosities of (a) 30%, (b) 40% and (c) 50%.

The incident light is x-polarized derivative gaussian shaped planar wave travelling in positive z direction. The scattered and incident fields are sampled at a surface 5 cells below the FDTD problem space. To test FDTD program, the reflection coefficient with FDTD and TMM are calculated for 0% porosity and %100 porosity. Porosity of 0% means no void in the PSi layer and porosity of 100% means no PSi layer. The results are shown in Figure 2.

It is seen from Figure 2-a and -b, the results obtained with TMM and FDTD methods well agrees but there are small differences because of the numerical errors which occur in the FDTD method. By reducing the spatial step size and the simulation time the results can be improved. In FDTD simulations, the PSi layer is created by random placed pores with randomly changing diameters between 12 and 18 nm and it is considered that the pores are perfectly continuous until the end of the PSi layer. The number of pores and their sizes are adjusted so as to reach the desired porosity. Obtained PSi layers for porosities of 30%, 40% and 50% are as shown in Figure 3.

In Figure 3, silicon portion of the PSi is shown with yellow and air portion of the PSi is shown with blue. Obtained reflection coefficient for PSi layers with porosities of 30%, 40% and 50% are shown in Figure 4.

It is seen from the figure, with increasing porosity the differences of the obtained reflection coefficients are also increase. Moreover, the results are more similar at high wavelengths and the differences decrease with increasing wavelength. The results obtained by using TMM is become more accurate at higher wavelengths because EMA approximation is acceptable while wavelength of the incidence light is much larger than the pore sizes. Under this condition, the incident light does not distinguish the silicon and the void (air) and the PSi can be considered as a homogeneous medium [1]. To observe effect of pore distribution on FDTD simulations, second set of PSi layers with same porosities are considered. Distribution of the pores are different from previous PSi layers because of their random nature. Obtained PSi layers are shown in Figure 5.



Figure 5. Second set of PSi layers for porosities of (a) 30%, (b) 40% and (c) 50%.

Obtained reflection coefficient of PSi layers with porosities of 30%, 40% and 50% are as in Figure 6.







Figure 6. Obtained reflection coefficient of PSi layers and their differences with porosities of (a) 30%, (b) 40% and (c) 50%.

Even though results shown in Figure 6 are different from results shown in Figure 4, they show similar variations. The pore sizes are fixed 12 nm, 15 nm and 18 nm for 40% porosity and effect of pore size is evaluated. Obtained PSi layers can be seen in Figure 7.



Figure 7. Obtained PSi layers with 40% porosity for pore diameters are (a) 12 nm (b) 15 nm and (c) 18 nm.

Obtained reflection coefficient of PSi layers with 40% porosity for pore diameters are 12 nm, 15 nm and 18 nm are as







Figure 8. Obtained reflection coefficient of PSi layers and their differences with 40% porosity for pore diameters are (a) 12 nm (b) 15 nm and (c) 18 nm.

It is observed from Figure 8 that more accurate results obtain by using TMM for much longer wavelengths. This can be explained by the results obtained by using TMM becoming more accurate at higher wavelengths.

VII. CONCLUSIONS

In this study, reflection coefficient of PSi layer on a thin silicon layer is calculated with TMM and FDTD. Effect of pore size and pore distribution on the reflection coefficient are also studied. FDTD method solves electromagnetic problems with arbitrary geometries and simulate electromagnetic waves interaction with PSi more accurately. The errors in FDTD method are caused by numerical errors and stair step approximation. But in TMM, refractive index of the PSi is to be calculated and the PSi is considered as a homogeneous medium with a constant refractive index. Thus, by comparing results obtained with TMM and FDTD methods, accuracy of TMM method can be evaluated for structures including a PSi layer or layers.

It is seen from the simulation results that TMM are more reliable for small porosity values. Increasing the porosity causes more divergence of TMM and FDTD results. TMM results are seem more reliable for longer wavelengths because the wavelength is much higher than the pore size. With this condition, the PSi begins to resemble a homogeneous medium. In addition, since the pore size and pore distribution of PSi are random, the reflection coefficient vary depending on the PSi layer on which the calculations are made. However, since the refractive index of the medium is considered as constant in TMM, this can only be observed from the FDTD results.

The analyzes carried out in this study show that PSi ARC

analysis made by using TMM will be reliable if wavelength of the incident light is much higher than the pore sizes. To obtain reliable results at lower wavelengths FDTD method should be preferred. The results are also important for practical applications. By using optical analysis during design phase of a practical application, expensive reworks can be avoided. At the design phase, if TMM with EMA would be used, porosity of the PSi should be low and pore sizes of the PSi should be smaller than interested wavelength range. Otherwise, methods such as FDTD should be used to obtain realistic results.

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BIOGRAPHIES



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Hybrid Convolutional Neural Network Method for Robust Brain Stroke Diagnosis and Segmentation

Sercan Yalcin

Abstract— Artificial intelligence with deep learning methods has been employed by a majority of researchers in medical image classification and segmentation applications for many years. In this study, a hybrid convolutional neural network (CNN) model has been proposed for diagnosing brain stroke from the dataset consisting of computed tomography (CT) brain images. The model inspired by C-Net consists of multiple concatenation layers of the networks, and prevents the concatenation of convolutional feature maps to evince the mapping process. The structures of the convolutional index and residual shortcuts of the INet model are also integrated into the proposed CNN model. In the output layer of the model, it is split into two classes as whether there is a stroke or not in a brain image, and then the region of the stroke in the image is segmented. Tremendous analyzes have been conducted in terms of many benchmarks using Python programming. The proposed method shows better performance than some other current CNN-based methods by 99.54% accuracy and 99.1% Matthews correlation coefficient (MCC) in the diagnosis of brain stroke. The proposed method can alleviate the work of most medical staffs and facilitate the process of the patient's remedy.

Index Terms— Artificial intelligence, brain stroke diagnosis, convolutional neural networks, deep learning.

I. INTRODUCTION

T IS HOPED that humanity will use artificial intelligencebased medical technologies to create applications that help society by fusing social responsibility consciousness with technological understanding [1].

Brain stroke is one of the deadliest diseases in the world and rapid diagnosis is very important in the medical treatment process. [2]. Patients who exhibit certain symptoms may have had an ischemic or hemorrhagic stroke. When blood clots prevent or drastically restrict blood flow to the brain, an ischemic stroke results. After an ischemic stroke, patients may also develop stroke bleeding, which is a dangerous consequence.

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While hemorrhage happens as a result of a stroke, blood traveling to other surrounding brain tissues, blood vessels bursting due to their rigidity, or both. A concussion, high blood pressure, bleeding problems, aneurysms, and arteriovenous malformation are the main causes of hemorrhagic brain stroke [3]. The care and outlook for stroke patients must be improved because it is well known that strokes are a severe health issue. Therefore, quick and accurate diagnostic techniques are required. The terms "brain imaging techniques" relate to magnetic resonance imaging (MRI) and computed tomography (CT). They give the doctors the patient consults a hint as to how to keep the patient under initial control. Additionally, there are a number of imaging methods for examining the brain, such as magnetoencephalography, functional magnetic resonance imaging, emission positron tomography, and X-ray and optical imaging. The most widely used imaging technique is the CT scan. This is mostly because patients may receive its images, which are less expensive than those from other imaging systems. The first step in providing patients with an appropriate diagnosis and course of treatment is the ability to predict brain stroke using CT imaging [4].

Convolutional neural networks (CNNs), which are deep learning techniques based on artificial intelligence, have made significant progress in the recognition of biomedical images. When working with medical images, CNNs are employed for semantic segmentation procedures where each pixel in the image is labeled by a neighboring object or region. Along with classification, picture segmentation is a crucial job that is used to increase the accuracy of diagnoses. The primary goal and task of the medical image, which goes through a pixel-level categorization procedure, is actually image segmentation [5]. A deep CNN-based method for the identification and classification of acute ischemic stroke was presented by Lo et al. [6] utilizing CT images. The imaging dataset for the is made up of 573 CT scans from 96 patients who had ischemic strokes and 96 healthy controls (681 images). Radiologists were able to diagnose acute ischemic stroke thanks to transfer learning, which was successful in establishing a specific scratch training approach for a specific scanner. On MRI pictures of patients, Tomitaa et al. [7] suggested a deep neural network approach for segmenting severely wounded brain lesions. A total of 239 pictures from a dataset of patients with persistent ischemic stroke were processed using the suggested scheme. A new

411 suggested

zooming technique was used in performance analyses of 3D segmentation models with residual networks. Deep learning and CNN were suggested by Gaidhani et al. [5] as a technique for identifying brain stroke using an MRI. Brain stroke MRI pictures might be separated into normal and abnormal images using the suggested strategy. Semantic segmentation was also used to identify anomalous regions. LeNet and SegNet are two different CNN types that are utilized by the suggested methodology [8]. LeNet is a CNN deep architecture built on encoder-decoder technology. SegNet is a sophisticated and complete CNN model for semantic pixel-wise segmentation. For the purpose of segmenting images, the encoder-decoder CNN architecture known as UNet [9] was created. This architecture's major objective is to provide a shared negotiation network with successive layers that uses upsampling operators in place of pooling operators. In order to dynamically separate acute ischemic stroke lesions from multi-directional MRIs, Liu et al. [10] presented a new deep residual CNN. Any enhancements made by INet [12] are guaranteed when the original U-Net contains residual shortcuts known as ResUNet [11]. The degradation issue was improved by the Res-CNN using additional data from MRIs [12]. The definition of ResDenseUNet [13], a different model to compare with the suggested model with dense linkages known as DenseINet [12], is when residual shortcuts are added to the original DenseUNet [12]. Data augmentation and data aggregation techniques were employed to enhance the amount of training images prior to training the network model. On two acute ischemic stroke datasets, seven neural networks were trained, and the outcomes were thoroughly examined. CNN combined with random forests was used by Saragih et al. [14] to conduct ischemic stroke detection based on a patient's CT scan. In this approach, in the categorization of data based on feature extraction with CNN, the fully linked layer has been replaced by completely random forests. 10% of the data set was test data when the suggested procedure was applied. A new CNN design dubbed C-Net that combines various networks was proposed by Barzekar and Yu [15]. On the BreakHis and Osteosarcoma datasets, the C-Net was used for the categorization of histological picture. For both datasets, the C-Net model was effective, yielding no misclassifications. For the purpose of identifying movement-related brain MR artifacts, Oksuz [16] proposed dense CNNs and a residual U-Net architecture. A method based on MR physics was used to create artificial artifacts. A residual U-net network tuned using corrupted data helped to improve the observed artifacts. The architecture, which handles artifact detection and correction, produced higher-quality images and made it possible to segment brain strokes more precisely. A novel technique for cerebral vascular segmentation without the requirement for physical intervention was put out by Deshpande et al. [17]. In order to disclose vascular geometric aspects and categorize vascular anatomy, the scientists also provided a model by skeletonizing the binary segment map. They divided MR and CT angiograms using an active contour-based method. This method combines probabilistic grain-enhancing filtering with a Hessian framework. Additionally, the vessel centerlines and diameters have been calculated using this method in order to determine the geometrical characteristics of the vasculature. Dimensionfusion-UNet (D-UNet), a brain segmentation model suggested by Zhou et al. [18], mixes 2D and 3D convolution during the encoding phase. In comparison to 2D networks, the suggested model performs better in segmentation. Compared to 3D networks, the model requires substantially less computational effort. To lessen the data imbalance between positive and negative instances for the network's training, the scientists also developed a new loss function called Enhance Mixing Loss (EML).

The brain CT pictures have been examined in this paper to assess whether or not a stroke has occurred. Additionally, the section of the brain that the radiologist examined has been calculated after the brain strokes in the photographs were segmented. A deep learning algorithm based on CNN has been suggested. In the brain CT images of the dataset collected from the Ministry of Health of the Republic of Turkey, the suggested model recognizes and categorizes brain strokes. By using the segmentation method, the model can identify and forecast the stroke region. Other current CNN models, including ResNet50v2 [19], UNet [9], DeepLabV3 [20], ResUNet [11], DenseINet [12], ResDenseUNet [13], and C-Net [15], have also been used to examine performance for classifying and segmenting brain strokes in the same CT brain images. A variety of evaluations have been performed based on comparisons between the performance results that were produced.

The following are the paper's main contributions:

- To classify and segment the brain pictures, a deep hybrid model based on C-Net and INet is provided. The proposed model might be crucial for the quick identification and treatment of brain stroke.
- Preprocessing techniques have been used to improve the contrast of the image, making it easier to identify the stroke-affected area from the brain scans. Additionally, the proposed model successfully designs the layers of convolution, pooling, dropout, and fully connected, and it takes convolutional index and residual shortcuts into account.
- The Ministry of Health of the Republic of Turkey provided the study with an actual data set. The collection contains CT images in the Digital Imaging and Communications in Medicine (DICOM) format that are not stroke-related, ischemic, hemorrhagic, or overlay.
- According on experimental performance findings, the suggested model outperforms DenseINet, ResDenseUNet, and C-Net.
- Although this study has been inspired by our previous study [21] and the data set used was the same, it can be said that it is original in terms of the proposed method and an innovative approach is presented.

The rest of the paper organization is as follows: Section 2 explains the material and method. Experimental analyzes and results are presented in Section 3. Both classification and segmentation results are evaluated, and then compared to other recent studies. Finally, in Section 4, the study is concluded.

II. MATERIAL AND METHOD

In this study, a new hybrid deep learning scheme is proposed for brain stroke diagnosis by taking advantage of C-Net and INet CNN architectures. INet is a CNN architecture that can increase receptive areas by incrementally increasing the kernel sizes of convolutional layers from (3×3) to (7×7) and then (15×15) without downsampling [12]. However, the convolutional layer of the INet architecture (3×3) is partially used in this study. Fig. 1 shows the proposed brain stroke diagnosis CNN scheme by combination of the C-Net and INet architectures.



Fig. 1. The proposed hybrid CNN scheme for brain stroke diagnosis

On the C-Net side of the proposed model, various layers and parameters are designed to achieve various important goals, such as brain CT images classification and segmentation. C-Net is a CNN architecture consisting of Outer, Middle, and Inner networks. Using the same deep model in Outer networks provides a more stable and reliable way of feature extraction. Also, using the same (3×3) filter size in convolution layers of INet provides a better way of feature extraction compared to different operations with different filter sizes. INet (3×3) Conv layer structure of the proposed method is represented in Fig. (2), and explained later. Because deep networks operate in parallel, features are extracted by different networks at different times rather than directly connecting to fully connected (FC) layers, and as a result, the shortcomings of one network are compensated for the other network. The proposed model has few parameters with an image size of 256×256 pixels. In the model of each of the Outer networks, first, brain images enter the input layer in all Outer networks simultaneously. After that, it is processed through several convolution layers that do the convolution task represented as (1).

$$(X * K)(i,j) = \sum_{m} \sum_{n} \sum_{c} X(m,n,c) K(m+i-1,j+n-1,c)$$
(1)

where *X* defines a three-dimensional brain image that is being convolved by three-dimensional kernel *K*, sliding over all spatial positions. The first block has a maximum pooling layer. The block here consists of several convolutional layers followed by a pooling layer. The number of filters in the first block is 64 with (3×3) filter size and the same filling, the maxpooling filter size is (2×2), and it is repeated in 2 steps for three additional blocks with the same structure and the same order. The number of filters is multiplied by 2 excluding the last block. The maximum pooling layer for the last block has been reduced to prevent further reduction of the final output [15]. Rectified Linear Unite (ReLU) activation function is utilized in the convolution layers as defined in (2).

$$g_{m,n,c} = \max(0, w_c^T x_{m,n})$$
 (2)

where (m, n) denotes the parameters for the feature map, c denotes the channel index, w denotes the filter, and $x_{m,n}$ indicates the input at location (m, n). The returning features of the output are then concatenated, as represented by \bigoplus operator in Fig. 1. This f operation is applied two by two on all of the output of the Outer networks as defined in (3).

$$f(y,w) = \left(\left(y_{m,n,c_i} \right) \bigoplus \left(w_{m,n,c_j} \right) \right) = X_{y_{m,n,c_i} + c_j}$$
(3)

where y and w denote feature maps of different networks, (c_i, c_i) denotes the number of channels in each output. Input of Middle networks are features extracted from Outer networks. Middle networks consist of four overlapping convolution layers, each with a (3×3) filter size, the same padding, and 256 filters. A (1×1) convolution is placed on top of previous convolutions to reduce the complexity of the model and feature maps. The feature maps obtained from the Middle networks are concatenated as in Eq. (3). This concatenation acts as the input for the Inner network. In this way, it is ensured that each network has the maximum pooling layer when generating efficient feature descriptors. Dropping, which randomly closes some components of the layers, is a normalization method. It also has the feature of preventing the network from overlearning. This process has been applied to each block of the Middle networks. Finally, the Inner network takes as input the features came back by the Middle networks. The Inner network consists of two convolution layers with filter size (3×3) and step 1, a block with the same padding and 256 filters. Also, the proposed model has a (1×1) convolution layer with the same structures, a size (2×2) , and a 2-step maximum pooling layer. ReLU is utilized as the activation function in the Inner network. The inner network's maximum pooling layer is converted into a vector and coupled to an FC layer. After that, it is connected to another FC layer with an equal number of units. Both FC layers have been subjected to a release treatment. Finally, the sigmoid activation function has been used as shown in (4) and (5), respectively [15].

$$z = w^T x + b \tag{4}$$

$$\hat{y} = Sig(z) = \frac{e^z}{e^z + 1} \tag{5}$$

where z denotes the dot product of filter w with a part of the image with same filter size, and b denotes the bias. The loss function is a cross-entropy function given as (6).

$$L(\hat{y}, y) = -(\sum_{i=1}^{N} y_i \log \hat{y}_i + (1 - y_i) \log(1 - \hat{y}_i))$$
(6)

where y_i denotes the *i*th label y of N classes, and \hat{y}_i denotes the *i*th element of output \hat{y} . A total time complexity of the convolutional layers is computed as in (7).

$$C(\sum_{i=1}^{l} n_{i-1} \cdot f_i^2 \cdot c_i \cdot m_i^2)$$
(7)

In addition to the C-Net architecture, the proposed hybrid model also integrates the superior features of the INet architecture, such as residual shortcuts and convolution index features. In this model, it combines the output feature maps of all previous convolution layers to extract features against kernels of different sizes [12]. Besides, the large kernel deep network is suitable for biomedical image classification and segmentation [18]. As can be seen in Fig. 1, a softmax layer has been used in the brain image classification process. The softmax layer ensures that the deep network output is a class rather than a numerical prediction [5]. This softmax is used in accordance with the class concept because it is desired to detect a brain CT image as non-stroke or stroke. While representing a non-stroke or non-stroke class here, it is expected that there will be a probability value for each class in the output of the proposed model. That is, the input values given to softmax are a kind of non-normalized version of the prediction values. Therefore, the more classes there are, the more output is obtained. In this study, 2 classes are represented as output. The softmax probability calculation ($\overline{p_w}$) is calculated as (8).

$$\overline{p_w} = \frac{e^{u_w}}{\sum_k e^{u_k}} \tag{8}$$

For the normalization process, the data whose probability is to be calculated must be divided by the sum of all data. Thanks to this operation, the probability sums $\overline{p_w}$ that is the probability sum of all classes become 1. In order for the sum of u_w and u_k in the formula to comply with the probability axiom, both rules must be satisfied. There are two options for providing the first rule: taking it in absolute value or expressing it as exponential.

Fig. 2 shows the designed residual shortcuts and convolutional index of INet. The right-hand side of Fig. 2 shows the residual shortcuts. It denotes the underlying secondlast Conv mapping a Conv-layer as $G_i(x_i)$ and $H_i[G_i(x_i)]$, respectively. The stacked Convs fit another mapping: $D_i(x_i) =$ $G_i(x_i) - x_{i-1}$ and $F_i[G_i(x_i)] = H_i[G_i(x_i)] - x_i$, respectively. Once $D_i(x_i)$ covers (i.e., $G_i(x_i) = x_{i-1}$), INet method optimizes $F_i(x_{i-1}) = H_i(x_{i-1}) - x_i$ instead of skiping the last Conv layer. Also, the method performs identity mapping as the basic residual shortcut (i.e., $H_i[G_i(x_i)] = x_i$). The left-hand side of Fig. 2 shows the convolutional index $G_{i-1}(x_{i-1})$. This index lets INet to skip the Inner Convs between the second Conv-layer and the last third Conv-layer. It is considered the feature maps concatenation as giving equal importance to all preceding Conv-layers in INet [12], [22]. The convolutional index is a larger weight on the output feature maps of the

previous Conv-layer that includes the highest level semantics. Heavily, Conv-index enables INet removes the feature maps concatenation. In the proposed CNN, it is considered a Convlayer to be defined as (9) and (10).

$$G_i(x_i) = D_i(x_i) + x_{i-1} + G_{i-1}(x_{i-1})$$
(9)

$$H_i(x_i) = F_i[G_i(x_i)] + x_i$$
(10)

As shown in Fig. 1, the output of the proposed deep learning network architecture consists of two nodes, no-stroke and stroke. As mentioned before, a softmax layer has been used as the classification method, and 2 classes have been defined. So, it is determined whether there is a stroke or not from the brain CT images.



Fig. 2. INet structure in the proposed method. The designed (3×3) conv layers with residual shortcuts and convolutional index of INet

III. EXPERIMENTAL ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

A. The Data Set Used in This Study

The Ministry of Health of the Republic of Turkey donated a data collection that included processed 256 × 256 pixel DICOM brain CT images. The data set contains 6650 CT brain scans, 4427 of which were stroke-free and 2223 of which were. To add more data to the brain imaging, data augmentation techniques have been used. It was given horizontal flipping and 20% rotation interval approaches, which stopped it from learning from unimportant characteristics and improved its performance as a whole [21]. To enhance the classification and segmentation performance even more, it has been decided to increase the amount of photos. The number of photographs with stroke has been doubled to 4446 because there are significantly fewer images with stroke than without. These strategies for data augmentation were used to add 80% of the data required for training and testing the classification model to the training set, and the remaining 20% was used for testing. Table 1 displays the number of brain CT scans utilized for training and testing in the dataset. In total, there are 7099 images in the training set of the classification model, of which 3542 are CT scans devoid of evidence of a stroke and 3557 are CT images containing such signs. Several CT scans of the brain are shown in Fig. 3. The photos in Fig. 3(a) are of some non-strokes. Images of various

889

strokes caused by ischemia or hemorrhage are shown in Fig. 3(b).

	I ADLE I						
THE NUMBERS OF BRAIN CT IMAGES FOR TRAINING AND TEST IN							
THE DATASET							
Type of operation	No stroke	Stroke					
For Training	3542	3557					

885



Fig. 3. Some CT brain images of (a) no stroke (b) brain stroke in the dataset

B. Experimental Setup

For Test

The proposed method and other models have been implemented on Windows 10 operating system running Intel (CoreTM i7-8700 processor and 16 GB RAM, Nvidia Geforce 4GB Graphics Card device using Python 3.8 programming for the experiments. Keras [23] and Tensorflow [24] libraries are utilized for training the proposed network. The deep learning framework is Pytorch 1.7.1 based on CUDA Tookit10.0. In the experiments, image preprocessing methods have been applied to achieve better image quality in classification and segmentation. Table 2 presents several parameters used in this study.

TABLE II							
SEVERAL PARAME	SEVERAL PARAMETERS USED IN THIS STUDY						
Parameters	Definition						
Convolution layer kernel size	(3 x 3) kernel size used						
Output nodes	2 classes classification (no stroke or stroke)						
Learning rate	0.001						
Optimization method	Adam						
Batch size	16						
Number of epochs	100						
Dropout	0.5						

To evaluate the proposed model, precision (*Prc*), true positive rate (*Recall*), false positive rate (*FPR*), *F1-score*, and accuracy (*Acc*) as the evaluation metrics are defined, and calculated in (11), (12), (13), and (15), respectively [21].

$$Prc = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \tag{11}$$

$$Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$
(12)

$$FPR = \frac{FP}{FP+TN} \tag{13}$$

$$F1 - score = 2.\frac{PrcxRecall}{Prc+Recall}$$
(14)

$$Acc = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$
(15)

$$MCC = \frac{(TPxTN) - (FPxFN)}{\sqrt{(TP+FN)x(TP+FP)x(FP+TN)x(TN+FN)}} \quad (16)$$

where TP, TN, FP, and FN denote the true positive, true negative, false positive, and false negative, respectively. Also, Matthews Correlation Coefficient (MCC) is evaluated as given in Eq. (16). The MCC generates a high score when the network model has gained superior performance on all the groups of confusion matrix including TN, TP, FN, and FP, as more unbiased and reliable than the accuracy.

C. The Results of Brain Stroke Classification and Segmentation

This section evaluates the brain CT images classification and segmentation results. The results of classification as no stroke or stroke in an image from brain images are presented, and then if there is a stroke in an image, the region of the image with the stroke is segmented.

Fig. 4 shows the confusion matrices for ResNet50v2 and UNet, Fig. 5 shows the confusion matrices for DeepLabV3 and ResUNet, Fig. 6 shows the confusion matrices for DenseINet and ResDenseUNet. The confusion matrices for C-Net and the proposed model are shown in Fig. 7 as experimental analysis findings for the categorization of stroke in brain CT images. The true class and the expected class are the two classes in which the confusion matrices are indicated. With this classification, it has been found how many of the brain images in the form of non-stroke or stroke have been estimated correctly. It is clearly seen that the least number of mistakes in stroke predictions are performed by using the proposed method. Table 3 presents the brain stroke classification performance results calculated from the confusion matrices. From the results of method performances, it is clearly deduced that the proposed method, C-Net, ResDenseUNet, DenseINet, ResUNet, DeepLabV3, UNet, and ResNet50v2 achieved at 99.43%, 99.32%, 99.1%, 99.21%, 99.1%, 98.87%, 98.65%, and 98.42% in precision, 99.66%, 99.43%, 99.43%, 99.32%, 99.1%, 98.76%, 98.53%, and 98.2% in recall, 99.54%, 99.37%, 99.26%, 99.26%, 99.1%, 98.81%, 98.58%, and 98.3% in F1score, 99.54%, 99.37%, 99.26%, 99.26%, 99.09%, 98.81%, 98.59%, and 98.3% in accuracy, 99.1%, 98.76%, 99.53%, 98.53%, 98.2%, 97.63%, 97.18%, and 96.62% in MCC performances, respectively. Fig. 8 shows the accuracy results of the proposed model. It is understood that the accuracy rate of the proposed model is 99.54% after 100 epochs are completed. Fig. 9 shows the loss results of the proposed model. It is clearly understood that the loss rate of the proposed model is very low, almost zero. According to all these classification results, the best performances are obtained with the proposed model, and the proposed model outperformed other methods in terms of various benchmarks.



Fig. 8. Accuracy of the proposed model

TABLE III DEDEODMANCE DESUITS OF THE DDAIN STDOVE CLASSIFICATION

FEI	TORMANCE RESU	LISOPIT	IE DRAIN S	DINOKE CI	ASSIFICATI	UN		
Authors	Method	Prc	Recall	FPR	F1-score	Acc	MCC	
Rahimzadeh and Attar (2020)	ResNet50v2	0.9842	0.9820	0.0158	0.9830	0.9830	0.9662	
Ranneberger et al. (2015)	UNet	0.9865	0.9853	0.0135	0.9858	0.9859	0.9718	
Chen et al. (2017)	DeepLabV3	0.9887	0.9876	0.0113	0.9881	0.9881	0.9763	
Zhan et al. (2018)	ResUNet	0.9910	0.9910	0.0090	0.9910	0.9909	0.9820	
Weng and Zhu (2021)	DenseINet	0.9921	0.9932	0.0079	0.9926	0.9926	0.9853	
Khened et al. (2019)	ResDenseUNet	0.9910	0.9943	0.0090	0.9926	0.9926	0.9853	
Barzekar and Yu (2022)	C-Net	0.9932	0.9943	0.0067	0.9937	0.9937	0.9876	
	Proposed Model	0.9943	0.9966	0.0056	0.9954	0.9954	0.9910	

The segmentation is made as follows. Images are divided a visual input into segments to make image analysis easier. Segments consist of one or more sets of pixels. While brain stroke segmentation breaks down pixels into larger components, there is also no need to view each pixel as a unit. It is the process of dividing an image into endurable segments or tiles. The stroke segmentation process begins with the identification of small regions on an image that should not be split. These areas are called strokes, and the position of these seeds defines the tiles. Fig. 10 illustrates the segmentation

estimation results of brain images. Fig. 10(a) shows the original brain CT image. If there is a brain stroke from this overlay image, the stroke region is detected and segmented. The presence of overlay images (ground truth) in Fig. 10(b) indicates that radiologists have confirmed stroke images. The stroke area obtained from the stroke brain images approved by the radiologists is scanned in red. In Fig.10(c), the proposed model result is obtained, and the brain stroke regions scanned in green are given. As can be seen from these results, the estimation of stroke from brain CT images and the detection of

8

881

stroke

5

884

stroke

100

the borders of the stroke region are quite successful. In addition, results very similar to the stroke areas determined by radiologists are obtained that are available in the dataset. Fig. 11 shows some estimations and segmentations of brain stroke. Here, some brain images with size of 256 x 256 are masked to make them dynamic with contrast, and strokes from masked images have been more easily detected.



Fig. 10. Brain stroke estimations and segmentations a) original images b) stroke images confirmed by radiologists (overlay images) c) estimated and segmented images

Note that ten experts annotated ground truth maps for the evaluation of segmentation performance. The results of the segmentation are approved by 10 highly experienced radiologists. The Intersection over Union (IoU) and Dice Coefficient (DC) values are measured to prove the accuracy of the segmentation process.

Here, we want to evaluate how well spatial segmentation zones are predicted from photos of brain strokes. The IoU and DC computations are shown in Fig. 12. The IoU value is determined as a percentage of the number of pixels that are different from 0 at the intersection of the M_p and M_d pictures, as well as the intersection of the M_p and M_e images, as in (17).

$$IoU = \frac{S(Rectangle1 \cap Rectangle2)}{S(Rectangle1 \cup Rectangle2)}$$
(17)

where M_d signifies the image acquired by the dilation operation using the 3x3 convolution matrix of the mask image, M_e means the image obtained by the erosion operation using the 3x3 convolution matrix of the mask image, and M_p defines the picture produced by the segmentation model. Each image's IoU value is determined separately, and when evaluating the models, the average of these values was taken into consideration. Rectangles 1 and 2 are presumptively represented by [x1, y1, x2, y2] and [x3, y3, x4, y4], respectively. The stroke segmentation zones are calculated using this convention.



Fig. 11. Some estimations and segmentations of brain stroke a) masked images b) estimated and segmented of stroke



Fig. 12. Representation of the Intersection over Union (IoU) and Dice Coefficient (DC)

Accordingly, the Dice Coefficient (DC), which is also known as the Sørensen–Dice Coefficient, is defined as two times the area of the extent of the overlap, divided by the sum of the areas of Rectangle 1 and Rectangle 2 as given in (18):

$$DC = \frac{2x S(Rectangle1 \cap Rectangle2)}{S(Rectangle1) + S(Rectangle2)}$$
(18)

The proposed model produces a higher IoU and DC accuracy rates and a lower loss rate in the experiments.

The average IoU and DC performance results are shown in Table 4. The proposed method, C-Net, ResDenseUNet, DenseINet, ResUNet, DeepLabV3, UNet, and ResNet50v2 achieved at 97.97%, 97.52%, 96.73%, 95.83%, 95.16%,

94.37%, 93.47%, and 93% in IoU, 98.97%, 98.74%, 98.34%, 97.87%, 97.52%, 97.1%, 96.62%, and 96.38% in DC, respectively.

Method Name	Intersection-over-Union (IoU)	Dice
PERFORMANCE RESULTS OF THE	BRAIN STROKE SEGMENTATIO	N
TAB	LE IV	

Authors	Method Name	Intersection-over-Union (IoU)	Dice Coefficient (DC)
Rahimzadeh and Attar (2020)	ResNet50v2	0.93	0.9638
Ranneberger et al. (2015)	UNet	0.9347	0.9662
Chen et al. (2017)	DeepLabV3	0.9437	0.971
Zhan et al. (2018)	ResUNet	0.9516	0.9752
Weng and Zhu (2021)	DenseINet	0.9583	0.9787
Khened et al. (2019)	ResDenseUNet	0.9673	0.9834
Barzekar and Yu (2022)	C-Net	0.9752	0.9874
	Proposed Model	0.9797	0.9897

IV. CONCLUSION

In this paper, a brain stroke classification and segmentation method is proposed using C-Net and INet based CNN methods. Brain CT images are classified as no stroke or stroke using the proposed hybrid CNN model. Moreover, the proposed model finds the location and area of the brain stroke region with its boundaries by the segmentation method. To test the proposed model, several performance analyzes are performed with existing CNN methods such as ResNet50v2, UNet, DeepLabV3, ResUNet, DenseINet, ResDenseUNet, and C-Net using Python programming. From the performance results, it is concluded that the proposed model is better than other methods such as precision, recall, FPR, F1-score, accuracy, and MCC in classification and segmentation of the brain CT images. It is considered that the applying the proposed model for brain stroke diagnosis may be so useful for healthcare professionals in most medical applications. In future studies, it is planned to apply the proposed CNN model to the detection and classification of multiple diseases occurring in the abdomen or cardiovascular system.

V. ACKNOWLEDGMENT

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BIOGRAPHIES



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Alternative CPU and GPU Parallel Computing Approaches for Improving Sequential Analysis of Probability Associations in Short Texts

Dima Alnahas and Ahmet Arif Aydin

Abstract-In linguistics, probabilistic relation between cooccurrent words can provide useful interpretation of knowledge conveyed in a text. Connectivity patterns of vectorized representation of lexemes can be identified by using bigram models of word sequences. Similarity assessment of these patterns is performed by applying cosine similarity and mean squared error measures on word vectors of probabilistic relation matrix of text. Moreover, parallel computing is another important aspect for various domains that enables fast data processing and analytics. In this paper, we aim to demonstrate the benefit of parallel computing for computational challenges of extracting probabilistic relations between lexemes. In this study, we have explored performance limitations of sequential semantic similarity analysis and then implemented CPU and GPU parallel versions to show benefits of multicore CPU-GPU utilization for computationally demanding applications. Our results indicate that the alternative parallel computing implementations can be used to significantly enhance performance and applicability of probabilistic relation graph models in linguistic analyses.

Index Terms—Text similarity, probability relations, parallel computing, CUDA, multicore processing, GPU.

I. INTRODUCTION

PARALLEL COMPUTING is a very important concept in various domains for a variety of tasks since it aims efficient use of underlying hardware, decreasing processing time and saving existing resources. Many research efforts have been directed towards applying multiple computer resources to compute parallel versions of sequential tasks [1], [2], [3]. Moreover, various data processing tools such as Apache Spark , Apache Pig and Apache Hadoop [4] have been developed to provide parallel computing by utilizing Google's MapReduce paradigm. Furthermore, parallel processing is highly demanded in solving computing problems that require real-time solutions since the value of gleaned information is inversely proportional [5] with processing time for realtime data analytics [6]. Thus, spending less time is crucial to perform on-demand actions for fulfilling near real-time

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requests [7].

Due to increasing demand for computing power in Artificial Intelligence (AI), parallel computing has been applied in vast research efforts in AI and related research areas such as Natural Language Processing (NLP), Robotics, Machine Learning, Data Mining, etc. [8]. Numerous NLP techniques facilitate information retrieval and textual patterns analyses in short texts [9] with the purpose of enhancing the potential of semantic relations extraction and its applications in Linguistics. Moreover, in natural language processing, parallel processing techniques were proven to be effective for enhancing performance of applications such as lexical analysis and shallow parsing [10]. In lexical analysis, a probabilistic graph model can be a useful tool to analyze relations among word sequences in a given text since it allows representation of these relations with low complexity. Thus, this model can be attainable by calculating words co-occurrence probabilities, which can convey semantic features and grammatical structure of text while reducing repeated lexical relations. Further exploration of language characteristics obtained from probabilistic associations of lexemes can provide more insights on relational similarity among words in short texts. In addition, vector representation of probabilistic associations among words allows for utilization of Cosine Similarity (CS) and Mean Squared Error (MSE) measures to perform relational similarity analysis [11].

One of the main purposes of this study is to apply parallel computing to perform fast and scalable relational similarity analysis on short texts of various lengths. In this paper, first, a sequential version of relational similarity analysis has been implemented. The computational complexity of relational similarity analysis and probabilistic graph model increases in proportion to the number of lexemes in the given text hence nodes in graph model and consequently imposes additional cost on time requirement of traditional serial computing. Next, one CPU and one GPU parallel versions have been implemented to get benefit of parallel computing and to decrease data processing time. These parallel versions provide a significant decrease in run time required to perform relational similarity analysis regarding the sequential version. Last, performance evaluations are presented by comparing the sequential version with the proposed CPU and GPU parallel computing approaches on the same text data.

This paper is organized as follows. In section II, a related work is presented and in section III, the methodology of the probabilistic relation graph model is explained. Then,

in section IV, our implementations of the sequential and two parallel version approaches are presented. In section V, computational comparisons and results of our implementations and evaluations are provided and in section VI, a conclusion is provided to present the contributions of our work.

II. RELATED WORK

In many studies, co-occurrence probabilities of lexemes and its vector representation have been utilized in natural language processing. Also, Statistical Language Modeling is considered a successful approach for various tasks of NLP such as, machine translation, text classification, spelling correction, etc. However, similar approaches involve intensive matrix computations and analyses, thus, requiring immense computation time, power usage, and resources.

The first use of word co-occurrence probabilities in language modeling dates back to 1999. I. Dagan et al. [12] utilized a probabilistic word association model in tasks of language modeling and pseudo-word disambiguation.

In a recent work, A. Schakel and B.J. Wilson [13] introduced the use of word co-occurrence and vector representation as a significant factor of word in corpus. This study further explores the language features that can be conveyed by Word2vec [14]. In a later study, D. Alnahas and B.B. Alagoz [11] suggested a deep relational similarity analysis which explores path probabilities between words by utilizing power of probabilistic relation matrix. More recently, Y. Yin et al. [15] introduced a method to improve accuracy of text recommendation by 8.63%. The method in [15] utilizes improved cosine similarity measure to compare correlation coefficients vectors of related texts.

Moreover, in an attempt to minimize the computational cost, Mikolov et al. [16] presented the Skip-gram Model which utilizes probability to predict surrounding words in a short text. This study suggests training the Skip-gram model with distributed representations of words as a solution to achieve learned representation of phrases with minimal computational complexity.

In [17], authors accelerated text clustering speed while performing text similarity measurement by utilizing Spark architecture in parallel computing. In further effort to minimize computational cost, many researchers have explored the possible utilization of CPU and GPU cores. In a performance analysis study, S. Gupta and M.R. Babu [10] demonstrated that a 16-core GPU performs expectedly better than single-core and multi-core CPUs in the simple task of string matching. Furthermore, in a more recent study, E. Strubell et al. [18] described the financial and environmental impact of training state-of-the-art NLP models using large computational resources. This study compares the carbon emissions from training common NLP models to familiar consumptions such as, Air travel. As a result, E. Strubell et al emphasizes the need for NLP models that can be trained and developed on more affordable computational resources such as commodity laptop or server, while providing state-of-the-art analysis. As a result, these studies inspired our research to provide faster alternatives to existing NLP models and training methods by

efficiently applying available hardware resources in similaritybased NLP analyses.

III. METHODOLOGY

In this section, first, a probabilistic relation graph model approach is presented for relational similarity analysis of short texts. Then, two similarity measures are applied to evaluate similarity level of probabilistic relations of word pairs. Last, an illustrative example is provided to demonstrate probabilistic associations analysis in short text.

A. Probabilistic Relation Graph Model of Short Text for Semantic Similarity Analysis

In linguistics, a word sequence of finite length can be interpreted to a form of knowledge or information. Also, word sequences can be depicted as messages and a series of messages represents a text. A vocabulary set of a message collection consists of lexical instances of message elements. Adjacent words in a message are considered to have bigram relation. The bigram relation frequency matrix of co-occurrent word pairs conveys information of co-occurrence frequency of words instances in vocabulary set. Let us form a vocabulary set of message series $M_1, M_2, ..., M_h$ as,

$$W_c = w_i : w_i \bot M_1 \lor w_i \bot M_2 \lor \dots \lor w_i \bot M_h, \qquad (1)$$

where the occurrence operator \perp infers that w_i item is an element of M_j message in the term $w_i \perp M_j$. The bigram relation frequency matrix of a message M is constructed by

$$R_f = \begin{cases} f_{i,j} = f_{i,j} + 1, & "w_i w_j" \bot M \land w_i, w_j \in W_c \\ f_{i,j} = f_{i,j} & otherwise \end{cases}$$
(2)

Probabilistic associations between co-occurrent lexeme pairs in finite-length word sequences can be expressed by a probabilistic bigram relation graph model. The probabilistic relation matrix of bigram model is identified as normalized values of R_f elements in a range of [0, 1],

$$R_p \cong \frac{1}{\sum R_f} R_f \,, \tag{3}$$

where $\sum R_f$ is summation of R_f elements and is calculated by $\sum_{i=1,j=1}^{k,k} f_{i,j}$. Each element of probabilistic relation matrix conveys the probability of relation between i^{th} and j^{th} elements of vocabulary set. Accuracy of estimating the co-occurrence probability of two lexeme items increases in proportion to length of text.

Fig. 1 illustrates a message example of word sequence

 $M = "w_1w_2w_3w_4w_2w_4"$. In this figure, probabilistic transitions between co-occurrent lexeme items in word sequence Mare demonstrated by probabilistic relation matrix R_p and its corresponding weighted graph representation. Zero value of probabilistic relation matrix element $p_{i,j}$ depicts the absence of co-occurrence between w_i and w_j items of text.

calculated for all lexemes in a vocabulary and can be expressed as,

$$E_u = R_p \ominus R_p^T \,, \tag{7}$$

where operator \ominus performs MSE calculation between vectors of R_p and R_p^T . Input MSE matrix is calculated for all lexemes in vocabulary and can be expressed as,

$$E_v = R_p^T \ominus R_p \,, \tag{8}$$

MSE matrix E is then calculated by using formulas 7 and 8 for lexeme pairs and is expressed as

$$E = E_u + E_v \,. \tag{9}$$

C. An Explanatory Example of Probabilistic Relations Analysis in Short Text

Let us consider the following text which is a quote by Einstein:

M = "A clever person solves a problem. A wise person avoids it."

This message provides the following vocabulary set:

W = A, clever, person, solves, problem, ., wise, avoids, it Fig. 2a presents R_f matrix values of message M.

Fig. 2b shows values of R_p matrix as calculated using formula 3.

The full stop is assigned an index in the vocabulary set and it indicates the end of a sentence. As Fig. 2a demonstrates, the full stop is not included in the probabilistic calculations of associated lexemes. Fig. 3 presents bigram graph model of M. In this figure, the stream of transitions between lexemes is interrupted by full stop at the end of each sentence.

CS matrix of message M is illustrated in Fig. 4a that shows CS value of 1 for lexeme pair (wise-clever). This similarity measure indicates similar relations with similar adjacent words of the lexeme pair. In M message example, these similar adjacent words can be identified as "A" and "person" and similar relations can be detected in bigram relation graph of M.

Similarly, MSE matrix presents 0 error value for lexeme pair (wise-clever) which indicates validity of similarity analysis. The MSE matrix as calculated with formula 9 is demonstrated in Fig. 4b.

Diagonal values of CS and MSE matrices express similarity of each lexeme with itself which explains 1 values of diagonal in CS matrix and 0 values of diagonal in MSE matrix.

IV. IMPLEMENTATION

In this section, sequential, CPU parallel and GPU parallel versions are explained.

$$R_{p} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & p_{1,2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & p_{2,3} & p_{2,4} \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & p_{3,4} \\ 0 & p_{4,2} & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \xrightarrow{p_{1,2}} \xrightarrow{p_{2,3}} \xrightarrow{p_{2,3}} \xrightarrow{p_{2,4}} \xrightarrow{p_{3,4}} \xrightarrow{p_{3,4}}$$

Fig. 1. A probability relation matrix of
$$M$$
 message and corresponding weighted graph representation.

As demonstrated in Fig. 1, on one hand, the output-word vector of node w_2 is described by the 2^{nd} row elements of probabilistic matrix and is expressed as,

 $u_2 = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 0 & p_{2,3} & p_{2,4} \end{bmatrix}.$

On the other hand, the input word-vector of node w_2 is described by the 2^{nd} column elements of probabilistic matrix and is expressed as,

 $v_2 = [p_{1,2} \quad 0 \quad 0 \quad p_{4,2}]^T$.

As a result, input and output word-vectors are utilized to evaluate similarity of relational transition paths between nodes. Therefore, similar probabilistic connection patterns can be an indication of relational similarity of a word pair.

B. Relational Similarity Measures Application on Vectorized Representation of Lexemes

In this study, Cosine Similarity (CS) measure is applied to assess relational similarity of lexeme pairs. CS matrix of output word-vectors can be obtained for all lexeme pairs of vocabulary set and is expressed as,

$$C_u = R_p \otimes R_p^T \,, \tag{4}$$

where the CS operator \otimes performs CS calculation between vectors of R_p and R_p^T . CS matrix of input word-vectors can also be obtained for all lexeme pairs of vocabulary set and is expressed as,

$$C_v = R_p^T \otimes R_p \,. \tag{5}$$

Relational similarity based on CS is calculated with formulas 4 and 5 and can be expressed and normalized to the range of [0, 1] as follows

$$C = \frac{1}{2}(C_u + C_v).$$
 (6)

Another measure to evaluate relational similarity of lexeme pairs is Mean Squared Error (MSE). Output MSE matrix is



(a) R_f values of M message.



(b) R_p values of M message.

Fig. 2. R_f and R_p values of M message.



Fig. 3. Bigram relation graph of M message.



(a) CS matrix of M message.





Fig. 4. CS and MSE matrices of M message.

A. Sequential Probabilistic Similarity Analysis

Pseudocode of the sequential version of probabilistic similarity analysis algorithm is provided in Algorithm IV-A.

Pre-process text file Create dictionary W of text for each element i of W do Obtain l list of adjacent elements to ifor each element j of l do $R_f(i,j) \leftarrow R_f(i,j) + 1$ Total frequency $T \leftarrow \text{sum of } R_f$ elements for each element p of R_p and corresponding element f of R_f do $p \leftarrow \frac{f}{T}$ Calculate Euclidean norm vector N_u of R_p Norms multiplication matrix $N_{u_{matrix}} \leftarrow N_u \times N_u^T$ for each n_u element of $N_{u_{matrix}}$ do if $n_u = 0$ then $n_u \leftarrow 1$ for each element u of C_u and corresponding elements n_u of $N_{u_{matrix}}$, p of R_p and p_T of R_p^T do

 $\begin{aligned} u \leftarrow \frac{(p \times p_T)}{n_u} \\ \text{Calculate Euclidean norm vector } N_v \text{ of } R_p^T \\ \text{Norms multiplication matrix } N_{v_{matrix}} \leftarrow N_v \times N_v^T \end{aligned}$

for each n_v element of $N_{v_{matrix}}$ do

if $n_v = 0$ then

 $n_v \leftarrow 1$

for each element v of C_v and corresponding elements n_v of $N_{v_{matrix}}$, p of R_p and p_T of R_p^T do

for each element c of C and corresponding elements u of C_u and v of C_v do

$$c \leftarrow \frac{(u+v)}{2}$$

Calculate \overline{R}_p size S

for each $e_u(x_u, y_u)$ element of E_u and corresponding x_u and y_u vectors of R_p do

 $e_u(x_u, y_u) \leftarrow \text{sum of } (x_u - y_u)^2 \text{ elements } /S$

for each $e_v(x_v, y_v)$ element of E_v and corresponding x_v and y_v vectors of R_p do

 $e_v(x_v, y_v) \leftarrow \text{sum of } (x_v - y_v)^2 \text{ elements } /S$

for each element e of E and corresponding elements e_u of E_u and e_v of E_v do

 $e \leftarrow e_u + e_v$

Fig. 5 illustrates serially computed matrices in the sequential version of the algorithm as explained in section III-C.

To obtain co-occurrence matrix R_f for probabilistic similarity analysis, words associations of M-length text are explored sequentially to construct a dictionary of lexeme items in text. For a dictionary of N elements, indexes of dictionary lexemes are used as columns and rows index of R_f . Therefore, R_f matrix conveys frequency information of $N \times N$ possible lexeme pair co-occurrences. Inspecting relational connectivity of word pairs with window size of 2 in M-length text requires M-1 iterations in order to construct R_f matrix. To reduce computing time of frequently adjacent lexeme pairs in textual patterns such as grammatical structures, this study implies to alternatively iterate dictionary elements and obtain adjacent words list with corresponding occurrence frequency for each item in the dictionary. The inferred computing sequence can significantly reduce execution time particularly for long texts that produce relatively small vocabulary sets.

Probabilistic relation matrix R_p is populated by using R_f as expressed in formula 3. R_p describes association probability between each two items in dictionary, thus, it is obtainable by calculating co-occurrence probability of $N \times N$ word pairs. CS matrices of input and output word-vectors of R_p and R_p^T are computed discretely to obtain CS matrix as expressed in formula 6. Each element of both CS matrices is a depiction of cosine the angle between input and output vectors of word pairs. Similarly, MSE matrices of input and output word-vectors of R_p and R_p^T requires sequential computing of Euclidean distance between input and output word-vectors of $N \times N$ word pairs.

B. Parallel Computing Approaches for Probabilistic Similarity Analysis

In this section, one CPU and one GPU parallel approaches are presented. These approaches have been developed to efficiently explore information extraction properties of connectivity analysis for long texts in parallel by making use of parallel computing tools. CPU and GPU parallel approaches are respectively explained next.

1) Multicore CPU Version: In this parallel CPU version, the Multiprocessing module of Python programming language is utilized to parallelize the process of extracting connectivity features of word sequences. The Multiprocessing module contains the Pool class which automatically initiates processes as many as core number of CPU when process number is not deliberately specified. Using the Map function, this class can divide elements of the argument matrix between the spawned processes which simultaneously execute the specified task by making use of underlying CPU cores. The computing steps of the CPU parallel version is provided in Fig. 6 that also presents how matrices are computed in this parallel version of probabilistic similarity analysis algorithm.

In this parallel CPU version, two main portions of the sequential algorithm have been parallelized. First, obtaining CS matrix for input and output word-vectors of R_p and R_p^T implemented by making use of Multiprocessing Pool class that drastically reduces time complexity of this task. Alternative to iterating matrix elements sequentially, elements are divided into chunks between initialized processes. Then, processes concurrently execute serial instructions of computing CS of lexeme pairs to construct CS matrix. The second main parallelized portion of the sequential algorithm is computing MSE matrix for input and output word-vectors of R_p and R_p^T . In this part word-vector pair chunks are distributed among processes which discretely calculate the MSE index of each pair.

2) A GPU Version: In this section, a GPU version of probabilistic similarity analysis is presented. Modern graphic processors have introduced drastic solutions for immensely large computation problems. Also, many research efforts continue to investigate the prospect of utilizing GPUs to reduce time complexity of analysis tasks in fields of deep learning and information processing [19]. In particular, CUDA (Compute Unified Device Architecture) programming model has been utilized to establish the required integration of NVIDIA's GPU with multicore CPU for parallel processing purposes. This parallel computing platform applies Single Instruction Multiple Thread (SIMT) execution model to manage and schedule warps independently, hence concurrently [20]. Moreover, instruction of threads can be specified by a C function that denotes a kernel that is executed concurrently by all available threads in the instruction sequence. Threads are organized in grids which consist of thread blocks. Each block is assigned a shared memory space that can be accessible by 512 threads within the block [21] and up to 1024 threads with recent CUDA toolkit.

In this paper, we aimed to explore CUDA's potential on concurrent extraction of textual features in near real-time manner. With the aid of CUDA, time complexity of obtaining similarity measures and probabilistic connectivity matrices of text is significantly reduced by efficiently expressing word



Fig. 5. Computing steps of the serial version of similarity analysis.

sequences in blocks. At least eight blocks per multiprocessor can be executed simultaneously in association with hardware limitations and memory resources.

Fig. 7 presents possible blocks division of processed matrices in GPU version of similarity analysis. Each element of these blocks corresponds to a thread which computes one element of the processed matrix. Block number is usually assigned in accordance to data size.

Pseudo code of the GPU version of probabilistic similarity analysis algorithm is presented in Algorithm IV-B2.

Pre-process text file Create dictionary W of text for each element i of W do Obtain l list of adjacent elements to ifor each element j of l do $\begin{array}{c} R_f(i,j) \leftarrow R_f(i,j) + 1 \\ \text{Total frequency } T \leftarrow \text{sum of } R_f \text{ elements} \end{array}$ Initialize block dimensions $\dot{B}_{dim}(x_{thread}, y_{thread}, z_{thread})$, total thread number $t \leftarrow x_{thread} + y_{thread} + z_{thread}$ Initialize grid dimensions $G_{dim}(x_{block}, y_{block}, z_{block})$, total block number $t \leftarrow x_{block} + y_{block} + z_{block}$ Divide R_p matrix to b blocks for each block in parallel do for each element p of R_p and corresponding element f of R_f do $p \leftarrow \frac{f}{T}$ Calculate Euclidean norm vector N_u of R_p Norms multiplication matrix $N_{u_{matrix}} \leftarrow N_u \times N_u^T$ Divide $N_{u_{matrix}}$ and C_u matrices to b blocks for each block in parallel do for each n_u element of $N_{u_{matrix}}$ block do if $n_u = 0$ then $n_u \leftarrow 1$ for each element u of C_u and corresponding elements n_u of $N_{u_{matrix}}$

block, p of R_p block and p_T of R_p^T block **do** $u \leftarrow \frac{(p \times p_T)}{2}$ Calculate Euclidean norm vector N_v of R_p^T Norms multiplication matrix $N_{v_{matrix}} \leftarrow N_v \times N_v^T$ Divide $N_{v_{matrix}}$ and C_v matrices to b blocks for each block in parallel do for each n_v element of $N_{v_{matrix}}$ block do if $n_v = 0$ then $n_v \leftarrow 1$ for each element v of C_v and corresponding elements n_v of $N_{v_{matrix}}$ block , p of R_p block and p_T of R_p^T block **do** $v \leftarrow \frac{(p \times p_T)}{2}$ for each element c of C and corresponding elements u of C_u and v of C_v do $c \xleftarrow{(u+v)}$ Calculate \vec{R}_p size S Divide E_u to b blocks for each block in parallel do for each $e_u(x_u, y_u)$ element of E_u block and corresponding x_u and y_u vectors of R_p block **do** $e_u(x_u, y_u) \leftarrow$ sum of $(x_u - y_u)^2$ elements/S Divide E_v to b blocks for each block in parallel do for each $e_v(x_v, y_v)$ element of E_v block and corresponding x_v and y_v vectors of R_p block **do** $e_v(x_v, y_v) \leftarrow \text{sum of } (x_v - y_v)^2 \text{ elements}/S$ for each element e of E and corresponding elements e_u of E_u and e_v of E_v do $e \leftarrow e_u + e_v$

V. RESULTS AND EVALUATIONS

In this section, performance evaluations of sequential and parallel versions of probabilistic similarity analysis approaches are presented. In addition, Fig. 8 demonstrates performance





Fig. 6. Computing steps of CPU parallel version of similarity analysis.


Fig. 7. Possible 8-block B(i, j) division of computed matrices in GPU version of similarity analysis.

assessments of the sequential version, the CPU parallel version that utilizes Python's Multiprocessing module and Pool class, and the GPU version using CUDA.

These algorithms are tested on a PC with 16GB RAM; in the GPU parallel version, NVIDIA GeForce GTX 960M (4 GB, 640 cores, GDDR5, 1253 MHz) laptop graphic card was utilized. Additionally, the time spent for device-to-host and host-to-device data transfer was also included in the calculated time costs. Moreover, in the CPU parallel version, Intel Core i7-6700HQ CPU (2.60GHz) was used and each performance test is run with 8 threads (1 thread per core).

In this performance evaluation we used the Blog Authorship corpus, which consists of posts gathered from 19,320 bloggers on blogger.com. The corpus incorporates a total of 681,288 posts and over 140 million words [22].

Due to hardware resource limitations and the nature of the probabilistic similarity analysis algorithm, the serial, CPU parallel and GPU parallel versions of algorithms have reached an upper limit for processed text length that are respectively 73000 words for serial version, 134000 words for the CPU parallel, and 313000 words for the GPU parallel version.



Fig. 8. Computing time of GPU, CPU parallel and serial execution of probabilistic similarity analysis for various text lengths.

Fig. 8 demonstrates the performance comparison of serial, CPU parallel and GPU parallel algorithms by conducting probabilistic similarity analysis. Each algorithm performed

TABLE I Computing time values of serial, CPU parallel and GPU parallel versions of analysis.

Word Count	Sequential	CPU Parallel	GPU Parallel
1K-word	4.67	8.17	0.5
2K-word	17.66	14.45	0.93
10K-word	307.95	174.79	11.52
20K-word	1098.58	777.61	40.56
30K-word	2146.1	1701.46	86.62
40K-word	3395.67	2732.19	155.94
50K-word	5060.01	4265.16	275.19
60K-word	7026.09	6129.2	576.18
70K-word	9324.22	8276.45	648.48

analyses on the same text and number of words increased during each iteration by 10K. For this case, the maximum text length is 70K words due to the serial version's upper limit.

The sequential version that serially attains necessary measures and extracts connectivity features of text scores lower computing time than the parallel CPU version for text length less than 2K words. In serial version, computing time then starts increasing drastically for larger data, illustrating quadratic complexity of similarity analysis in accordance with vocabulary set, hence length of text.

The CPU parallel version performs poorly with regard to computing time for text with word number less than 2K since forking data across CPU cores and then joining results of parallel threads creates additional time cost and overheads. This result confirms that using parallel processing and multicore CPUs is not always guaranteed to provide speedup for all sizes of datasets. In order to get benefit of parallel processing, the amount of processed data needs to be increased to monitor speedup and gain performance as shown in Fig. 8.

The GPU version of the analysis shows best performance in Fig. 8 for all text lengths. This outcome is produced by instant computing of multiple data blocks simultaneously without lost computing time for initialization procedures as seen in CPU parallel version. Utilizing GPU cores by CUDA for conducting probabilistic similarity analysis offers minimum processing time in comparison to other versions of the algorithm regardless of data size, hence reducing proportional association between text length and computing time.

Table I shows computing time values that are utilized to create the Fig. 8.

To conclude, Table I shows that the serial version is 1.7 times faster than the CPU parallel version and the GPU parallel CUDA version is 9.3 times faster than the serial version for text length of 1K words. On the other hand, the CPU parallel version is at least 1.2 times (2K words) and at most 1.1 times (70K words) faster than the serial version. The GPU CUDA version is 14.4 times faster than the sequential version. Also, the GPU version is 12.8 times faster than the CPU parallel version for text length of 70K words.

To further explore the results of the CPU parallel and GPU parallel versions, time cost of both versions for text length bigger than 70K words have been processed as shown in Fig. 9. These results are obtained by conducting probabilistic similarity analysis for CPU and GPU parallel versions of the algorithm on the same text starting from 80K to 130K-



Fig. 9. Computing time of GPU and CPU parallel execution of probabilistic similarity analysis.

TABLE II Computing time values of serial, CPU parallel and GPU parallel versions of analysis.

Word Count	CPU Parallel	GPU Parallel
80K-word	10731.88	863.31
90K-word	12273.78	1122.23
100K-word	13963.98	1091.58
110K-word	15881.9	1189.49
120K-word	17660.96	1370.83
130K-word	19990.45	1578.51

word length. Similar to analysis in Fig. 8, each algorithm processed the same data and the number of processed words was increased by 10K words during each iteration.

Table II demonstrates that the GPU parallel version is at least 12.43 times (80K words) and at most 12.66 times (130K words) faster than the CPU parallel version. To sum up, these results show that parallel versions of probabilistic similarity analysis algorithms are promising to utilize applications of similarity based NLP text analysis.

VI. CONCLUSION

In this study, we presented a semantic similarity analysis to indicate relevance of co-related words in text. In linguistics, frequency of co-related lexemes in short text can be useful to utilize probabilistic features of connectivity patterns for semantic elicitation of knowledge conveyed in text. Probabilistic associations of word pairs provide an insight to the textual structure of lexeme sequences. CS and MSE measures can be obtained from input and output-word vectors to denote probabilistic relational similarity of word vector pairs. Moreover, parallel computing is another important aspect in data processing and analytics since the concept of parallel computing has been applied in semantic similarity analysis. In this paper, first, a sequential version is proposed, and then a CPU parallel version is developed and last a GPU parallel CUDA version implemented to get benefits of parallel processing for probabilistic semantics analysis. The results presented in section V indicate that performance limitations of serial similarity analysis are significantly reduced by proposed CPU parallel and GPU parallel versions. Furthermore, this study infers efficiency of utilizing parallel processing

techniques and applying graphic processor resources to expand capacity of analyzing probabilistic relations and its indication of similarity analysis among lexemes.

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CONTENTS Korhan Kayisli and Ruhi Zafer Caglayan Air Based Flexible Ultra-Thin Transparent ITO Based Broadband and Polarization Insensitivity Metamaterial Gokhan Ozturk, Fatih Tutar, Mehmet Ertugrul, Abdulsemih Kockeser, Yakup Ozturk Effect of Different Kernel Functions on Hazardous Liquid Detection Using a Patch Antenna and Support Vector Ebru Efeoglu and Gurkan Tuna Ruveyda Celik and Ali Gezer Murat Tasyurek Damla Mengus and Bihter Das Reflection Coefficient Calculation of a Structure Including a Porous Silicon Layer with Transfer Matrix Method and Caglar Duman Hybrid Convolutional Neural Network Method for Robust Brain Stroke Diagnosis and Segmentation,......410-418 Sercan Yalcin Alternative CPU and GPU Parallel Computing Approaches for Improving Sequential Analysis of Probability Associations Dima Alnahas and Ahmet Aydin

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