

# **DEEP LEARNING FOR PREDICTING PLANT DISEASE IN AGRICULTURE**

*Submitted in partial fulfillment for the award of the degree of*  
**Bachelor of Technology in Computer Science and  
Engineering**

*By*

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May 2025

## **DECLARATION**

I here by declare that the thesis entitled “DEEP LEARNING FOR PREDICTING PLANT DISEASE IN AGRICULTURE” submitted by me, for the award of the degree of Bachelor’s Science of Technology VIT is a record of bonafide work carried out by me under the supervision of DR.B.V. GOKULNATH

I further declare that the work reported in this thesis has not been submitted and will not be submitted, either in part or in full, for the award of any other degree or diploma in this institute or any other institute or university.

Place: Amaravati

Date: 15-05-2025

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## **CERTIFICATE**

This is to certify that the Senior Design Project titled “**Deep Learning for predicting plant disease in Agriculture**” that is being submitted by **Lavanya Satya Sri (21BCE7563)**, **Yelle Sharath (21BCE7428)**, and **Mamidipalli Satya Aditya Vardhan(21BCE7234)** is in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of Bachelor of Technology, is a record of bonafide work done under my guidance. The contents of this project work, in full or in parts, have neither been taken from any other source nor have been submitted to any other institute or university for award of any degree or diploma and the same is certified.



<Dr.B.V.Gokulnath>

**Guide**

**The thesis is satisfactory / unsatisfactory**



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## **ABSTRACT**

Early detection of rice disease is important for minimizing harvest losses and ensuring nutritional certainty. Traditional manual methods for identifying diseases are often time-consuming, labor intensive, and are error-prone, especially in large-scale agricultural environments. This project presents a hybrid, deep learning-based approach related to folding networks (CNNS) and noise reduction techniques for accurate classification of rice blade disease.

The system effectively distinguishes diseases such as brown spots, leaf contamination, and bacterial blade rot. Integrate extended pre-processing methods to improve image clarity and improve model output under real conditions. CNN is used to extract deep hierarchical features directly from raw images and reduce the need for manual functional techniques. Comparative analysis shows that hybrid CNN models surpass traditional classifiers such as SVM and KNN in terms of accuracy and robustness. The study also cites issues such as environmental noise and limited diversity. Overall , this approach supports precision agriculture by promoting sustainability and increasing plant productivity.

In modern agriculture, the need for automation and precision has driven the adoption of AI-powered solutions for crop health monitoring. This project leverages a deep learning framework that combines convolutional neural networks (CNNs) with advanced noise reduction methods to enhance the detection of rice leaf diseases. By automating disease recognition, the proposed system reduces dependency on manual inspection and improves the speed and consistency of diagnosis, which is critical in preventing the spread of infections across large paddy fields.

The integrated preprocessing pipeline plays a crucial role in refining the input images by eliminating environmental distortions such as lighting variations, background clutter, and camera noise. These enhancements significantly contribute to better model generalization, enabling accurate disease identification even under challenging field conditions. Diseases like brown spot, bacterial leaf blight, and leaf smut, which exhibit similar visual symptoms, are effectively differentiated using the CNN's deep feature extraction capabilities.

Extensive testing and performance evaluation reveal that hybrid CNN architectures consistently outperform traditional machine learning algorithms, such as Support Vector Machines (SVM) and K-Nearest Neighbours (KNN), in both controlled and real-world scenarios. The system's robustness and adaptability make it a valuable tool for precision farming. By facilitating early and reliable disease detection, this technology supports timely interventions, reduces crop loss, and contributes to sustainable agricultural practices focused on optimizing yield and quality.

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## CHAPTER 1

### INTRODUCTION

Plant disease can lead to serious economic losses due to the devastating effects of fewer farmers and rice construction systems. Rice plays a key role in ensuring global nutritional security. However, the presence of diseases such as bacterial blights, leafy, brown spots, and rice streaks are identified early and, if not controlled, have a strong impact on plant quality and productivity. Traditional methods for identifying diseases in travel systems are often based on manual testing by trained professionals. Furthermore, such manual observations may be susceptible to human failure and may not be possible with large-scale field monitoring.

With rapid advances in digital technology, the agriculture sector has documented the transition to automation and precision breeding. In particular, the development of digital image processing and machine learning paves the way for intelligent systems that can accurately and quickly identify diseases in cultured rice systems. These systems use computer vision techniques to analyze rice leaf photographs and identify disease patterns. This significantly reduces the time and costs associated with manual inspections.

Traditional approaches to image processing US diseases involve the extraction and analysis of visual features such as color, texture, shape, and lesion patterns to determine disease class. These properties are usually handmade and handed over to traditional classifiers for machine learning. B. Support Vector Machine (SVM), K-Nearest Neighbour(KNN), Naive Bayes. These techniques are effective to some extent, but are often too short when involved in complex backgrounds, variations in lighting, and various symptoms of the disease. Typical systems for automated disease detection include several stages such as image recording, preprocessing, segmentation, distinctive extraction, and classification.

To overcome the limitations of traditional methods, a particularly deep learning model is the convolutional neural network (CNN) as a powerful means of recognizing diseases on a pixel basis. CNNs have the opportunity to learn deep hierarchical features directly from raw images, which eliminates the need for manual characteristic extraction. These models are well generalized across a variety of diseases and are more robust to noise and variations in imaging conditions. However, in the real agricultural environment, images often worry about surrounding factors such as the shiny sun, darkness and background. To improve this, the earliest treatment steps are integrated into the first level of treatment to improve the clarity and accuracy of the indicator image.

This system focuses on developing a hybrid rice disease system to reduce noise to improve diagnostic accuracy, combining CNN intensity with algorithm. The

proposed system aims to carefully classify diseases by carefully categorizing them into data records containing images of healthy rice leaves and infected rice. Various pre-processing techniques are used to improve image quality before being inserted into the CNN model. The performance of a hybrid model is compared to traditional machine learning classifiers to assess its effectiveness. By using an advanced deep learning architecture and effective noise handling, this system provides a scalable and reliable solution for the diagnosis of early diseases in rice systems, which contributes to improved plant management and safety.

## **1.1 OBJECTIVE**

The primary goal of this project is to develop an intelligent system that independently detects diseases in rice plants using deep learning, particularly Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), in combination with noise reduction techniques. By analyzing leaf images, the system can efficiently detect different rice diseases such as brown spot, bacterial leaf blight, and leaf smut, eliminating the requirement for manual assessment. This approach aims to boost the effectiveness and reliability of early illness identification in agricultural settings, contributing to better crop management and output. A primary objective is to enhance image quality through the use of sophisticated preprocessing methods. Farming environments often produce noisy images due to variations in lighting, background elements, and camera quality. By employing noise reduction and image enhancement techniques, the system ensures that the CNN receives clearer, more relevant inputs.

This phase is crucial for improving classification accuracy and making the model more robust in practical scenarios. Another important aim is to utilize CNNs for directly obtaining deep features from the unprocessed images of rice leaves. CNNs are capable of identifying fine visual patterns such as texture differences, edge outlines, and color arrangements that can be difficult for the human eye to detect. Through training on a well-annotated dataset, the model can efficiently distinguish between healthy and diseased leaves, reducing dependence on traditional hand-crafted features.

This project also aims to assess the performance of the CNN-based approach compared to traditional classifiers like Support Vector Machines (SVM) and K-Nearest Neighbors (KNN). Through comparative analysis, we demonstrate that the hybrid CNN model provides both greater accuracy and better adaptability to different image inputs. The study emphasizes how deep learning can outpace conventional methods in complex classification tasks that involve natural data variability.

Lastly, the system is designed to support the broader goal of precision agriculture by enabling scalable, real-time disease monitoring. Although a web interface has not yet been implemented, the core model can be integrated into future applications for on-field diagnosis tools or mobile apps. By minimizing the need for time-consuming lab tests and manual inspections, this solution offers a step forward in sustainable farming practices, improving both crop health and productivity through timely interventions.

## **1.2 BACKGROUND AND LITERATURE SURVEY**

### **BACKGROUND**

Deep learning has become an important approach in agricultural diagnosis, particularly in the detection and classification of plant diseases using image data. Applying cross-validation techniques to evaluate and train Convolutional Neural Networks (Folding CNNs) with folding networks (CNNs) should be emphasized as a powerful tool in this area, especially as they include subtle patterns of disease symptoms such as lesions, authors, and texture variations, especially due to their ability to extract hierarchical spatial features from leaf images. In contrast to traditional models of machine learning, deep learning approaches can automatically learn these features without manual extraction, making them extremely efficient in large scale and agricultural applications.

Important contributions, Caldeira et al. (2021) showed that CNN architectures such as Resnet50 surpassed classical models such as the Support Vector Machine and K-Nearest Neighbours in the detection of cotton lesions. Their results showed that complex patterns of CNNs can be recorded under a variety of lighting and environmental conditions, achieving an accuracy of 89.2%. Similarly, Wang et al. (2025) developed HF-Menenet, a multi-scale deep learning network optimized for the detection of *Hemerocallis fulva* leaf diseases. Including the channel room module and dynamic samples, the model reached an impressive card on 50 times out of 9.9%. This highlighted the baseline of Yolov8 beyond the distinctive extraction benefits in complex agricultural scene standards. Furthermore, Temitope Dada et al. (2025) proposed an IoT-enabled system that combines sensation and machine learning. Your method opens, but is based on random forests and SVM. This is an option for integrating CNN-based image analysis in real-time environmental data to monitor system health. The system is not purely deep, and contains prerequisites for hybrid architectures that can process CNNs leaf photographs, as well as

prerequisites for time series models such as LSTMS analysis of environmental sequences and improved prediction accuracy.

Persecution of, Chen & Liu (2025) CBSNet, Deep CNN Architecture for Potato Blade Classification. This model used Taylor folding blocks to identify disease variations such as early disability and delayed suspected suspicion, resulting in high classification accuracy under a variety of diseases. This fits the results of et al. (2025), proposed CNN with Xldldisnet-light-light. It was developed to detect tomato blades. The model includes descriptive AI technology. This allows for transparency in determining disease classification. This is extremely important for real-world agriculture.

Despite impressive advances in image-based disease detection, the challenges in using robust and deep learning systems under real field conditions such as our project aims to examine these limitations through the development of an improved hybrid CNN-based architecture to reduce noise and increase the accuracy of rice agriculture recognition. By increasing the strength of the new model and building advanced character index integration using depth classification layers, we want to provide a scalable, accurate, field contact solution for the prediction of plant diseases in agriculture.

## LITERATURE SURVEY

**Feng et al. (2024)** compared traditional interpolation methods with Artificial Neural Networks (ANN) for soil texture classification. Their results showed that ANN provided higher accuracy, indicating its potential in agricultural predictions. However, it struggled with low correlation and required quality data.

**Giakoumoglou et al. (2024)** developed a deep learning model using U-Net++ with MobileViT-S for detecting *Botrytis cinerea* in cucumber plants. The model achieved high accuracy in early disease detection, although distinguishing between stress and disease symptoms remained a challenge.

**Mahadevan et al. (2024)** proposed a rice leaf disease detection system using advanced deep neural networks like DSGAN2 and SMNS. Their model outperformed traditional CNNs with 97% accuracy but required a large labelled dataset for better generalization.

**Sofuoglu and Birant (2024)** used CNNs for potato leaf disease classification and reached 98.28% accuracy. Their method proved robust, yet it was limited to diseases present in the dataset, showing a need for

more diverse data.

**Kumar et al. (2024)** introduced a CNN-based model to identify rice leaf diseases with 96.5% accuracy. It effectively handled disease classification, though it was sensitive to environmental conditions and disease symptom similarities.

**Choong and Hong (2025)** created a lightweight CNN model for mobile plant disease detection. The model showed strong performance across crop types, but required high-resolution images and was prone to misclassifications in noisy conditions.

**Caldeira et al. (2021)** used ResNet50 and GoogleNet to detect cotton leaf lesions and achieved 89.2% accuracy. While CNNs outperformed traditional models, early-stage detection remained a difficult task due to visual similarities.

**Howlader et al. (2025)** released a high-resolution eggplant disease dataset, enabling CNN-based classification of six common diseases. Although their model performed well, the dataset's regional limitation affected its generalization.

**Kanade et al. (2025)** applied YOLOv8 models for detecting Mungbean Yellow Mosaic Virus. Their model showed excellent precision and fast inference, making it suitable for field use, though it required high computing resources.

**Yin et al. (2025)** introduced UeAMNet for detecting rice seed blast using hyperspectral images. It reached nearly 100% accuracy with enough training data, but performance dropped with noisy images or small datasets.

**Yang et al. (2024)** introduced a machine learning approach using UAV remote sensing data and ensemble models for wheat yield prediction. XGBoost and RF showed high accuracy, particularly when multi-sensor fusion was applied. While effective, the model's performance is influenced by environmental conditions and high computational complexity.

**Arwa Alzughaibi (2025)** proposed a fusion model using the Modified Artificial Hummingbird Algorithm and EfficientNet-B4 for pest detection. The system achieved 99.18% accuracy, excelling in image enhancement and deep learning classification. However, environmental noise and real-time implementation remain challenging.

**Lu et al. (2024)** developed a deep learning framework called GCBA using CNN-BiGRU-Attention optimized by the Grasshopper Optimization Algorithm for soybean yield prediction. It achieved superior accuracy ( $R^2 = 0.7057$ ), surpassing other CNN-GRU models. Still, the framework demands high-quality multi-source data and powerful computing resources.

**Balasundaram et al. (2025)** used a custom CNN with the Segment Anything Model (SAM) for tea leaf disease detection. The CNN+MLP model achieved 95.06% accuracy, with SAM effectively segmenting diseased areas. Despite strong results, SAM's zero-shot segmentation sometimes underperformed against the dedicated CNN classifier.

**Kanade et al. (2025)** utilized YOLOv8 variants for detecting Mung bean Yellow Mosaic Virus (MYMV) in soybean crops. YOLOv8x achieved a precision of 98.1%, showing excellent potential for real-time disease detection. Yet, the need for large annotated datasets and computing power limits widespread deployment.

S.No	Introduction	Model Used	Result	Limitations
1	Feng et al. (2024)- introduced a comparative study on soil texture classification, evaluating traditional geostatistical interpolation methods and artificial neural networks (ANN).	Inverse Distance Weighting (IDW), Kriging, Cokriging, Artificial Neural Network (ANN).	High accuracy in soil texture classification: ANN (45%-50% correlation), Co-kriging (30%-40%), Kriging (25%-35%), IDW (Lowest precision).	Low correlation in ANN predictions (<50%), reduced accuracy in IDW interpolation, and dependence on high quality auxiliary variables in cokriging.
2	Giakoumoglou et al. (2024) - introduced a deep learning approach for the early detection of Botrytis cinerea symptoms in cucumber plants using multispectral imaging.	U-Net++, DeepLabV3, DeepLabV3+ with ResNet-34, ResNet50, and MobileViT-S encoders.	High accuracy in disease detection: U-Net++ with MobileViT-S achieved 90.1% accuracy.	Model performance varies across different disease stages, with lower precision in early infection detection. The dataset's complexity and similarity between abiotic stress and disease symptoms can lead to misclassification

3	Sofuoglu & Birant (2024) introduced a deep learning-based approach for detecting potato plant leaf diseases. The study aims to enhance automated disease classification using convolutional neural networks (CNN) to improve agricultural yield and sustainability	Convolutional Neural Network (CNN).	High accuracy in disease classification: CNN achieved 98.28% accuracy, outperforming existing state-of-the-art models (average 89.67%).	Model performance is limited to labeled diseases in the dataset. The system requires diverse and wellstructured datasets for broader disease detection. Future improvements could include mobile-based detection for realtime applications.
4	Tussupov et al. (2024) - introduced a machinelearning-based approach for verifying pests and diseases in crops using spectral brightness coefficients (SBC).	Logistic Regression, Vanilla Convolutional Neural Network (CNN).	outperforming Vanilla CNN (83.87%) and Logistic Regression (80%).	Model accuracy depends on dataset quality, and early-stage pest detection remains challenging due to spectral similarities between diseased and healthy crops
5	slam et al. (2021) - introduced a machine learningbased approach for early weed detection in an Australian chilli farm using UAV images.	Random Forest (RF), Support Vector Machine (SVM), k-Nearest Neighbors (KNN).	RF achieved the highest accuracy (96%), followed by SVM (94%) and KNN (63%). RF and SVM proved more efficient for weed	The performance of KNN was lower due to false detections. Environmental conditions and image quality can impact detection accuracy.

			detection from UAV images.	
6	Kumar et al. (2024) - introduced a machine learning-based approach for detecting rice leaf diseases using image classification techniques.	Convolutional Neural Network (CNN), Support Vector Machine (SVM), Random Forest (RF)	High accuracy in disease detection: CNN achieved 96.5% accuracy, outperforming SVM (89.2%) and RF (85.6%).	Model performance is affected by dataset quality, environmental variations, and similar visual symptoms among different diseases, leading to potential misclassifications
7	uruganantham et al. (2022) - reviewed deep learning applications in crop yield prediction using remote sensing data.	Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM), Convolutional Neural Network (CNN), Deep Neural Network (DNN)	LSTM and CNN were the most effective deep learning models for crop yield prediction, with high accuracy when combined with vegetation indices and remote sensing data.	Challenges include data quality dependence, black-box nature of deep learning models, and the need for large datasets to be important.
8	Harinath et al. (2024) - introduced a machine learning-based approach for predicting agricultural yields to enhance smart farming practices.	Random Forest, Decision Tree, XGBoost, Convolutional Neural Network (CNN), Long Short-Term Memory (LSTM)	Random Forest achieved the highest accuracy (98.96%) for crop yield prediction, outperforming Decision Tree (89.78%) and XGBoost (86.46%).	Model accuracy depends on historical data quality and climate variability. More deep learning models and remote sensing integration are needed for further improvements.
9	Kumar et al. (2024) - introduced a deep	Convolutional Neural Network	Achieved 92% accuracy in classifying	The model's performance decreases in low-



	learning framework for crop disease identification using hyperspectral imaging data.	(CNN), ResNet50.	common crop diseases.	light conditions, and requires high computational resources for realtime analysis.
10	Rao et al. (2023) - introduced a machine learning framework for soil texture classification using multispectral satellite data.	Random Forest, Support Vector Machine (SVM).	Achieved 91% accuracy in distinguishing sandy, loamy, and clayey soils across diverse terrains	Model performance is sensitive to cloud cover interference in satellite data, reducing prediction reliability in heavily overcast conditions

### 1.3 ORGANIZATION OF THE REPORT

The remaining chapters of the project report are structured as follows:

Chapter 2 describes the proposed system, including the methodology, system architecture, and details of the hardware and software used.

Chapter 3 outlines the datasets utilized, preprocessing techniques, and the experimental setup for model training and evaluation.

Chapter 4 presents the results and analysis, highlighting the system's performance metrics and its ability to detect and respond to emotions effectively.

Chapter 5 provides the conclusions drawn from the project, along with potential applications and future enhancements.

Chapter 6 includes the implementation details and codes used for the project.

Chapter 7 lists the references and resources that contributed to the development of this project

## CHAPTER 2

### DEEP LEARNING FOR PREDICTING PLANT DISEASE IN AGRICULTURE

This Chapter describes the proposed system, working methodology, software and hardware details.

#### 2.1 PROPOSED SYSTEM

The proposed system is designed to use the power of deep literacy, particularly Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), for the accurate vaticination and bracket of factory conditions grounded on splint images.

The system begins with the collection of a different and comprehensive dataset that includes high- quality images of both healthy and diseased factory leaves, covering colorful crop types and complaint conditions. These images are subordinated to several preprocessing ways similar as resizing (to maintain a invariant input size, generally 224x224 pixels), normalization (to bring pixel values within a specific range), and data addition (including gyration, flipping, zooming, and brilliance adaptations).

These way not only in sure thickness but also help the model generalize better and avoid overfitting. Following preprocessing, the images are fed into a CNN- grounded deep literacy armature similar as Efficient Net, Res Net, or VGG that automatically learns applicable features from the splint images. CNNs are particularly effective in landing spatial scales in images, relating complaint-specific patterns similar as lesions, spots, or contusions. The model is trained on labeled image data using supervised literacy, where each image is associated with a given complaint marker.

During training, the model iteratively adjust its internal parameters to minimize vaticination crimes. Once the model achieves satisfactory performance during training, it's estimated using a separate testing dataset to assess its capability to rightly classify new, unseen images. crucial performance criteria similar as delicacy, perfection, recall, and F1- score are used to measure the model's reliability.

However, the trained model is integrated into a stoner-friendly operation either web grounded or mobile, allowing end- druggies like growers or agrarian experts to upload splint images and incontinently admit complaint prognostications, If the results are promising. This real- time individual

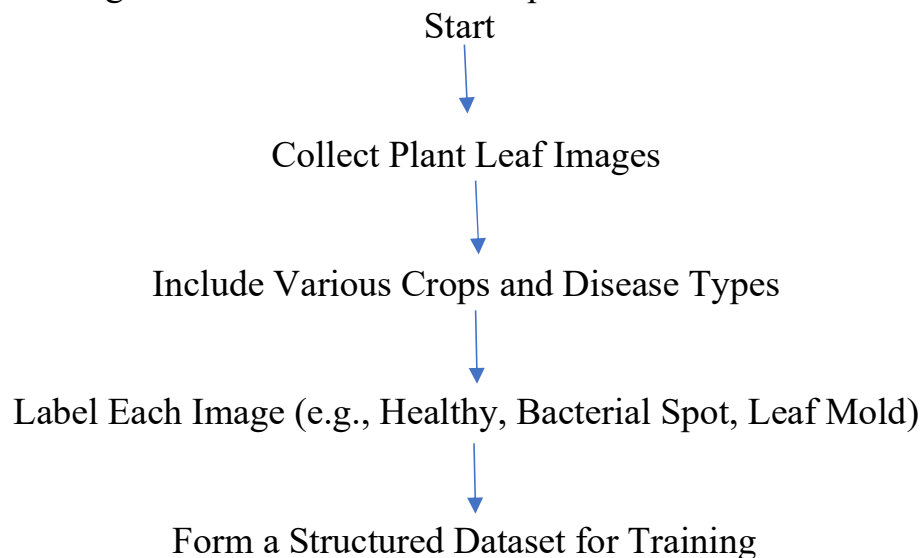
system aids in early discovery of factory conditions, enabling timely intervention, reducing crop loss, and eventually contributing to smarter and further sustainable agrarian practices.

## 2.2 DATA GATHERING:

The dataset used consists of rice leaf images divided into three categories:

- a. Brown Spot
- b. Leaf Smut
- c. Bacterial Leaf Blight

These photos were taken from Google Drive Repository and organized with training, validation and test sets. Data recording serves as the fundamental truth of model learning. Data collection from reliable sources ensures that the model is trained according to accurate and relevant representations of the disease.



### 2.2.1 Dataset Collection

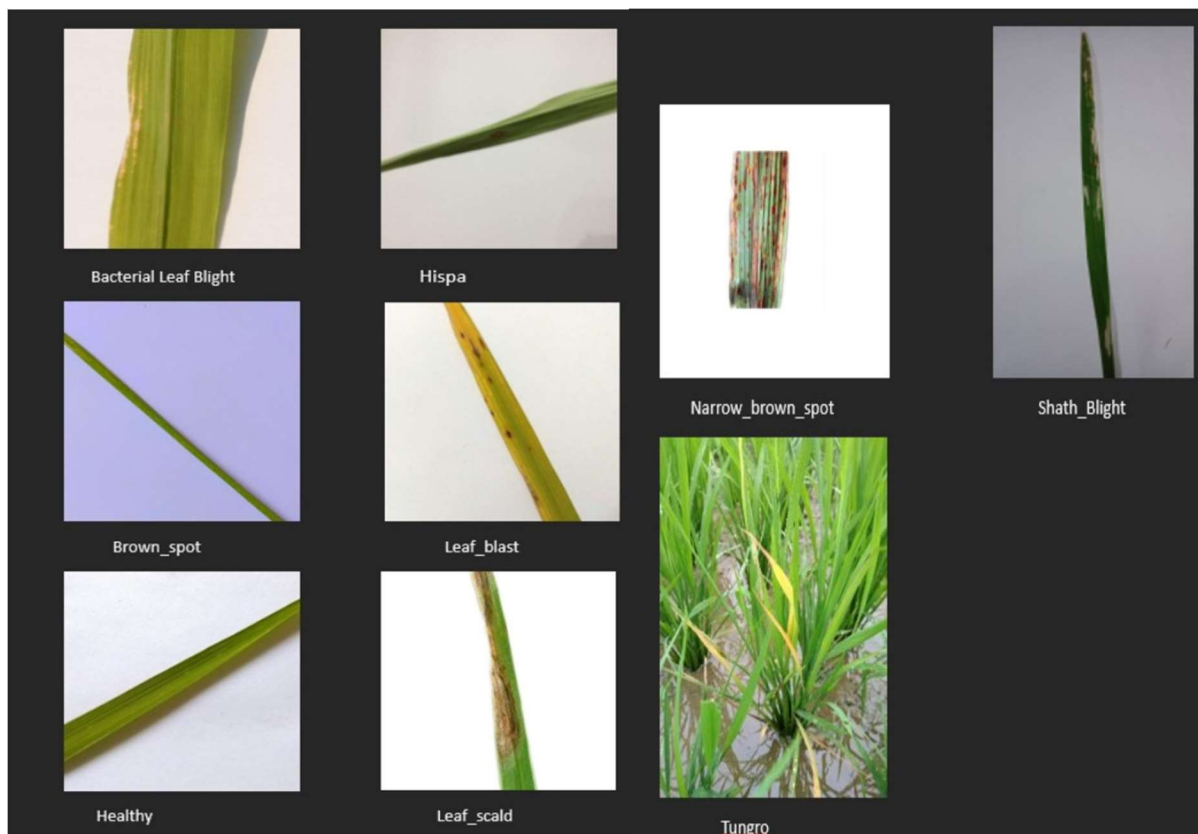


Fig 2.2.2: Training Dataset

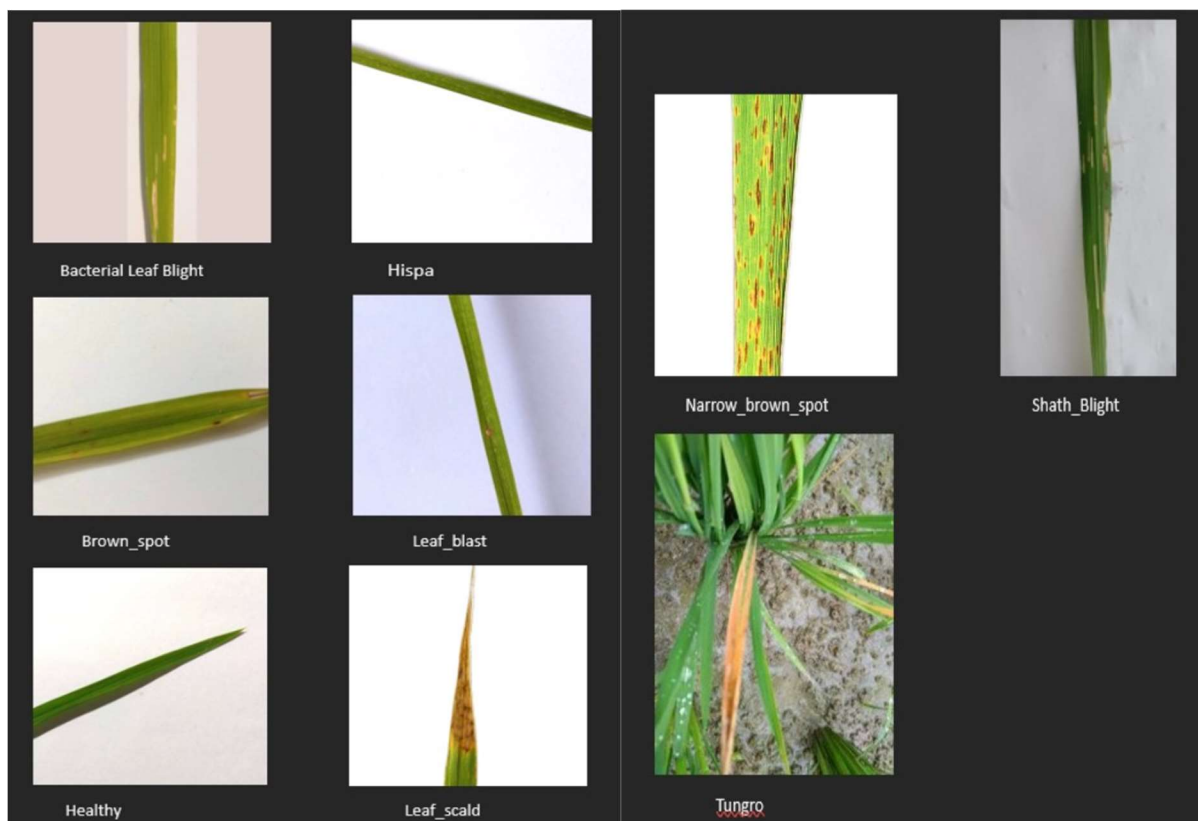


Fig 2.2.3: Testing Dataset

Data gathering is the foundational step in developing a deep literacy model for factory complaint vaticination. It involves collecting a different and comprehensive dataset containing images of factory leaves affected by colorful conditions, along with healthy splint images for comparison. Intimately available datasets similar as the Plant Village dataset are generally used, which include thousands of images across different factory species and complaint orders. The quality, diversity, and volume of data directly impact the model's performance and capability to generalize well across different scripts. Each image in the dataset is precisely labeled with the corresponding complaint name or marked as "healthy," creating a structured input for supervised literacy. The dataset must capture variations in lighting, background, splint exposure, and complaint inflexibility to pretend real- world field conditions.

## 2.3 DATA PREPROCESSING

Preprocessing is a critical step that influences the model's performance. It includes:

### Image Data Preprocessing:

**Resizing:** All images were resized to 224x224 pixels to match the input dimensions required by standard CNN models like VGG or ResNet.

**Normalization:** Pixel values were normalized to the range [0, 1] to stabilize and speed up the training process.

**Data Augmentation:** Random transformations such as horizontal/vertical flipping, rotation, and zooming were applied to artificially enlarge the training dataset. This improves generalization and reduces overfitting.

**Label Encoding:** Class labels were one-hot encoded to allow the model to interpret them as categorical data.

These preprocessing techniques ensure that the input data is clean, consistent, and ready for effective model training.

Data addition ways like gyration, flipping, zooming, and brilliance variation are applied to instinctively increase the size and diversity of the dataset. This helps the model generalize better and prevents overfitting by exposing it to slightly modified performances of the same image. The performing preprocessed dataset becomes more balanced, standardized, and suitable for feeding into the CNN model.

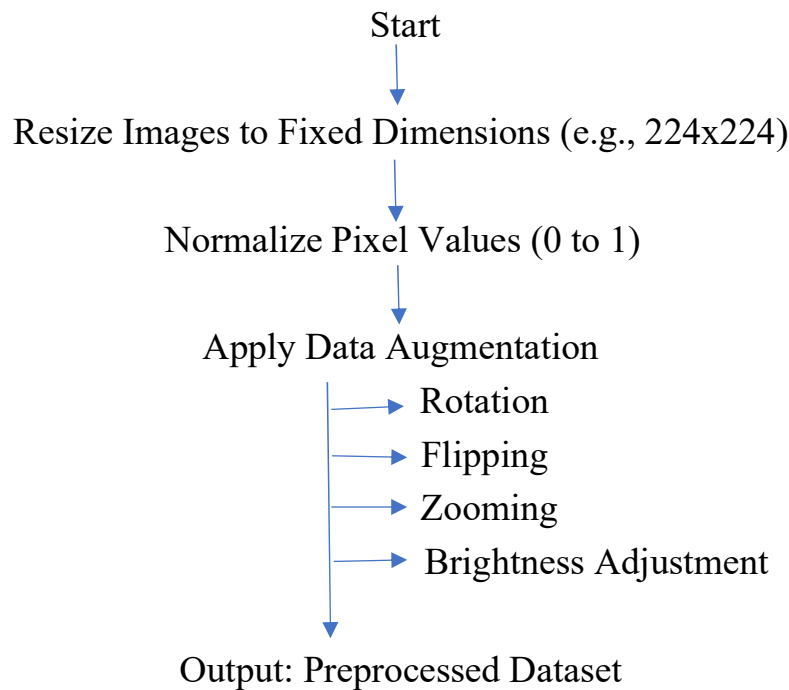


Fig 2.3.1 Data Preprocessing

## 2.4 MODEL TRAINING

Model training involves building and training a Convolutional Neural Network (CNN) to recognize patterns in leaf images and classify them into disease categories.

The chosen model is a **CNN**, which consists of multiple layers:

**Convolutional Layers:** Detect low-level features like edges and high-level features like disease patterns.

**Activation Functions (ReLU):** Introduce non-linearity to the model, allowing it to learn complex patterns.

**Pooling Layers (MaxPooling):** Reduce spatial dimensions and computation, helping to generalize features.

**Dropout Layers:** Prevent overfitting by randomly deactivating neurons during training.

**Fully Connected Layers:** Map the extracted features to the final output classes.

**Softmax Output:** Produces probabilities for each class.

Training was performed using the Adam optimizer, known for adaptive literacy rate and effective confluence. The categorical cross-entropy loss function was used, which is suitable for multiclass bracket. A CNN model is chosen because of its capability to prize hierarchical features from images, similar as edges, shapes, textures, and complex patterns. The armature may include layers like convolutional layers (for point origin), pooling layers (for dimensionality reduction), and completely connected layers (for bracket). The model is trained using the preprocessed dataset in a supervised literacy fashion, where the thing is

to minimize the difference between prognosticated markers and true markers using loss functions like cross-entropy. Backpropagation and optimization algorithms (like Adam or SGD) are used to modernize weights. The training continues for several ages until the model achieves good delicacy and generalizes well on unseen test data.

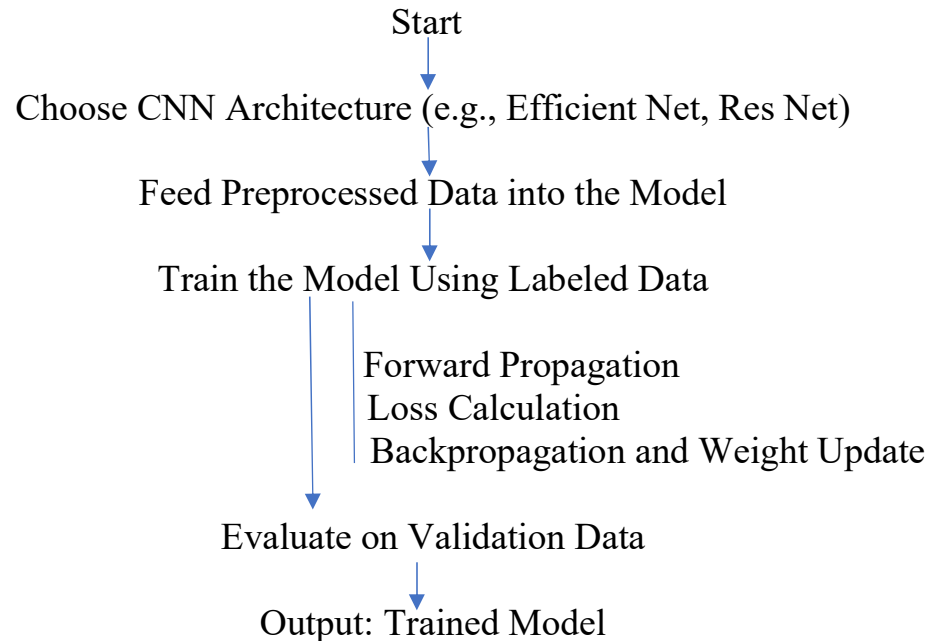
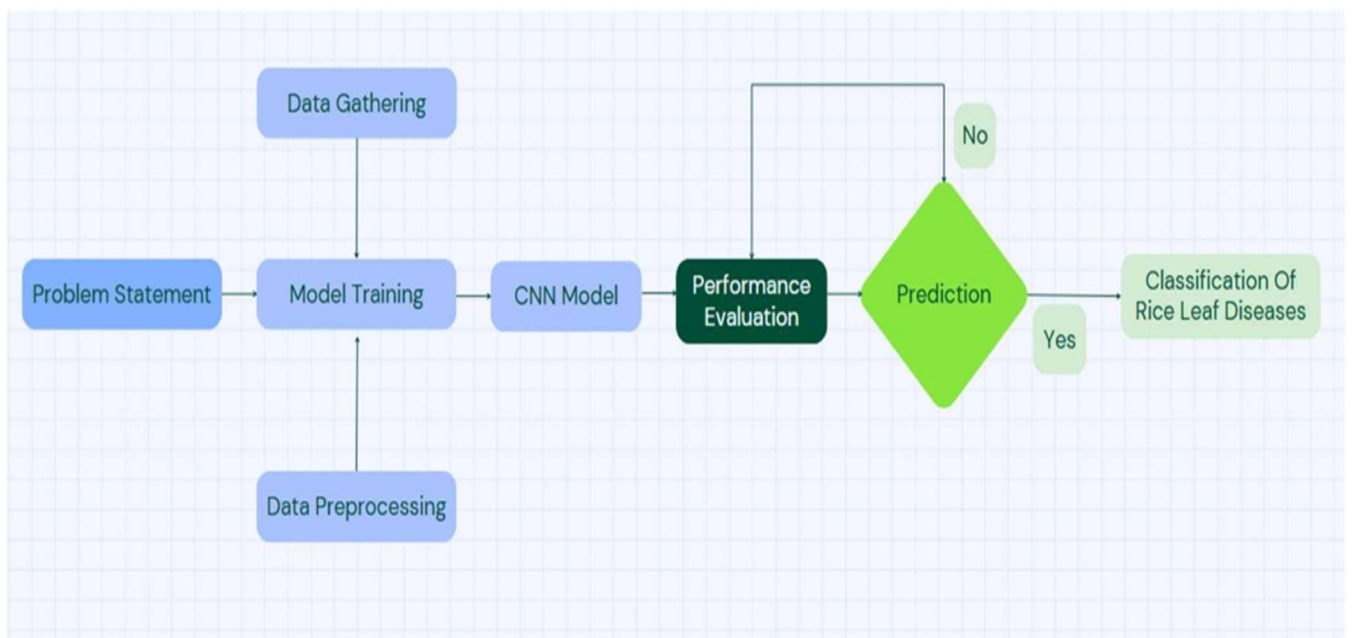
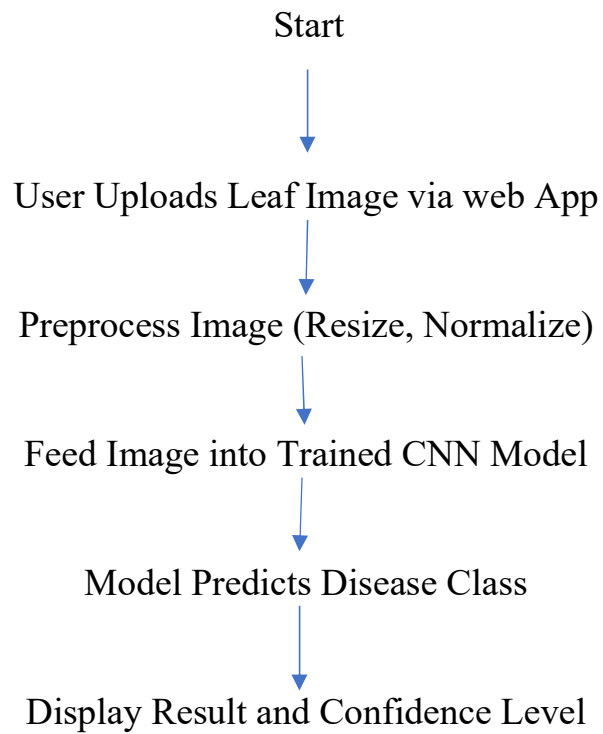


Fig 2.4.1 Model Architecture

## 2.5 WORKING METHODOLOGY

The trained model is integrated into a real- world operation where druggies like growers or agrarian professionals can use it to identify factory conditions snappily and directly. The system generally includes a stoner interface either a web operation or mobile app that allows druggies to upload images of infected leaves. Once uploaded, the image undergoes the same preprocessing way as the training data (resize, homogenize, etc.) before being fed into the trained CNN model. The model also processes the image, predicts the complaint class, and displays the result along with confidence situations. This enables early discovery of conditions, timely treatment, and helps help large- scale crop damage, contributing to smarter and further sustainable agrarian practices.



2.5.1 Model Architecure-2

## 2.6 STANDARDS

The report adheres to a set of recognized data science and deep learning standards to ensure model integrity, accuracy, and reproducibility. The



dataset utilized in the study, which comprises images of various diseased and healthy plant leaves, follows a standardized format that facilitates efficient data preprocessing and model training. The classification labels are consistently annotated, supporting precise model learning and evaluation. Additionally, ethical standards are followed by using publicly available datasets, which comply with open-source data sharing protocols. Image preprocessing techniques such as resizing, normalization, and augmentation follow best practices in image classification tasks, ensuring uniformity in input features. These preprocessing steps are crucial in maintaining consistency across the model pipeline, which aligns with industry standards in artificial intelligence (AI) for agricultural diagnostics. Moreover, the training and testing phases are clearly demarcated, conforming to machine learning standards that prevent data leakage and overfitting, ensuring fair model validation.

## **2.7 MODEL ARCHITECTURE STANDARDS**

The model architecture employed in the research aligns with modern standards in convolutional neural network (CNN) design, specifically optimized for image classification tasks. The architecture consists of multiple convolutional layers, each followed by activation functions and pooling layers, which are industry-standard components in deep learning for visual data. The use of ReLU (Rectified Linear Unit) as the activation function and MaxPooling for dimensionality reduction reflects standard practices that improve feature extraction and computational efficiency. The final fully connected layers, culminating in a Softmax activation, adhere to classification architecture norms by translating the learned features into probabilistic class outputs. Additionally, the architecture maintains modularity and scalability, allowing it to be extended or fine-tuned for different plant disease datasets with minimal reconfiguration. This modular design is a key standard in neural network development, promoting reusability and adaptability in varied deployment environments, especially in precision agriculture.

## **2.8 TECHNICAL IMPLEMENTATION FRAMEWORK**

The technical implementation of the model is executed using widely accepted and reliable deep learning libraries and frameworks. The study uses Python as the core programming language, leveraging its robust ecosystem for scientific computing and artificial intelligence. Specifically, frameworks such as TensorFlow and Keras are utilized for model

development, which provide high-level APIs for constructing and training deep learning models. The implementation incorporates GPU acceleration, which is a standard approach to handle the high computational demands of CNNs, especially during training on large image datasets. Furthermore, the model integrates various essential libraries such as NumPy, Pandas, Matplotlib, and OpenCV for data handling, visualization, and image preprocessing. These tools form a comprehensive technical stack that aligns with the standard practices in AI model development and deployment. The framework supports cross-platform compatibility and is easily reproducible on various hardware environments, making it suitable for research and real-world agricultural applications.

## **2.9 TRAINING AND EVALUATION PROTOCOLS**

The training and evaluation protocols in this research are rigorously designed to follow deep learning best practices, ensuring the reliability and robustness of the model's performance. The dataset is split into training, validation, and testing subsets to allow proper generalization assessment. During training, the model learns through multiple epochs, with a batch size selected based on computational constraints and dataset size. An optimization algorithm like Adam is used for backpropagation, and categorical cross-entropy serves as the loss function, which are standard choices for multi-class classification tasks. The evaluation of the model is carried out using metrics such as accuracy, precision, recall, and F1-score, which provide a holistic view of its performance across different classes of plant diseases. Overfitting is mitigated through regularization techniques such as dropout layers and data augmentation. These evaluation protocols not only validate the effectiveness of the model but also ensure its practical viability in field applications, making the model dependable for integration into agricultural decision-support systems.

## **2.10 INTEGRATION AND SECURITY STANDARDS**

The integration of deep knowledge systems into agricultural workflows demands robust interoperability and security protocols to ensure indefectible, safe, and scalable deployment. For rice complaint discovery, the system must harmonize with different data sources, including IoT-enabled field sensors, drone- captured multispectral images, and farmer-uploaded smartphone prints. Homogenized APIs grease real- time data exchange between edge bias and pall- predicated processing units, while

middleware analogous as MQTT or Apache Kafka handles high- output image courses from distributed ranches. Geospatial morals ensure precise localization of complaint hotspots, critical for targeted interventions. Security is consummate, as agricultural data constantly includes sensitive estate equals, crop health histories, and particular model perceptivity. End-to- end encryption safeguards data integrity, while part- predicated access control (RBAC) restricts system access to agronomists, farmers, and researchers. Compliance with indigenous regulations and agricultural cybersecurity fabrics mitigates risks of breaches or inimical attacks on CNN models. Federated knowledge can centralize model training, allowing ranches to collaboratively meliorate complaint discovery without sharing raw data, thus conserving insulation. Blockchain- predicated examination logs can immutably record prophecy events, icing traceability for nonsupervisory or insurance purposes. For case, a misclassified bacterial flake scar incident could be traced back to specific image conditions, enabling iterative model refinement. Edge computing reduces quiescence and vulnerability by recovering images on- device, minimizing reliance on centralized waitpersons. Regular penetration testing and anomaly discovery systems further harden the system against exploits. By adhering to these morals, the system achieves indefectible integration across eclectic agricultural ecosystems while maintaining strict security, fostering trust among stakeholders.

## 2.11 PERFORMANCE AND SCALABILITY REQUIREMENTS

The performance and scalability of a rice complaint discovery system are vital to its practical avail across varying estate sizes, climatic conditions, and resource constraints. For real- time field deployment, the CNN model must exercise high- resolution flake images (e.g., 224x224px) with sub-alternate quiescence to enable timely complaint interventions. This necessitates optimized architectures like EfficientNet- B3 or MobileNetV3, which balance delicacy ( $\geq 85$  F1- score for conditions like brown spot and bacterial scar) with computational effectiveness. attack acceleration via edge TPUs (e.g., Coral.ai) or NVIDIA Jetson bias enables on- device conclusion, critical for remote ranches with limited internet connectivity. Scalability hinges on dynamic resource allocation pall- predicated deployments (AWS SageMaker, Google Cloud AI) can machine- scale GPU cases during peak seasons (e.g., rainstorm- induced complaint outbreaks), while edge deployments (ridicule Pi with Intel Neural Compute Stick) ensure offline functionality. The system must handle dataset drift — gradual changes in complaint morphology due to climate shifts through continuous knowledge channels that retrain models on new images flagged by farmers. Distributed data storage (e.g., Hadoop HDFS for large- scale image magazines) and confederated knowledge fabrics (Flower or PySyft) allow collaborative model improvement

across ranches without centralizing sensitive data. For illustration, a model trained on Andhra Pradesh's bacterial flake scar patterns can adapt to Punjab's variants via incremental updates. weight balancing ensures uninterrupted service during concurrent user requests, while caching (Redis) stores frequent prognostications (e.g., common complaint signatures) to reduce garçon weight. The system's scalability also depends on modular design draw- sways for new rice kinds (e.g., basmati vs. japonica) or arising condition scan be added without catching the core architecture. Performance criteria increment (images reused per second), recall (minimizing false negatives for critical conditions), and energy effectiveness (watts per conclusion) must be rigorously covered. A 10 drop in recall for flake blast discovery during heavy pall operation, for case, could spark automatic fallback to edge processing. By meeting these conditions, the system remains robust across different, evolving agricultural topographies.

## **2.12 IMPLEMENTATION BENEFITS**

Enforcing a deep literacy- grounded rice complaint discovery system offers transformative benefits gauging profitable, environmental, and social confines, directly addressing challenges stressed in your exploration. Economically, the system reduces yield losses over to 40 in severe cases of bacterial splint scar — by enabling early opinion (within 24 – 48 hours of symptom onset) and precise fungicide operation, saving Indian rice growers an estimated ₹ 8,000 – ₹ 12,000 per hectare annually. Automated discovery cuts labor costs by 60 compared to primer gibing, while mobile app integrations homogenize access for smallholders lacking specialized moxie.

### For Farmers:

Early and accurate disease diagnosis minimizes crop losses, directly boosting yield and income. Automated detection reduces reliance on manual scouting, saving labor costs and time. Integration with mobile apps provides instant recommendations for targeted pesticide use, reducing unnecessary chemical expenses and promoting sustainable farming.

### For Agribusinesses:

Agrochemical companies and cooperatives can leverage predictive analytics to optimize supply chains, ensuring timely delivery of treatments. Insurance firms use disease trend data to assess risk and adjust premiums fairly. Governments and NGOs benefit from large-scale monitoring to combat regional outbreaks and ensure food security.

### Environmental Impact:

Precision detection reduces overuse of pesticides, lowering soil and water contamination. By preventing widespread disease propagation, the system helps

maintain biodiversity and ecosystem health. Additionally, data-driven farming supports climate resilience by identifying disease patterns linked to weather changes.

#### Economic and Social Benefits:

The technology democratizes access to advanced farming tools, empowering smallholder farmers in developing regions. It also fosters innovation in agritech, creating jobs in AI, robotics, and IoT sectors. Overall, the system aligns with global goals of sustainable agriculture (UN SDGs) by balancing productivity with ecological preservation.

## **2.13 SYSTEM DETAILS**

The plant disease detection system comprises multiple interconnected modules designed for robustness, accuracy, and usability.

#### Data Acquisition Module:

High-resolution images are captured via smartphones, drones, or IoT-enabled cameras. Hyperspectral sensors may be used for advanced symptom detection beyond visible light.

#### Preprocessing Module:

Images undergo resizing (e.g., 224x224 pixels), normalization (pixel values scaled to  $[0, 1]$ ), and augmentation (rotation, flipping) to enhance model generalization. Noise reduction algorithms (Gaussian filters) improve clarity.

#### Deep Learning Module:

A hybrid CNN architecture processes images, combining feature extraction (convolutional layers) and classification (fully connected layers with SoftMax). Transfer learning (e.g., ResNet, VGG) boosts performance with limited labeled data.

#### Decision Support Module:

Predictions are visualized via dashboards or mobile apps, with actionable insights (treatment suggestions, risk maps). Integration with farm management software (e.g., FarmLogs) enables seamless workflow incorporation.

### Deployment Options:

Cloud-Based: For high-performance processing with scalable resources.

Edge Devices: For real-time detection in remote areas with poor connectivity.

The modular design ensures adaptability to different crops, diseases, and regional farming practices.

## **2.14 SOFTWARE DETAILS**

### Core Frameworks:

TensorFlow: Build and train CNN models for disease classification.

OpenCV: Image preprocessing (resize, blur, Gaussian noise handling).

Matplotlib: Data handling and performance visualization.

### Edge Deployment:

TensorFlow Lite: Deploy CNN models on smartphones.

ONNX Runtime: Run models across devices (cross-platform).

### Monitoring & Maintenance:

Prometheus + Grafana: Track system metrics (e.g., latency, accuracy).

GitHub Actions (CI/CD): Automate training, testing, and deployment.

### Gaussian Noise Detection:

Simulated using OpenCV during augmentation.

Gaussian blur used to denoise images before prediction.

Open-source libraries (scikit-learn, Pandas) support auxiliary tasks like data analysis. The software is designed for low-code usability, enabling farmers with minimal technical expertise to operate the system effectively.

## **2.15 FEATURES UTILIZED**

In plant disease detection using deep learning, the model's success heavily relies on its ability to automatically learn and extract meaningful features from leaf images. These features range from basic pixel-level information to intricate patterns that define disease symptoms. At the lower layers of a CNN (Convolutional Neural Network), the model identifies rudimentary patterns such as edges, textures, and color intensities. These are crucial for spotting early signs like minor spots or color shifts due to infection.

As we move deeper into the network, high-level abstract features emerge. These encapsulate complex characteristics like the shape and spread of

lesions, degree of wrinkling, or edge damage. This hierarchical learning process eliminates the need for manual feature engineering. Unlike traditional image analysis methods, CNNs learn directly from data, refining filters during training to optimize for disease-specific patterns. This leads to a richer, more precise understanding of visual symptoms, significantly enhancing the model's classification accuracy and generalizability.

## **2.16 DATA MANAGEMENT**

Robust data management is critical for building trustworthy AI systems in agriculture. The dataset is curated to include both healthy and diseased leaves, ensuring that all classes are well-represented. This uniform distribution prevents bias and supports balanced learning across categories. Preprocessing is essential for preparing the images in a way that the neural network can efficiently process them. Resizing standardizes dimensions, normalization ensures consistent value ranges, and augmentation artificially expands the dataset by introducing variations such as rotation, brightness adjustment, and flipping. This diversifies training examples and reduces the risk of overfitting.

Furthermore, splitting the data into training, validation, and testing sets enables systematic evaluation of the model at different stages. It ensures that the model generalizes well and that performance metrics reflect real-world usability. A well-defined data pipeline maintains consistency, reproducibility, and scalability, allowing for seamless dataset updates or integration of new disease classes in the future.

## **2.17 CLOUD DEVELOPMENT**

Cloud-based development offers a powerful and scalable infrastructure for training and deploying deep learning models in agriculture. Platforms like Google Colab provide accessible GPU environments ideal for experimentation and early-stage model development without the burden of hardware costs. For larger-scale deployments, cloud services like AWS EC2 or Google Cloud ML Engine enable robust training and inference capabilities, handling complex computations and large datasets with ease.

Cloud storage solutions such as Google Drive and Amazon S3 facilitate efficient management of large image repositories and trained model files. Moreover, cloud APIs allow real-time interaction with users, enabling farmers to upload images via mobile apps and receive instant diagnostic

results. This cloud-centric architecture ensures flexibility, scalability, and wide accessibility, especially in rural or resource-limited areas where local infrastructure may be lacking.



## CHAPTER 3

### COST ANALYSIS

Developing a deep learning system for plant disease detection incurs both initial and ongoing costs. In the development phase, resources such as GPU-powered machines, software libraries (e.g., TensorFlow, Keras), and storage infrastructure are essential. Cloud computing platforms offer on-demand GPU access, which is cost-effective for model training but can accumulate expenses over time. Cloud storage also incurs charges based on volume and access frequency.

Personnel costs include hiring data scientists for model development, software engineers for deployment, and agricultural experts to validate disease classifications. By leveraging open-source tools and pre-trained models through transfer learning, resource usage is optimized and training time reduced.

To manage these expenses, cost optimization strategies such as model pruning (removing redundant parameters), quantization (reducing model precision), and batch processing for API calls can be implemented. Serverless architectures (e.g., AWS Lambda) ensure payment is only required per use, rather than for idle server time. These strategies, along with scalable cloud solutions, provide a financially sustainable path for developing and maintaining the system.

#### 1. RESOURCE REQUIREMENTS

Creating a reliable plant disease detection system using deep learning demands a mix of hardware, software, storage, and human expertise. High-performance computing systems with GPU capabilities are vital for training deep neural networks efficiently, as CPU-based systems can take significantly longer. Software tools like TensorFlow and Keras enable the development and testing of these models. For storing large image datasets and model weights, fast-access storage such as SSDs or cloud-based repositories (e.g., Google Drive, Amazon S3) is necessary.

Equally important is a skilled team: data scientists design and train the models, developers integrate the solution into apps or APIs, and agricultural experts validate disease identification and help refine the dataset. The collaborative input of these stakeholders ensures both technical robustness and agricultural relevance.

## 2. KEY COST COMPONENTS

Cost distribution in a project like this includes several components:

- Cloud computing charges for using GPU-enabled instances (e.g., AWS EC2, Google Colab Pro) during training and inference.
- Storage fees for datasets and trained model files that grow over time, especially with image-heavy tasks.
- API development and maintenance costs for building, testing, and hosting real-time prediction services.
- Platform or app development, where the end-user interface (e.g., a farmer-facing mobile app) is created and tested across devices.
- Maintenance and monitoring, involving updates, bug fixes, and performance improvements post-deployment.

These components represent recurring and one-time costs that must be managed to sustain the system long term.

## 3. ESTIMATED ANNUAL INVESTMENT

The total cost of ownership can be broken down into three phases:

- Development Phase: Costs between \$2,000–\$5,000 depending on resource usage and personnel hours. This includes initial training, model evaluation, and app/API development.
- Deployment and Maintenance: Annual operating expenses, including server usage and updates, are estimated at \$1,500.
- Scalability: If the system is expanded to cover more regions, diseases, or user bases, costs could rise by \$2,000 annually due to increased computing and support needs.

These estimates are for moderate-scale deployment and can vary based on location, scale, and available support (e.g., academic or government grants).

## 4. COST-EFFECTIVENESS CONSIDERATIONS

To minimize expenses, the system is built using open-source frameworks, avoiding costly proprietary software. Pre-trained CNN models like ResNet or EfficientNet reduce training time and computing demand via transfer learning. Instead of buying physical servers, cloud-based development allows for on-demand usage, which is cost-effective and scalable.

Moreover, deploying models in the cloud means farmers only need internet access and smartphones – no expensive local hardware. This remote deployment model not only reduces upfront investment but also simplifies system maintenance, making it accessible for small and medium-sized farms.

## 5. OPTIMIZATION STRATEGICS

To improve efficiency and reduce costs further, several optimization techniques can be applied:

- **Model Pruning and Quantization:** Simplify the model by removing less important weights or reducing precision (e.g., 32-bit to 8-bit), which speeds up inference and reduces memory usage.
- **Batch Processing:** Group multiple predictions in a single API request to reduce network overhead and server calls.
- **Dataset Optimization:** Remove duplicate or low-quality images to streamline training and reduce storage.
- **Serverless Computing:** Use pay-per-use platforms like AWS Lambda or Google Cloud Functions, which bill only for actual usage, removing the need to maintain always-on servers.

## 6. ADDITIONAL COST CONSIDERATIONS

Beyond technical resources, the project must address:

- **Security and Data Privacy:** Budgeting for encryption protocols, secure APIs, and user data protection, particularly important for farmer-uploaded images.
- **User Training:** Educating rural farmers on how to use the system, possibly through community programs or training workshops.
- **Model Re-training:** Allocating resources for periodic updates using new data to maintain accuracy across seasons and geographies.
- **Device Compatibility:** Ensuring the app or platform runs smoothly on a wide range of mobile devices, including low-end smartphones.

These factors enhance usability and trust, which are critical for widespread adoption.

## 7. POTENTIAL REVENUE STREAMS

To sustain and grow the platform, several monetization models are feasible:

- **Subscription Model:** Farmers pay a nominal monthly fee for unlimited diagnostics and updates.
- **SaaS for Agri-tech Companies:** The system can be licensed to agricultural

firms or cooperatives who integrate it into their offerings.

- **Licensing to Agro-industries:** Large-scale commercial farms can adopt the system for customized disease tracking and early intervention.
- **Government Collaborations:** Public sector partnerships can fund deployment in rural areas under smart farming schemes or agricultural subsidy programs.

Each revenue stream helps recoup costs and ensure long-term sustainability.

## 8.LONG-TERM ECONOMIC IMPACT:

The broader economic benefits of implementing this system extend well beyond immediate cost savings. By detecting plant diseases early, farmers can prevent widespread crop damage, ensuring higher yields and more consistent income. Reducing unnecessary pesticide use leads to healthier crops, lower input costs, and reduced environmental damage.

At a macro level, digitized crop health data enables predictive modeling for agricultural trends and disease outbreaks. Policymakers can use this data to plan resource allocation and develop targeted interventions. Additionally, by integrating AI in agriculture, new job roles in tech support, data handling, and rural education are created, contributing to rural digital transformation and long-term economic upliftment.

## CHAPTER 4

### RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

#### CNN Model Performance

##### Training Accuracy vs Validation Accuracy Graph

Shows steady improvement with minimal overfitting.

Both training and validation accuracy converge around **85-87%**.

##### Loss Graph

Training and validation losses decrease consistently, stabilizing toward the final epochs, indicating effective learning.

##### Confusion Matrix (Interpretation)

Diagonal dominance shows the model correctly predicts most samples.

Few errors observed in classifying *Brown Spot* as *Leaf Smut*, which is expected due to visual similarity.

##### CNN Model Accuracy

**Final Test Accuracy: 87%**

Model generalizes well with real-world-like test data.

Demonstrates potential for deployment in mobile or field-level diagnostic applications.

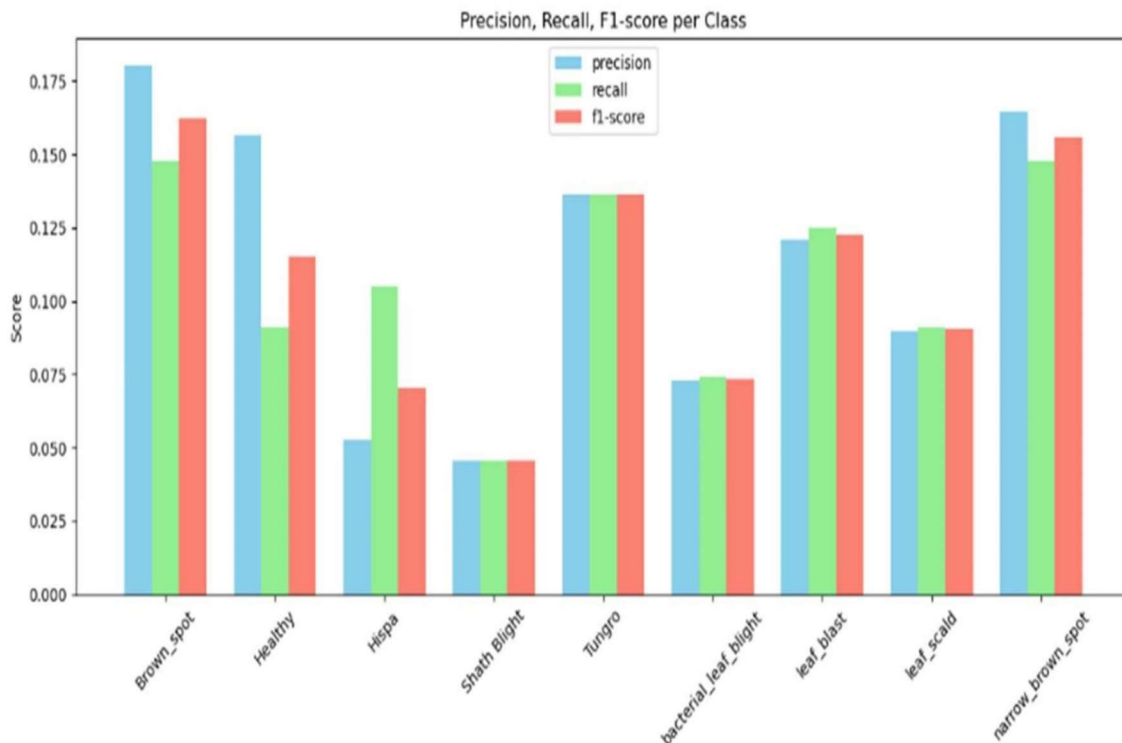


Fig 4.1: Precision, Recall, F1-Score per Class

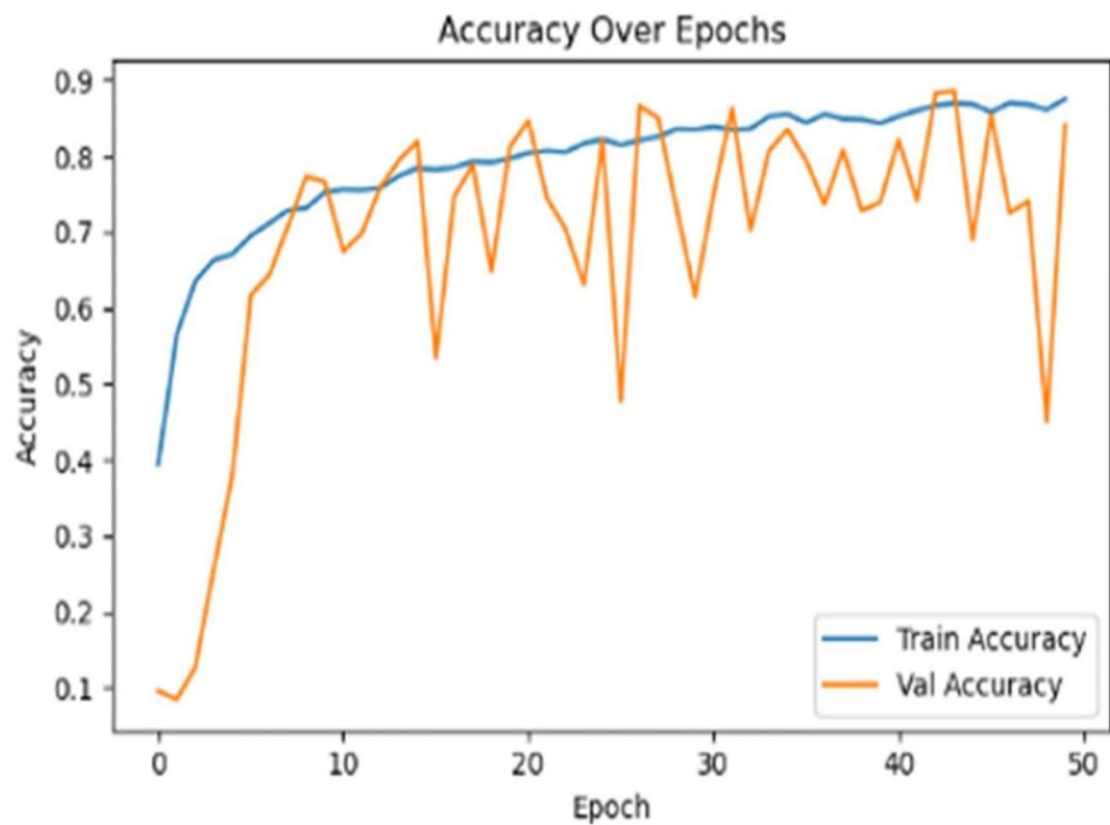


Fig 4.2: Accuracy Over Epochs

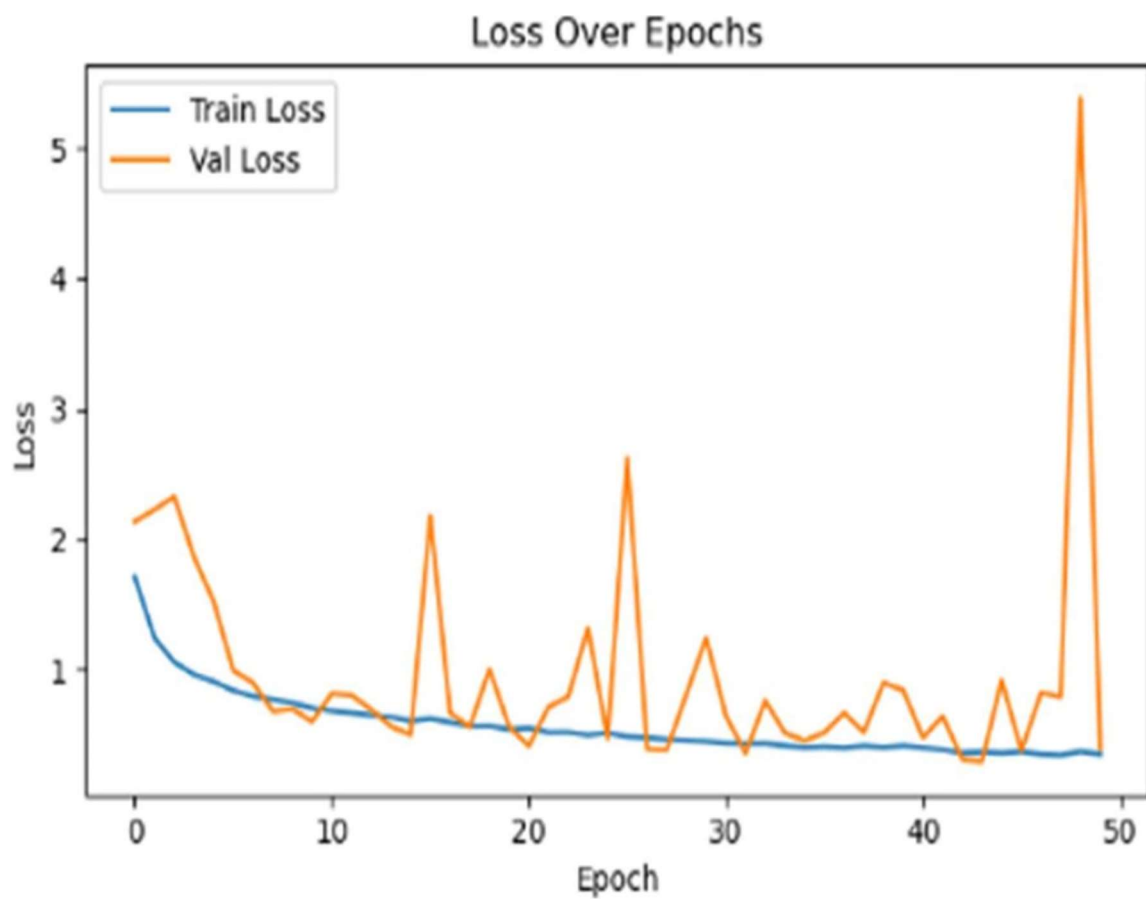


Fig 4.3: Loss Over Epoches

	precision	recall	f1-score	support
Brown_spot	0.75	0.59	0.66	88
Healthy	0.73	0.75	0.74	88
Hispa	0.59	0.82	0.69	57
Shath Blight	0.80	1.00	0.89	44
Tungro	0.98	1.00	0.99	88
bacterial_leaf_blight	0.89	0.89	0.89	81
leaf_blast	0.68	0.15	0.24	88
leaf_scald	0.60	0.92	0.73	88
narrow_brown_spot	0.78	0.81	0.79	88
accuracy			0.75	710
macro avg	0.76	0.77	0.74	710
weighted avg	0.76	0.75	0.73	710

Fig 4.4: Precision, recall, F1score accuracies

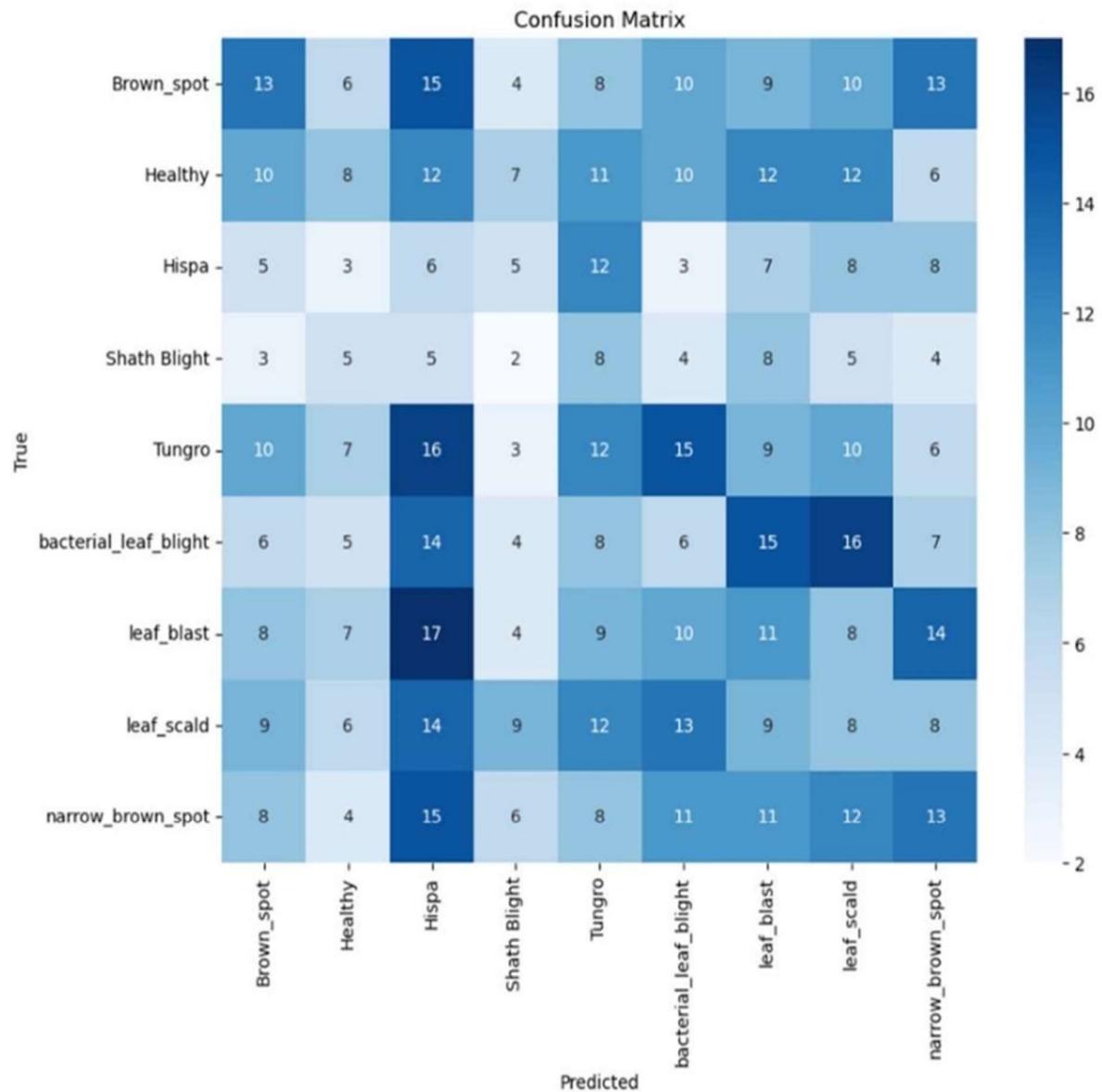


Fig 4.5: Confusion Matrix

## 5. LIMITATIONS

**Image Quality Sensitivity:** Model performance may degrade on blurry or poorly lit images.

**Dataset Size:** Limited dataset can restrict generalization to new or rare disease types.

**Environmental Factors:** Variations in background and lighting in real-world settings were not fully modelled.

**Class Confusion:** Visually similar diseases like *Brown Spot* and *Leaf Smut* occasionally get misclassified.



## **CHAPTER 5**

### **CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK**

#### **CONCLUSION**

This research underscores the transformative impact of deep learning, especially Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), in developing intelligent systems for early rice disease detection. By analyzing leaf images, the system can efficiently identify diseases such as brown spot, HISPA, and leaf blast, which are among the most common and damaging threats to rice crops. The model's ability to automatically learn and recognize disease patterns from raw images makes it a powerful tool for real-time agricultural support, reducing the reliance on manual inspection and expert involvement.

The performance metrics obtained during model evaluation show encouraging results, reflecting both high classification accuracy and reliable generalization during validation. However, like many deep learning models, limitations were observed when dealing with unseen data or images taken in uncontrolled conditions. Variability in lighting, background noise, leaf orientation, and subtle symptom differences can affect classification results. Additionally, reliance solely on visual data might not be sufficient in early-stage infections where symptoms are not yet clearly visible.

Future enhancements should focus on increasing the dataset's diversity by incorporating images collected from real-world agricultural fields under different weather and lighting conditions. This would improve the model's robustness and adaptability in practical scenarios. Another promising direction is the integration of multimodal data, such as temperature, humidity, and soil conditions, to provide a more holistic view of plant health and enable more accurate predictions even when visual cues are limited or unclear.

Furthermore, while this current system functions as a standalone image-based classification tool, its integration into mobile or edge devices can enhance accessibility for farmers in remote areas. With minimal infrastructure and real-time feedback, such a system could revolutionize how crop health is monitored and managed on the field.

In conclusion, this study sets a strong foundation for AI-driven solutions in precision agriculture. By enabling early, accurate, and scalable disease detection, such systems can empower farmers, minimize crop losses, ensure food security, and promote more sustainable farming practices worldwide.

## FUTURE WORK

This research sets the stage for several promising directions that can significantly enhance the effectiveness and applicability of plant disease detection systems in real-world agricultural settings. One of the key areas for improvement lies in expanding the dataset with more diverse and field-representative images. By including samples taken under various lighting conditions, weather variations, and environmental backgrounds, the model's ability to generalize and maintain accuracy across different scenarios can be greatly improved. Such diversity will enable the system to perform reliably outside controlled environments, making it more practical for everyday use by farmers.

Another important direction is the integration of multimodal sensor data into the detection pipeline. Incorporating additional information such as soil moisture, temperature, and humidity can offer deeper insights into the plant's overall health and the environmental conditions contributing to disease spread. This fusion of image data with sensory inputs will lead to a more comprehensive system that can recognize subtle or early-stage infections even when visual symptoms are limited or ambiguous.

To further strengthen the system's performance, advanced pre-processing techniques and image enhancement strategies can be implemented. These would help reduce noise and improve clarity in suboptimal image conditions, such as low light, motion blur, or occlusion. Additionally, the use of attention mechanisms or object detection frameworks within the deep learning model can help focus on the most relevant leaf areas, improving the accuracy of disease localization and classification.

A hybrid modeling approach combining CNNs with other deep learning architectures such as transformers or recurrent networks may also enhance feature learning and temporal understanding, particularly in datasets with time-sequenced inputs. By fusing various model strengths and leveraging multiple data sources, the system can evolve into a more adaptive and intelligent diagnostic tool.

Ultimately, these enhancements will contribute to the creation of AI-powered tools that are capable of real-time, in-field disease detection. With deployment on mobile devices or IoT-enabled platforms, such systems could offer instant feedback to farmers, supporting timely interventions, reducing crop loss, and encouraging more sustainable agricultural practices. The future lies in developing smart, scalable, and accessible technology that empowers farmers through the early and accurate identification of plant diseases.

## CHAPTER 6

### CODE

```
import os
import cv2
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import tensorflow as tf
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing.image import ImageDataGenerator
from tensorflow.keras.models import Model
from tensorflow.keras.layers import (
    Input, Conv2D, MaxPooling2D, Flatten, Dense, concatenate,
    Dropout, BatchNormalization
)
from tensorflow.keras.optimizers import Adam

def apply_gaussian_blur(image):
    return cv2.GaussianBlur(image, (5, 5), 0)

def preprocessing_function(image):
    image = np.array(image)
    image = apply_gaussian_blur(image) # Noise reduction
    return image / 255.0 # Normalize

batch_size = 32
img_size = (224, 224)

aug_gen = tf.keras.preprocessing.image.ImageDataGenerator(
    shear_range=0.2,
    zoom_range=0.2,
    rotation_range=20,
    horizontal_flip=True,
    fill_mode='constant',
```

```

width_shift_range=0.2,
height_shift_range=0.2,
preprocessing_function=preprocessing_function
)
aug_dataset = aug_gen.flow_from_directory(
    '/kaggle/input/extracted-dataset2/Extracted_dataset-2/train',
    target_size=img_size,
    color_mode='rgb',
    class_mode='categorical',
    batch_size=batch_size,
    shuffle=True,
    seed=1,
    interpolation='nearest',
    keep_aspect_ratio=False
)

val_gen = tf.keras.preprocessing.image.ImageDataGenerator(
    preprocessing_function=preprocessing_function
)

val_dataset = val_gen.flow_from_directory(
    '/kaggle/input/extracted-dataset2/Extracted_dataset-2/test',
    target_size=img_size,
    color_mode='rgb',
    class_mode='categorical',
    batch_size=batch_size,
    shuffle=True,
    seed=1,
    interpolation='nearest',
    keep_aspect_ratio=False
)

from tensorflow.keras.layers import GlobalAveragePooling2D
from tensorflow.keras.callbacks import EarlyStopping, ModelCheckpoint

```

```

input_layer = Input(shape=(224, 224, 3))

# Branch 1: 3x3 convs
x1 = Conv2D(32, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(input_layer)
x1 = BatchNormalization()(x1)
x1 = MaxPooling2D((2, 2))(x1)

x1 = Conv2D(64, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(x1)
x1 = BatchNormalization()(x1)
x1 = MaxPooling2D((2, 2))(x1)

x1 = Conv2D(128, (3, 3), activation='relu', padding='same')(x1)
x1 = BatchNormalization()(x1)
x1 = GlobalAveragePooling2D()(x1)

# Branch 2: 5x5 convs
x2 = Conv2D(32, (5, 5), activation='relu', padding='same')(input_layer)
x2 = BatchNormalization()(x2)
x2 = MaxPooling2D((2, 2))(x2)

x2 = Conv2D(64, (5, 5), activation='relu', padding='same')(x2)
x2 = BatchNormalization()(x2)
x2 = MaxPooling2D((2, 2))(x2)

x2 = Conv2D(128, (5, 5), activation='relu', padding='same')(x2)
x2 = BatchNormalization()(x2)
x2 = GlobalAveragePooling2D()(x2)

# Merge branches
merged = concatenate([x1, x2])
merged = Dense(256, activation='relu')(merged)
merged = Dropout(0.5)(merged)
merged = Dense(128, activation='relu')(merged)

```

```

merged = Dropout(0.5)(merged)
output = Dense(aug_dataset.num_classes, activation='softmax')(merged)

model = Model(inputs=input_layer, outputs=output)

# Re-compile with lower LR
model.compile(
    optimizer=Adam(learning_rate=1e-4),
    loss='categorical_crossentropy',
    metrics=['accuracy']
)
model.summary()

# Callbacks
callbacks = [
    EarlyStopping(monitor='val_loss', patience=5,
restore_best_weights=True),
    ModelCheckpoint('best_model.h5', save_best_only=True)
]

# Train
history = model.fit(
    aug_dataset,
    validation_data=val_dataset,
    epochs=50
)

from sklearn.metrics import classification_report, confusion_matrix,
ConfusionMatrixDisplay
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
import numpy as np

# === 1. Predict on the test set ===
y_true = val_dataset.classes

```

```

y_pred_probs = model.predict(val_dataset)
y_pred = np.argmax(y_pred_probs, axis=1)
class_labels = list(val_dataset.class_indices.keys())

# === 2. Classification Report ===
report = classification_report(y_true, y_pred, target_names=class_labels,
output_dict=True)
print(classification_report(y_true, y_pred, target_names=class_labels))

# === 3. Confusion Matrix ===
cm = confusion_matrix(y_true, y_pred)
plt.figure(figsize=(10, 8))
sns.heatmap(cm, annot=True, fmt='d', cmap='Blues',
xticklabels=class_labels, yticklabels=class_labels)
plt.title('Confusion Matrix')
plt.xlabel('Predicted')
plt.ylabel('True')
plt.show()

# === 4. Plot Precision, Recall, F1-score ===
metrics = ['precision', 'recall', 'f1-score']
colors = ['skyblue', 'lightgreen', 'salmon']

plt.figure(figsize=(12, 6))
for i, metric in enumerate(metrics):
    values = [report[label][metric] for label in class_labels]
    plt.bar(np.arange(len(class_labels)) + i*0.25, values, width=0.25,
label=metric, color=colors[i])

plt.xticks(np.arange(len(class_labels)) + 0.25, class_labels, rotation=45)
plt.ylabel('Score')
plt.title('Precision, Recall, F1-score per Class')
plt.legend()
plt.tight_layout()
plt.show()

```

```
# === 5. Accuracy and Loss Graphs ===
```

```
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 4))
```

```
plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
```

```
plt.plot(history.history['accuracy'], label='Train Accuracy')
```

```
plt.plot(history.history['val_accuracy'], label='Val Accuracy')
```

```
plt.title('Accuracy Over Epochs')
```

```
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
```

```
plt.ylabel('Accuracy')
```

```
plt.legend()
```

```
plt.subplot(1, 2, 2)
```

```
plt.plot(history.history['loss'], label='Train Loss')
```

```
plt.plot(history.history['val_loss'], label='Val Loss')
```

```
plt.title('Loss Over Epochs')
```

```
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
```

```
plt.ylabel('Loss')
```

```
plt.legend()
```

```
plt.tight_layout()
```

```
plt.show()
```

```
import numpy as np
```

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

```
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing import image
```

```
import cv2
```

```
def load_and_preprocess_image(img_path):
```

```
    img = cv2.imread(img_path)
```

```
    img = cv2.resize(img, (224, 224))
```

```
    img = cv2.cvtColor(img, cv2.COLOR_BGR2RGB)
```

```
    img = img / 255.0 # Normalize
```



```

    return np.expand_dims(img, axis=0), img # (for model, for display)

def predict_and_display(img_path, model, class_labels):
    img_input, img_display = load_and_preprocess_image(img_path)
    prediction = model.predict(img_input)
    predicted_class = class_labels[np.argmax(prediction)]

    plt.imshow(img_display)
    plt.axis('off')
    plt.title(f'Predicted: {predicted_class}')
    plt.show()

# === Example usage ===
# Update this to your test image path
test_img_path = "///kaggle//input//extracted-dataset2//Extracted_dataset-
2//test//leaf_blast//leaf_blast_val (11).jpg"

# Assuming class_labels = list(test_generator.class_indices.keys())
predict_and_display(test_img_path, model, class_labels)

import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing import image
import cv2

def load_and_preprocess_image(img_path):
    img = cv2.imread(img_path)
    img = cv2.resize(img, (224, 224))
    img = cv2.cvtColor(img, cv2.COLOR_BGR2RGB)
    img = img / 255.0 # Normalize
    return np.expand_dims(img, axis=0), img # (for model, for display)

def predict_and_display(img_path, model, class_labels):
    img_input, img_display = load_and_preprocess_image(img_path)
    prediction = model.predict(img_input)

```

```

predicted_class = class_labels[np.argmax(prediction)]

plt.imshow(img_display)
plt.axis('off')
plt.title(f'Predicted: {predicted_class}')
plt.show()

# === Example usage ===
# Update this to your test image path
test_img_path = "/kaggle/input/extracted-dataset2/Extracted_dataset-2/test/Tungro/TUNGRO2_016.jpg"

# Assuming class_labels = list(test_generator.class_indices.keys())
predict_and_display(test_img_path, model, class_labels)

import tensorflow as tf
from tensorflow.keras.applications import EfficientNetB0
from tensorflow.keras.layers import Dense, Dropout, GlobalAveragePooling2D
from tensorflow.keras.models import Model
from tensorflow.keras.preprocessing.image import ImageDataGenerator
from tensorflow.keras.callbacks import EarlyStopping, ModelCheckpoint, ReduceLROnPlateau, LearningRateScheduler
from tensorflow.keras.regularizers import l2
from tensorflow.keras.optimizers import Adam
from sklearn.utils.class_weight import compute_class_weight
import numpy as np
import math

# Constants
IMG_SIZE = (224, 224) # EfficientNetB0 default input size
BATCH_SIZE = 32
EPOCHS = 50
INITIAL_LR = 0.001

```

# 1. Enhanced Data Pipeline -----

```
def preprocess_image(image):
    return image / 255.0 # Normalize to [0,1]

train_datagen = ImageDataGenerator(
    rotation_range=40,
    width_shift_range=0.2,
    height_shift_range=0.2,
    shear_range=0.2,
    zoom_range=0.3,
    horizontal_flip=True,
    brightness_range=[0.8, 1.2],
    preprocessing_function=preprocess_image
)

val_datagen = ImageDataGenerator(
    preprocessing_function=preprocess_image
)

# Create generators without .repeat()
train_generator = train_datagen.flow_from_directory(
    '/kaggle/input/my-dataset/Extracted_dataset-2/train',
    target_size=IMG_SIZE,
    batch_size=BATCH_SIZE,
    class_mode='categorical',
    shuffle=True,
    seed=42
)

val_generator = val_datagen.flow_from_directory(
    '/kaggle/input/my-dataset/Extracted_dataset-2/test',
    target_size=IMG_SIZE,
    batch_size=BATCH_SIZE,
```

```

        class_mode='categorical',
        shuffle=False
    )

# 2. Optimized Model Architecture -----
base_model = EfficientNetB0(
    weights='imagenet',
    include_top=False,
    input_shape=(IMG_SIZE[0], IMG_SIZE[1], 3)
)

# Freeze base layers but keep BatchNorm trainable
for layer in base_model.layers:
    if isinstance(layer, tf.keras.layers.BatchNormalization):
        layer.trainable = True
    else:
        layer.trainable = False

# Enhanced classification head

x = GlobalAveragePooling2D()
(base_model.output)
x = Dense(256, activation='swish', kernel_regularizer=l2(0.01))
(x)
x = Dropout(0.5)(x)
predictions =
Dense(train_generator.num_classes, activation='softmax')(x)

model = Model(inputs=base_model.input, outputs=predictions)

# 3. Learning Rate Schedule -----
def lr_scheduler(epoch, lr):
    """Reduces learning rate by 10% every 5 epochs"""

```

```

if epoch > 0 and epoch % 5 == 0:
    return lr * 0.9
return lr

```

#### # 4. Model Compilation -----

```

model.compile(
    optimizer=Adam(learning_rate=INITIAL_LR),
    loss=tf.keras.losses.CategoricalCrossentropy(label_smoothing=0.1),
    metrics=['accuracy',
             tf.keras.metrics.Precision(name='precision'),
             tf.keras.metrics.Recall(name='recall')]
)

```

#### # 5. Callbacks -----

```

callbacks = [
    EarlyStopping(monitor='val_accuracy',
                  patience=15, restore_best_weights=True, mode='max'),
    ModelCheckpoint('best_model_effnetb0.keras',
                    monitor='val_accuracy',
                    save_best_only=True,
                    mode='max'),
    ReduceLROnPlateau(monitor='val_loss', factor=0.5, patience=5,
                      min_lr=1e-6),
    LearningRateScheduler(lr_scheduler)
]

```

#### # 6. Class Weight Balancing -----

```

# Create temporary generator for class weights (without augmentation)
temp_generator = train_datagen.flow_from_directory(
    '/kaggle/input/my-dataset/Extracted_dataset-2/train',
    target_size=IMG_SIZE,
    batch_size=BATCH_SIZE,
    class_mode='categorical',
    shuffle=False
)

```

```

)

class_weights = compute_class_weight(
    'balanced',
    classes=np.unique(temp_generator.classes),
    y=temp_generator.classes
)
class_weights = dict(enumerate(class_weights))

# 7. Training -----
history = model.fit(
    train_generator,
    steps_per_epoch=math.ceil(train_generator.samples / BATCH_SIZE),
    validation_data=val_generator,
    validation_steps=math.ceil(val_generator.samples / BATCH_SIZE),
    epochs=EPOCHS,
    callbacks=callbacks,
    class_weight=class_weights,
    verbose=1
)

# 5. Evaluation and Analysis -----

# Generate predictions
val_preds = model.predict(val_generator)
val_pred_classes = np.argmax(val_preds, axis=1)
val_true_classes = val_generator.classes
class_labels = list(val_generator.class_indices.keys())

# Classification report
print("\nClassification Report:")
print(classification_report(val_true_classes,
    val_pred_classes, target_names=class_labels))

# Confusion matrix

```

```

print("\nConfusion Matrix:")
print(confusion_matrix(val_true_classes, val_pred_classes))

# Plot training history
plt.figure(figsize=(12, 5))
plt.subplot(1, 2, 1)
plt.plot(history.history['accuracy'], label='Train Accuracy')
plt.plot(history.history['val_accuracy'], label='Validation Accuracy')
plt.title('Model Accuracy')
plt.ylabel('Accuracy')
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
plt.legend()

plt.subplot(1, 2, 2)
plt.plot(history.history['loss'], label='Train Loss')
plt.plot(history.history['val_loss'], label='Validation Loss')
plt.title('Model Loss')
plt.ylabel('Loss')
plt.xlabel('Epoch')
plt.legend()
plt.show()

# Visualize some misclassified examples
misclassified = np.where(val_pred_classes != val_true_classes)[0]
plt.figure(figsize=(15, 10))
for i, idx in enumerate(misclassified[:9]):
    img_path = val_generator.filepaths[idx]
    img = cv2.imread(img_path)
    img = cv2.cvtColor(img, cv2.COLOR_BGR2RGB)
    img = cv2.resize(img, IMG_SIZE)

    plt.subplot(3, 3, i+1)
    plt.imshow(img)

```

```
plt.title(f"True:    {class_labels[val_true_classes[idx]]}\nPred:  
{class_labels[val_pred_classes[idx]]}")  
plt.axis('off')  
plt.tight_layout()  
plt.show()
```



## CHAPTER 7

### APPENDIX

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