

# 1           **ASAP: A Hybrid Computer Platform Using Machine** 2           **Learning and Solar Imaging for Automated Prediction of** 3           **Solar Flares**

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## 7           **Abstract**

8           The importance of real-time processing of solar data especially for space weather  
9           applications is increasing continuously. In this paper, we present an automated hybrid  
10          computer platform for the short-term prediction of significant solar flares using SOHO/MDI  
11          images. This platform is called the Automated Solar Activity Prediction tool, or simply  
12          ASAP. This system integrates image processing and machine learning to deliver these  
13          predictions. A machine learning-based system is designed to analyze years of sunspot and  
14          flare data to create associations that can be represented using computer-based learning rules.  
15          An imaging-based real time system that provides automated detection, grouping and then  
16          classification of recent sunspots based on the McIntosh classification is also created and  
17          integrated within this system. The properties of the sunspot regions are extracted  
18          automatically by the imaging system and processed using the machine learning rules to  
19          generate the real-time predictions. Several performance measurement criteria are used and the  
20          results are provided in this paper. Also, Quadratic Score (QR) is used to compare the  
21          prediction results of ASAP with NOAA Space Weather Prediction Center (SWPC) between

22 1999 and 2002, and it is shown that ASAP generates more accurate predictions compared to  
23 SWPC.

## 24 **1 Introduction**

25 Space weather is defined by the U.S. National Space Weather Program (NSWP) as  
26 “conditions on the Sun and in the solar wind, magnetosphere, ionosphere, and thermosphere  
27 that can influence the performance and reliability of space-borne and ground-based  
28 technological systems and can endanger human life or health” (Koskinen et al., 2001). The  
29 importance of understanding space weather is increasing because extreme solar eruptions  
30 could affect our daily life activities. For example, there is a steadily increasing reliance on  
31 communications and power systems, both vulnerable to space weather.

32 The most dramatic solar activity events affecting the terrestrial environment are solar  
33 flares and Coronal Mass Ejections (CMEs) (Pick et al., 2001). Solar flares and CMEs are  
34 solar eruptions that can spew vast quantities of radiation and charged particles into space  
35 (Lenz, 2004). The ability to predict major solar storms can give companies sufficient lead  
36 time to implement preventive measures (Lenz, 2004). Satellite operators, space agencies,  
37 aviation industry, power generation and distribution industry, oil and gas industry and  
38 railways can benefit from an effective space weather prediction system

39 Solar activity is the driver of space weather. An efficient approach for the prediction of  
40 solar activities should use real-time, high-quality data and data processing techniques (Wang  
41 et al., 2003). We designed an automated space weather prediction service that combines solar  
42 physics with advanced image processing and machine learning techniques. Warning of  
43 eruptions can be initiated if appropriate instruments to observe the Sun, are combined with  
44 efficient data processing techniques. Predicting solar flares is important for space weather  
45 applications. These warnings could also provide indirect prediction for some energetic

46 particle events. This could provide useful lead time because some of these events can be seen  
47 at Earth within 10-15 minutes of the occurrence of the flare. Furthermore, if the prediction  
48 system generates low flaring probability with a high degree of confidence, one can argue that  
49 the probability for an energetic particle event is low. Such prediction could be useful for all  
50 those applications affected by energetic particles.

51 There are various research groups and organizations scattered around the world that are  
52 working on solar analysis and forecasting. These analyses and forecasts are typically  
53 subjective and depend mainly on the expert knowledge which may lead to occasional  
54 inconsistencies in performance. On the other hand, objective computerized analysis of solar  
55 images can provide automated processing and relatively consistent performance by using the  
56 large computational capabilities of modern computers to analyze and compare large amounts  
57 of recent and historical data. However, the real challenge today is to design high-performance  
58 and accurate computer-based systems.

59 To our knowledge, there has been no fully automated system that can provide real-time  
60 prediction of significant solar flares. The accuracies of the previous semi-automated systems  
61 that have been designed are generally lower compared to the performance provided by  
62 subjective analysis. For example, WOLF (Miller, 1988) is an expert system that has been  
63 created to analyze active regions and sunspots and then predict the probability of solar flare  
64 occurrence. WOLF has a knowledge base consisting of a set of “if-then” rules and an  
65 inference engine which applies these rules. Manual user interaction is required to provide a  
66 description for the observed active region and sunspots. WOLF would then determine the  
67 McIntosh classification for the associated sunspot and hence, the probability of the described  
68 group producing a flare of specified X-ray intensity.

69 THEO (McIntosh, 1990) is another expert system that is also based on the McIntosh  
70 classification system, but includes information on spot growth, rotation and shear, and  
71 inferred magnetic topology. ARM (Active Region Monitor) is an another solar flare  
72 forecasting system that has been developed to estimate the probability for a certain active  
73 region to produce C-, M-, or X-class flares . The percentage probabilities are based on the  
74 number of flares produced by regions classified by NOAA using the McIntosh classification  
75 scheme during cycle 22 (Gallagher et al., 2002). All these systems are not fully automated as  
76 they require user interaction to provide the properties and classifications of active regions as  
77 inputs and are not designed to extract data from solar images directly or automatically.

78 In this paper we introduce our fully automated pilot system called ASAP (Automated  
79 Solar Activity Prediction), which integrates image processing, machine learning and solar  
80 physics to provide automated prediction of solar flares based on the characteristics of  
81 sunspots. The prediction system is composed of two major stages: an image processing  
82 system and a machine learning system. The imaging system processes MDI continuum and  
83 magnetogram images in real-time to detect and classify sunspot groups and then determine  
84 their properties. The machine learning system is trained using historical sunspot and flare  
85 data. Association algorithms are designed to associate flares with the sunspot groups that  
86 caused them and to create training sets that are used to train the learning algorithms and  
87 produce computerized learning rules. We will demonstrate the reliability of this system by  
88 testing it on recent solar images and comparing the generated predictions with the actual solar  
89 flares reported in solar catalogues.

90 This paper is organized as follows: Section 2 describes the imaging system that is  
91 responsible for the automated grouping and classification of sunspots, Section 3 describes the  
92 machine learning system that is trained on historical sunspot and flare data. The integration,

93 performance and evaluation of the whole system are discussed in Section 4. The concluding  
94 remarks and suggestions for future work are presented in Section 5.

## 95 **2 Sunspot Detection and Classification**

96 A computer system that can automatically detect, group, and classify sunspots based on  
97 the McIntosh classification was presented in (Colak and Qahwaji, 2008). This system applies  
98 imaging techniques to SOHO/MDI continuum and magnetogram images to detect sunspot  
99 regions and extract their properties including their McIntosh classifications. In this work, this  
100 system for the first time is integrated with a machine learning-based system to provide real-  
101 time prediction for the possible occurrence of flares, as described in the next section.

### 102 **2.1 SOHO MDI images**

103 The MDI instrument on SOHO provides routine observations of the Sun in the white  
104 light continuum, in the vicinity of the Ni I 6767.8 Å photospheric absorption line. The  
105 instrument images the sun with a 1024x1024 CCD camera (Scherrer et al., 1995). MDI  
106 continuum images may be used as a white light equivalent for the purposes of sunspot  
107 observations. SOHO provides two to four MDI intensitygram images per day and twice as  
108 many magnetogram images with coverage which has been continuous since 1995.

109 MDI magnetogram images are used to measure the velocity and line-of-sight magnetic  
110 flux density in the Sun's photosphere. The magnetogram images show the magnetic flux  
111 density of the solar photosphere, with black and white areas indicating opposite magnetic  
112 polarities. The dark areas are regions of negative magnetic polarity (pointing toward the Sun)  
113 and the white regions have positive magnetic polarity (pointing outward). These images can  
114 be used for detecting active regions.

## 115 **2.2 Summary of sunspot detection and classification algorithms**

116 The detailed description, design, implementation and evaluation of this part of the  
117 system was presented in (Colak and Qahwaji, 2008). Our automated sunspot detection,  
118 grouping and classification algorithm consists of three main stages: pre-processing, sunspot  
119 detection and grouping, and sunspot classification. These stages can be summarized as  
120 follows:

### 121 Pre-processing of MDI images

122 Stage-1 processing: Applied to both continuum and magnetogram images.

- 123 ○ Detect the solar disk, determine its radius and centre, create a mask and remove any  
124 information or marks (i.e., date and direction) from the image using the mask.
- 125 ○ Calculate the Julian date and solar coordinates (The position angle, heliographic latitude,  
126 heliographic longitude) for the image using the equations in (Meeus, 1998).

127 Stage-2 processing: Applied only to magnetogram images.

- 128 ○ Map the magnetogram image from Heliocentric-Cartesian coordinates to Carrington  
129 Heliographic coordinates.
- 130 ○ Re-map the image to Heliocentric-Cartesian coordinates. Use centre, radius and solar  
131 coordinates of the continuum image as the new centre, radius and solar coordinates of the  
132 magnetogram image.

### 133 Sunspot grouping (Figure 1)

- 134 ○ Detect sunspot candidates from MDI continuum images using intensity thresholding.
- 135 ○ Detect active region candidates from MDI magnetogram images using morphological  
136 image processing algorithms like intensity filtering, dilation and erosion. More

137 information about the use of these algorithms for the detection of active regions can be  
138 found in (Colak and Qahwaji, 2008). The MDI magnetogram images show the footprint of  
139 the magnetic fields of the solar photosphere, with dark and light areas indicating opposite  
140 magnetic polarities. These dark and light areas are detected separately and combined  
141 afterwards to determine the active region candidates.

142 ○ Apply region growing to combine sunspot and active region candidates. In the region  
143 growing technique small areas of candidate pixels are iteratively merged according to  
144 similarity constraints. This technique is described in (Colak and Qahwaji, 2008).

145 ○ Use neural networks to combine regions of opposite magnetic polarities in order to  
146 determine the exact boundaries of sunspot groups.

147 ○ Mark the detected sunspot groups.

#### 148 McIntosh-based classification

149 ○ Extract local features from every sunspot in every group using image processing and  
150 neural networks.

151 ○ Extract the length, height and area of the sunspot.

152 ○ Use neural networks to determine the type of penumbra (i.e., Mature or  
153 Rudimentary) and whether the sunspot is Symmetric or Asymmetric.

154 ○ Extract features from each sunspot group using image processing. The extracted features  
155 are length, largest spot, polarity and distribution.

156 ○ Apply all the extracted features to a decision tree to determine their McIntosh  
157 classification.

### 158 **3 Solar Flare Prediction using Machine Learning**

159 Solar flare research has shown that flares are closely related to sunspots and active  
160 regions. A survey of the solar physics literature describing the association between flares and  
161 sunspots was presented in (Qahwaji and Colak, 2007).

162 The system we introduce here extracts the information embedded in historical data (i.e.,  
163 solar catalogues) and represents it in computerized learning rules that enable computers to  
164 analyze current solar data and provide objective predictions. The implementation of this  
165 system is discussed below.

#### 166 **3.1 Knowledge Representation of Historical Data**

167 Data from the publicly available sunspot group catalogue and the solar flare catalogue  
168 provided by the National Geophysical Data Centre (NGDC) are compared to find the  
169 associations between sunspots and flares. NGDC keeps records of data from several  
170 observatories around the world and holds one of the most comprehensive publicly available  
171 databases for solar features and activity. The NGDC flare catalogue provides information  
172 about dates, starting and ending times for flare eruptions, location, x-ray classification, and  
173 the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA) number for the active regions  
174 that are associated with the detected flares, while the NGDC sunspot catalogue provides  
175 information about the date, time, location, physical properties, and classification of sunspot  
176 groups. This sunspot catalogue has sunspot data from different observatories around the  
177 world and sometimes includes several observations of the same sunspot group for different  
178 times of day.

179 Both catalogues are investigated to associate solar flares with the sunspot groups that  
180 have caused them. All the reported flares and sunspots for the periods from 1<sup>st</sup> January 1982



181 till 31<sup>st</sup> December 2006, which includes 36736 solar flares (32151 C-class, 4258 M-class and  
182 337 X-class) and 186324 sunspot groups, are analyzed using the association algorithm  
183 described in (Qahwaji and Colak, 2007). The association algorithm is based on comparing the  
184 NOAA number and occurrence time of sunspot groups and solar flares. The algorithm would  
185 associate a sunspot group and a solar flare, only if their NOAA numbers are same and if solar  
186 flare is observed within 24 hours after the sunspot group is observed. Before applying the  
187 algorithm, these catalogues are first analyzed using a computer program to check if the  
188 recorded sunspot groups have NOAA numbers, location information, and classification  
189 information. In some cases, some of the sunspot groups in the NGDC catalogue have invalid  
190 McIntosh classifications, as shown in Table 1. We have modified our computer program to  
191 verify if the reported sunspot group classifications on the NGDC sunspot catalogue are valid  
192 McIntosh classifications. After eliminating the sunspot groups that have missing or wrong  
193 entries in the sunspot catalogue, as shown in Table 1, the available number of sunspot groups  
194 has been reduced to 166719. It was also found that only 21713 solar flares (18136 C-class,  
195 3272 M,-class, and 305 X-class) out of 36736 flares have NOAA numbers in the NGDC solar  
196 flare catalogue.

197 **Table 1:** Some examples of wrong McIntosh classes and/or missing data in the NGDC catalogue for  
198 the first months of 1982.

11820101	1249	S19W73	B	3532	CXO	4	4	130	811227.0	811227.3	517	3RAMY
11820114	0125	N03E26	B	3550	BXX	2	3		820116.0	820115.9	22	3LEAR
11820117	0055	S08W26	B	3553	HSO	8	7	20	820115.1	820115.0	25	4LEAR
11820118	1600	N09E30	A	3552	FSX	1	1	50	820120.9	820121.0	402	3BOUL
11820118	1600	S11W27	BG	3549	DS	10	7	200	820116.6	820117.0	399	3BOUL
11820118	1600	S14W13	B	3559	DA	8	7	280	820117.7	820117.7	405	3BOUL
11820127	1605	N09E47	B	3573	CKX	9	9	350	820131.2	820201.0	418	3BOUL
11820210	1931	S08E06	BD	3603	CKC	32	10	450	820211.3	820211.3	71	3HOLL
11820215	1500	N13E70	B	3610	C O	3	6	20	820220.9	820221.1	79	2HOLL
11820217	1555	N06E19	A	3612B	RX	1		10	820219.1	820219.2	455	3BOUL
11820304	1400	N13W37	B	3625	DK	7	6	610	820301.8	820302.0	82	3RAMY

199

200 The association algorithm has managed to associate a total of 37515 sunspot groups with solar  
201 flares using their NOAA numbers and the 24 hours time difference. These 37515 sunspot  
202 groups are associated with 72727 C-class solar flares, 12103 M-class solar flares, and 1081 X-  
203 class solar flares. The difference between the total number of solar flares and the number of  
204 associated sunspots is caused by the fact that a sunspot group could produce more than one  
205 solar flare within the 24 hours time period. Also, there are multiple observations (3 to 4  
206 observations per day) of the sunspot groups that are included in the NGDC sunspots  
207 catalogue. Hence, a solar flare can be associated with the same sunspot group that is reported  
208 more than once within 24 hours.

### 209 **3.2 The Flare Prediction system**

210 The learning system introduced in this work is inspired by our previous work in  
211 (Qahwaji and Colak, 2007). Learning algorithms such as Neural Network (NN), Support  
212 Vector Machines (SVM) and Radial Bases Functions (RBF) were optimized, trained and then  
213 compared for flare predictions in (Qahwaji and Colak, 2007). In this work, features such as  
214 McIntosh classifications and daily sunspot numbers were used as inputs to the learning  
215 algorithms. The training and generalization performances of the learning algorithms were  
216 evaluated using testing tools such as the Jack-knife technique (Fukunaga, 1990). In this paper  
217 we are using the area of sunspot groups together with the McIntosh classes as inputs to the  
218 learning algorithms in order to generate predictions for the C-class, M-class and X-class  
219 flares.

220 Our solar flare prediction algorithm is composed of two Neural Network (NN) systems  
221 that are working together as illustrated in Figure 2. The first NN uses the numerical  
222 representations of the three parts of the McIntosh classification for the sunspot region under

223 consideration together with its sunspot area as inputs. It generates the probability that this  
 224 sunspot region will produce a C-class, M-class or X-class solar flare in the next 24 hours.  
 225 Hence, this NN has four input nodes and one output node and is trained using sunspot regions  
 226 and solar flare associations as described in the previous section. The training vector for this  
 227 NN contains numerical values representing the four inputs and their corresponding target as  
 228 shown in Table 2. The target represents the actual “FLARE” / “NO FLARE” cases. For  
 229 example, if there is a sunspot region with a McIntosh classification of FKI and an area of 600  
 230 in millionths of solar hemisphere that is associated with a C-class, M-class or X-class flare  
 231 then the training vector will be [0.9, 0.9, 0.5, 0.24; **0.9**].

232 Table 2: Inputs and output values for first neural network used for determining the flaring  
 233 probability.

Inputs			Output
McIntosh classes			Normalized (with 2500) sunspot area
A= 0.10 H= 0.15 B= 0.30 C= 0.45 D= 0.60 E= 0.75 F= 0.90	X= 0 R=0.10 S=0.30 A=0.50 H=0.70 K=0.90	X=0 O=0.10 I=0.50 C=0.90	
			FLARE =0.9 NO FLARE= 0.1

234 When the first NN predicts that a flare is going to occur, the second NN is activated to  
 235 determine whether the predicted flare is going to be C-class, M-class and/or X-class flare. The  
 236 second NN is trained using a new training set that contains only the sunspot groups that were  
 237 associated with C-class, M-class and X-class flares. Hence, the second NN consists of four  
 238 inputs and three outputs. The first, second and third outputs represent the C-class, M-class and  
 239 X-class flares, respectively. These outputs are assigned as described below:

240 If the sunspot group is associated only with a C-class flare, then the first output will be  
 241 0.9 otherwise it will be 0.1.

242 If the sunspot group is associated only with a M-class flare, then the second output  
243 will be 0.9 otherwise 0.1.

244 If the sunspot group is associated only with a X-class flare, then the third output will  
245 be 0.9 otherwise 0.1.

246 If the sunspot group is associated with more than one type of solar flare, all the  
247 corresponding outputs (first output for C-class, second output for M-class, and third output for  
248 X-class) will be 0.9 otherwise 0.1.

249 For example, if there is a sunspot region with a McIntosh classification of EKI and an area of  
250 500 in millionths of solar hemisphere that is associated only with C-class and M-class solar  
251 flares at the same time then the training vector will be [0.75, 0.9, 0.5, 0.20; **0.9, 0.9, 0.1**].

### 252 **3.3 Optimization of the Neutral Networks Prediction System**

253 The two neural networks are optimized by finding the minimum Mean Squared Error  
254 (MSE) during training for different NN topologies. MSE is calculated using Equation (1):

$$255 \quad \text{MSE} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n (p_i - r_i)^2 \quad (1)$$

256 Where,  $n$  is the total number of examples in the training vector,  $p_i$  is the calculated  
257 value of each output for the inputs given in the training vector, and  $r_i$  is the real output value  
258 given in the training vector.

259 Several training experiments are carried out while changing the number of nodes in the  
260 hidden layer from 1 to 20. For every new experiment the MSE of the training is recorded and  
261 the number of hidden nodes with the least MSE is chosen. Both networks are optimized by  
262 using one hidden layer with ten nodes for the first NN and twelve nodes for the second NN.

## 263 **4 Practical Implementation and Evaluation of the Hybrid System**

264 The imaging and machine learning systems are integrated for the hybrid solar flare  
265 prediction system. The final system is shown in Figure 3. The complete integrated hybrid  
266 system provides automated prediction of solar flares from MDI images. The system starts its  
267 real-time operations by processing SOHO/MDI continuum and magnetogram images in the  
268 manner explained in Section 2 to provide automated McIntosh classifications for the detected  
269 sunspots. Then the McIntosh classified sunspots and their calculated areas are fed to the  
270 machine learning system described in Section 3 which is trained with 14 years of data after  
271 applying the association algorithm. Based on the embedded learning rules the system predicts  
272 if a solar flare is going to occur or not. If a major solar flare is predicted then the probability  
273 of this solar flare to be C-class, M-class or X-class flare is also predicted. The entire system is  
274 implemented in C++. It takes about 15 seconds to process the latest SOHO/MDI continuum  
275 and magnetogram images and generate these predictions. A working version of this system is  
276 currently available at <http://spaceweather.inf.brad.ac.uk/>. This version is real-time, fully  
277 automated and web-compliant.

### 278 **4.1 Evaluation of the System**

279 The performance of the hybrid system was evaluated by comparing the generated  
280 predictions with the actual flares as reported by NOAA SWPC<sup>1</sup> in the NGDC X-ray solar  
281 flare catalogue. The system was tested on solar MDI intensitygram images from February 1,  
282 1999 to December 31, 2002. This period included intervals of high solar activity that  
283 produced a considerable number of C-class, M-class and X-class solar flares and investigating  
284 periods of high-activity is important for the effective evaluation of our system.

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<sup>1</sup> <http://www.swpc.noaa.gov/>

285           There were 5267 MDI continuum (intensitygram) images available during this period at  
286 a cadence of four images per day. These MDI continuum images and their corresponding  
287 5267 MDI magnetogram images were processed using the hybrid system and a sunspot  
288 catalogue was created which we refer to as the Automated Sunspot Catalogue (ASC). Parts of  
289 the ASC are shown in Table 3. All the automatically detected and classified sunspot groups,  
290 which are taken for April 1, 2001 at 00:00 and at 06:24, along with their flaring probabilities  
291 are provided. It is known that smaller flares occur more frequently than larger flares.  
292 However, our hybrid system could generate higher X-class flare probability compared to M-  
293 class probability for some sunspot groups. An example for this can be seen for the FK C  
294 sunspot group detected on N17W36 at 00:00 and on N17W40 at 06:24. These probabilities  
295 are generated by NNs which are trained with years of historical data representing sunspot  
296 groups and their associated solar flares. After convergence in training is reached, the NN  
297 accepts new set of inputs and generates outputs based on the learning rules and weights  
298 formed during training. From these outputs it can be understood that most of the groups with  
299 FK C classification and with an area of around 1500 square degrees are more likely to produce  
300 a X-class flare than M-class flare when the historical associations are considered. In addition  
301 to the ASC, the hybrid system displays its predictions on a web page as shown in Figure 4.  
302 The generated images show the detected sunspot groups and their flaring probabilities.

303           In order to test the hybrid system we compared the solar flare predictions of each  
304 sunspot group in ASC to the x-ray solar flares reported in the NGDC solar flare catalogues.  
305 Between February 1, 1999 and December 31, 2002 there were 5175 reported C-class, M-class  
306 and X-class solar flares with location information. Out of these 5175 solar flares 4469 of them  
307 were C-class, 663 of them were M-class and 43 of them were X- class flares.

308 Table 3: The Automated Sunspot Catalogue (ASC). L (Length of the sunspot group), N  
309 (Number of sunspots within the group), F (Flaring Probability), C (Probability of the flare to  
310 be C class), M (Probability of the flare to be M class), X (Probability of the flare to be X  
311 class).

Date	Time	Loc.	Class	N.	L.	Area	F.	C.	M.	X.
01/04/01	00:00	N25E28	HKX	1	4	132	0.158	0.136	0.121	0.079
01/04/01	00:00	N17W36	FKC	43	37	1440	0.746	0.635	0.203	0.322
01/04/01	00:00	N11E27	CSO	6	9	79	0.084	0.076	0.064	0.019
01/04/01	00:00	N08W04	HRX	1	1	1	0.113	0.102	0.030	0.014
01/04/01	00:00	S05E08	DSO	18	6	74	0.099	0.091	0.073	0.013
01/04/01	00:00	S10W16	FKC	35	35	450	0.648	0.578	0.516	0.269
01/04/01	00:00	S11W72	BXO	6	8	49	0.108	0.095	0.076	0.053
01/04/01	00:00	S13E64	AXX	1	1	153	0.103	0.092	0.014	0.000
01/04/01	00:00	S24E23	BXO	2	1	3	0.108	0.095	0.082	0.055
01/04/01	00:00	S36E30	AXX	1	1	4	0.116	0.103	0.027	0.016
01/04/01	06:24	N25E25	HKX	1	4	134	0.158	0.136	0.121	0.079
01/04/01	06:24	N17W40	FKC	41	37	1558	0.750	0.624	0.036	0.204
01/04/01	06:24	N11E24	CSO	5	9	65	0.080	0.073	0.062	0.019
01/04/01	06:24	N10W07	CAO	3	3	28	0.078	0.070	0.058	0.039
01/04/01	06:24	S01W30	BXO	2	1	9	0.108	0.095	0.082	0.054
01/04/01	06:24	S05E04	DSO	17	6	128	0.119	0.109	0.091	0.017
01/04/01	06:24	S09W19	FKO	29	35	533	0.593	0.509	0.543	0.291
01/04/01	06:24	S12W75	BXO	2	6	68	0.108	0.095	0.073	0.052
01/04/01	06:24	S13E60	AXX	1	1	151	0.103	0.092	0.014	0.000

312  
313 In order to associate the sunspot groups detected by our algorithms with x-ray solar flares  
314 reported in the NGDC catalogue, we had to modify the association algorithm, introduced in  
315 (Qahwaji and Colak, 2007), to compare sunspots and solar flares based on their locations  
316 (latitude and longitude) not their NOAA numbers. The new modifications are necessary  
317 because the sunspot groups in ASC do not have NOAA numbers. Also, not all the solar flares  
318 reported in NGDC flare catalogue have location information and these solar flares are not  
319 included in this study. The association algorithm that we have used here is explained below:

- 320 • Read all the sunspot groups and their solar flare predictions as reported in ASC.

- 321 • Read the actual M and X-class flares with location information as reported in the NGDC  
322 solar flare catalogue.
- 323 • Carry out extensive search to associate each actual flare with its corresponding sunspot  
324 group by comparing their longitude, latitude, and time information. In order to confirm  
325 that a sunspot group and a solar flare are associated the following criteria must be met:
- 326 ○ The difference in time between the detected sunspot group and its associated flare  
327 must be less than 6, 12, 24, 48, and 72 hours, depending on the forecast lead time  
328 objective.
  - 329 ○ Sunspot group locations must be corrected for solar rotation (The new coordinates  
330 are calculated using Carrington Heliographic coordinates) depending on the time  
331 difference between sunspot group and solar flare under consideration
  - 332 ○ The solar flare must be within the 10 degree radius of corrected sunspot location.
- 333 • If all the criteria are satisfied then this sunspot group is highlighted as being associated  
334 with a solar flare, otherwise it is considered not to be associated.

335 After the completion of the association process the prediction performance is evaluated  
336 using various verification measures as explained below.

## 337 **4.2 Verification Results**

338 The hybrid system generates predictions in numerical format, between 0.0 and 1.0, as  
339 shown in Table 3. In order to evaluate the predictions of the hybrid system several measures  
340 are used. Some of these measures require forecast probabilities and some of them require  
341 categorical forecasts (Yes/No) as inputs for assessing the outputs of the hybrid system. For  
342 the measures that require forecast probabilities the outputs of the hybrid system are used by  
343 directly converting them to percentages. For example, if the flaring output of the system is



344 0.23, it is assumed that the sunspot group under consideration has a 23% flaring probability.  
345 As for categorical forecasts (Yes/No); a threshold value of 0.5 (50%) is used for determining  
346 the final predictions. Our training data includes output values 0.1 (10%) and 0.9 (90%) for  
347 non-flaring and flaring sunspot groups respectively and therefore if the output generated by  
348 the hybrid system is above this threshold value then it is assumed that a flare is predicted to  
349 occur. On the other hand, if the generated output is less than the threshold value then no flare  
350 is expected.

351 In order to calculate the success of the generated predictions the association results are  
352 investigated using the following four criteria:

- 353 • If a sunspot group is associated with an actual flare, as explained previously, and a  
354 flare prediction is generated then this prediction is successful.
- 355 • If a sunspot group is associated with an actual flare but no flare prediction is generated  
356 then this prediction is not successful.
- 357 • If a sunspot group is not associated with any actual flare and no flare prediction is  
358 generated then this prediction is successful.
- 359 • If a sunspot group is not associated with any actual flare but a flare prediction is  
360 generated then this prediction is not successful.

361 The solar flares with location information during the verification period (February 1, 1999  
362 to December 31, 2002) are compared with 40534 sunspot groups that were detected from  
363 5267 MDI image pairs and recorded in ASC.

364 The prediction results are compared for different time windows: 6, 12, 24, 48 and 72  
365 hours. Several forecast verification measures are used to evaluate our results for each time  
366 window as shown in Table 4. The measures used are: Probability of Detection (POD), False

367 Alarm Rate (FAR), Percent Correct (PC), Heidke Skill Score (HSS) and Quadratic Score  
 368 (QR). These forecast measures are defined well in a recent paper by (Balch, 2008) and readers  
 369 can refer to this paper for more information.

370 Table 4: Prediction evaluation measures for 6, 12, 24, 48, and 72 hours. The measures used  
 371 are: Probability of Detection (POD), False Alarm Rate (FAR), Percent Correct (PC), Heidke  
 372 Skill Score (HSS) and Quadratic Score (QR). The HOURS column show the different time  
 373 windows while the CLASS column represents the different individual solar flare classes (C,  
 374 M, and X) except for F which represents the evaluation for all solar flare classes.

375

HOURS	CLASS	QR	POD	FAR	PC	HSS
6	ALL	0.083	0.432	0.655	0.890	0.382
	C	0.074	0.363	0.680	0.904	0.378
	M	0.035	0.413	0.894	0.965	0.250
	X	0.021	0.278	0.992	0.983	0.033
12	ALL	0.107	0.703	0.478	0.857	0.494
	C	0.100	0.644	0.506	0.867	0.479
	M	0.040	0.732	0.801	0.957	0.398
	X	0.022	0.667	0.982	0.982	0.096
24	ALL	0.146	0.814	0.301	0.805	0.512
	C	0.141	0.772	0.319	0.811	0.493
	M	0.050	0.865	0.688	0.944	0.470
	X	0.022	0.917	0.967	0.981	0.169
48	ALL	0.196	0.860	0.166	0.737	0.494
	C	0.194	0.829	0.171	0.737	0.474
	M	0.065	0.916	0.558	0.922	0.503
	X	0.023	0.957	0.932	0.979	0.262
72	ALL	0.228	0.875	0.123	0.694	0.475
	C	0.228	0.848	0.117	0.692	0.457
	M	0.075	0.929	0.481	0.908	0.510
	X	0.024	0.968	0.908	0.978	0.310

376

377 The quadratic score (QR) is simply the mean square error of the probabilities provided  
 378 by the hybrid system. QR is used to calculate the accuracy in probability predictions. A

379 smaller QR indicates better accuracy in predictions. A perfect QR which is of zero value  
 380 would require an accurate prediction of solar flare every time a solar flare occurs and an  
 381 accurate prediction of no activity when no flares occur (Balch, 2008). Best QR results are  
 382 achieved for 6 hours time window and QR increases slightly while the time window is  
 383 extending. We also used QR to compare our results with the 1, 2, and 3 days prediction results  
 384 from NOAA Space Weather Prediction Center (SWPC) for the same dates, as shown in Table  
 385 5. The average QR (or mean square error) between 1999 and 2002 are also calculated and  
 386 show in this Table. When we compare these average results with the results from ASAP for  
 387 the same dates, it can be seen that ASAP provides better accuracy in predictions than SWPC  
 388 especially for M-class flare predictions. Also X-class flare predictions of ASAP are better  
 389 than SWPC in average although SWPC achieved the least QR for X-class flare prediction  
 390 during 1999.

391 Table 5: Comparison of QR measures for 24, 48, and 72 hour time windows from ASAP and  
 392 Space Weather Prediction Center (SWPC). SWPC results can be accessed from their website<sup>2</sup>.

	DATE	CLASS	24	48	72
ASAP	1999-2002	M	0.050	0.065	0.075
		X	0.022	0.023	0.024
SWPC	1999	M	0.178	0.190	0.192
		X	0.017	0.019	0.018
	2000	M	0.210	0.223	0.228
		X	0.039	0.040	0.042
	2001	M	0.190	0.198	0.201
		X	0.050	0.048	0.047
	2002	M	0.226	0.229	0.240
		X	0.033	0.033	0.033
	Average	M	0.210	0.210	0.215
		X	0.034	0.035	0.035

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<sup>2</sup> [http://www.swpc.noaa.gov/forecast\\_verification/](http://www.swpc.noaa.gov/forecast_verification/) Last Access:2008

393

394           POD measures the probability of actual solar flares being predicted correctly by the  
395 hybrid system. Best POD results are achieved for the 72 hour time window. It is expected that  
396 POD would increase with time since there are more solar flare occurrences in larger time  
397 windows. For 24 hours time difference POD results show that 81.4% of the whole reported  
398 solar flares (77.2% of the C-class flares, 86.5% of the M-class flares and 91.7% of the X-class  
399 flares) are predicted correctly. FAR measures the probability of the hybrid system predicting a  
400 solar flare that actually does not occur. Although FAR decreases when the time window  
401 extends for all kind of flares, it is still very high for X-class predictions and false alarm rate  
402 has to be decreased in order to increase the reliability of the system.

403           PC measures the correct prediction rate of the overall system which is the ratio of  
404 successful flare and no flare predictions generated by our hybrid system. PC rates show that  
405 for 24 hours time difference, 80.5% of all the predictions (flare or no flare), 81.1% of C-class  
406 predictions (C-class or not a C-class), 94.4% of M-class predictions (M-class or not a M-  
407 class), and 98.1% of X-class predictions (X-class or not a X-class) are correct. Although PC  
408 rates are very high, it must be noted that if the system provides just one output, which is no-  
409 flare, these rates would still be high.

410           HSS is a measure showing the chance factor in predictions. HSS can range from -1  
411 (for no correct predictions) to +1 (for all correct predictions) and a value of zero indicates that  
412 the predictions have been generated mainly by chance. This is a very useful measure for the  
413 verification of the systems especially when occurrences of the events to be predicted are very  
414 rare. As mentioned above, even if our systems outputs would have been set to be no-flare all  
415 the time, our predictions would be correct by more than 90%. Therefore, HSS is a very  
416 important measure for evaluating our prediction performance. HSS results show that ASAP

417 predictions are much more than chance especially for flaring and C- and M-class flare  
418 predictions. HSS can also be used to optimize the system by changing the threshold value (0.5  
419 was used for our calculations as described earlier) and achieve better prediction results.

420 To provide further evaluation for the system we created a forecast reliability diagram.  
421 The reliability diagram plots the observed frequency against the forecast probability, where  
422 the range of forecast probabilities is divided into bins. Figure 5 plots the observed frequency  
423 of all the flaring sunspot groups against their corresponding prediction probabilities, grouped  
424 in 5% (0.05) bins (0%-5%(0-0.05), 5%-10%(0.05-0.1), 10%-15%(0.1-0.15), ...). The dashed  
425 diagonal line represents perfect correspondence. This reliability chart is produced by  
426 comparing the predictions of ASAP for 24 hours time window and includes the output from  
427 the main Neural network of the system that decides if the sunspot group is going to produce a  
428 flare or not. The reliability diagram is similar to a scattered plot, where the sunspot groups are  
429 stratified by their flaring forecast into probability bins and the observed flaring frequency of  
430 these sunspot groups are calculated. For example, if there are 10 sunspot groups with  
431 calculated flaring probabilities that varies between 5% and 10%, and in reality 3 (30%) of  
432 them produced flares, then this means that the calculated flaring probabilities are lower than it  
433 should be and it is not a very reliable system. As it can be seen from Figure 5, our results are  
434 showing good correspondence and are highly reliable. Also this diagram shows that there are  
435 no flare prediction probabilities produced by our system that are higher than 80% and  
436 therefore the forecast bins after 75%-80% bin are empty.

## 437 **5 Conclusions**

438 In this paper we have introduced, for the first time, a fully automated hybrid system  
439 called ASAP that integrates advanced machine learning and image processing techniques with

440 solar physics to predict automatically whether a sunspot group is going to produce a solar  
441 flare and whether the predicted flare is going to be a C-class, M-class or X-class flare.

442 The performance of the hybrid system depends on the generalization capabilities of the  
443 machine learning system and the grouping and classification performance of the image  
444 processing system. For our hybrid system the HSS, POD, PC, and QR measures are quite  
445 good particularly when predicting that a solar flare is going to erupt. Especially HSS is very  
446 promising which shows that ASAP predictions are much better than chance. However, the  
447 same thing cannot be said for the FAR measure. This is a problem that has to be tackled  
448 especially for X-class flare predictions which we are planning to solve in the near future. Also  
449 comparison of QR results of ASAP and SWPC showed that ASAP provides better prediction  
450 results than SWPC especially for M-class flares.

451 The prediction rates for the hybrid systems can be improved by exploiting the  
452 generalization capability of machine learning system. Better generalization is obtained when  
453 more training data are used. Hence, we believe that it is important to monitor the performance  
454 of the hybrid system during its initial stages which includes comparing the prediction  
455 performance with the actual flares reported by NOAA. Evolutionary algorithms may be used  
456 to allow the learning algorithms to evolve and provide better optimization and generalization.

457 The geometric effect on MDI images close to the limb also affects the classification of  
458 sunspot groups which would lead to wrong prediction results. Although, most of the  
459 calculations needed for classification are carried out in heliographic coordinates, the lack of  
460 graphical information towards the limb is the main problem preventing us from obtaining  
461 more-accurate classifications. For example, large sunspot groups just starting to appear from  
462 the limb are more likely to be classified incorrectly (Colak and Qahwaji, 2008).

463 An automated and real-time version of ASAP is running on our website at  
464 <http://spaceweather.inf.brad.ac.uk/index.html> since March 2007. This system connects  
465 automatically to SOHO's website<sup>3</sup> to download the latest MDI continuum and magnetogram  
466 images. After automatically running the algorithms described in this paper the results are  
467 displayed on our website as shown in Figure 4 and are updated automatically. ASAP is  
468 available publicly for download at <http://spaceweather.inf.brad.ac.uk/downloads.html>.

469 The processing time for our system is approximately 15 seconds to process the two MDI  
470 images and to generate the predictions on an Intel Centrino machine with 2 Gb memory. This  
471 enables our system to provide near-real time classifications and predictions. The system can  
472 be modified to accept other types of solar images. Sometimes the characteristics of a sunspot  
473 group can change rapidly in hours and cause flares, it is almost impossible for a human  
474 observer to determine what triggers this process without having the appropriate tools. We  
475 believe that the system introduced here can help researchers or observers investigate and  
476 understand solar features and activity and identify patterns that could be useful for space  
477 weather predictions.

478 In our previous work (Qahwaji et al., 2007), (Qahwaji and Colak, 2007), we have shown  
479 that SVM provides better generalization performance compared to NN. In the near future we  
480 will integrate these findings and use SVM networks to enhance the predictions. We also  
481 believe designing a sunspot group tracking system that studies the evolution of the sunspot  
482 groups can improve the overall performance. Moreover, we believe that we need to take into  
483 consideration the magnetic properties and energies of the sunspot regions under investigation.  
484 Very recently, we designed an algorithm (Ahmed et al., 2008) that would analyze  
485 magnetogram images to estimate the magnetic energy of an active region based on the Ising

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<sup>3</sup> <http://sohowww.nascom.nasa.gov/data/realtime/> Last Access: 2008

486 model. In the future we are planning to implement this magnetic energy parameter to the flare  
487 prediction part of the system to improve the reliability of the predictions.

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490 entitled "Image Processing and Machine Learning Techniques for Short-Term Prediction of  
491 Solar Activity" and "Image Processing, Machine Learning and Geometric Modeling for the  
492 3D Representation of Solar Features", respectively.

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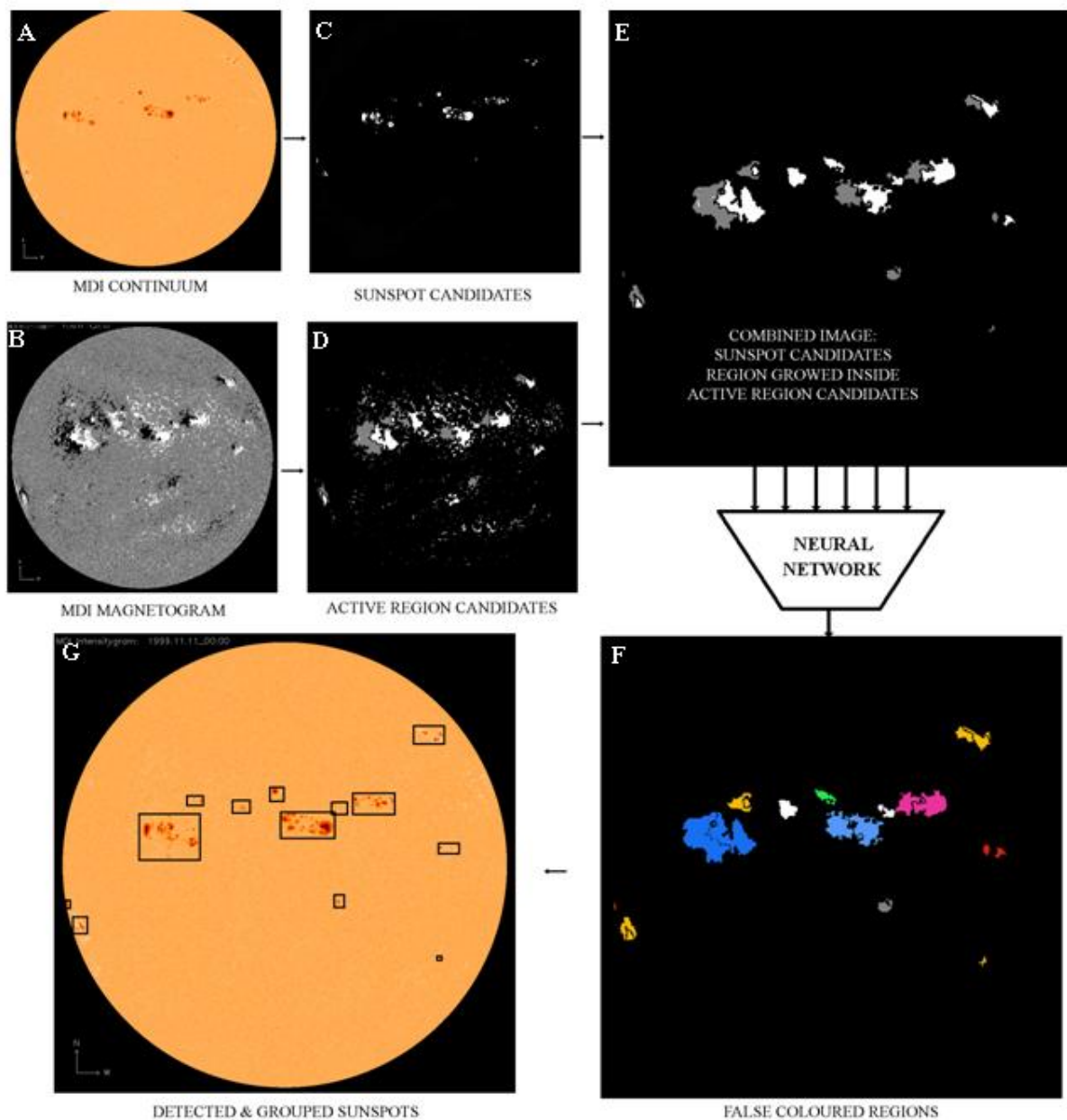
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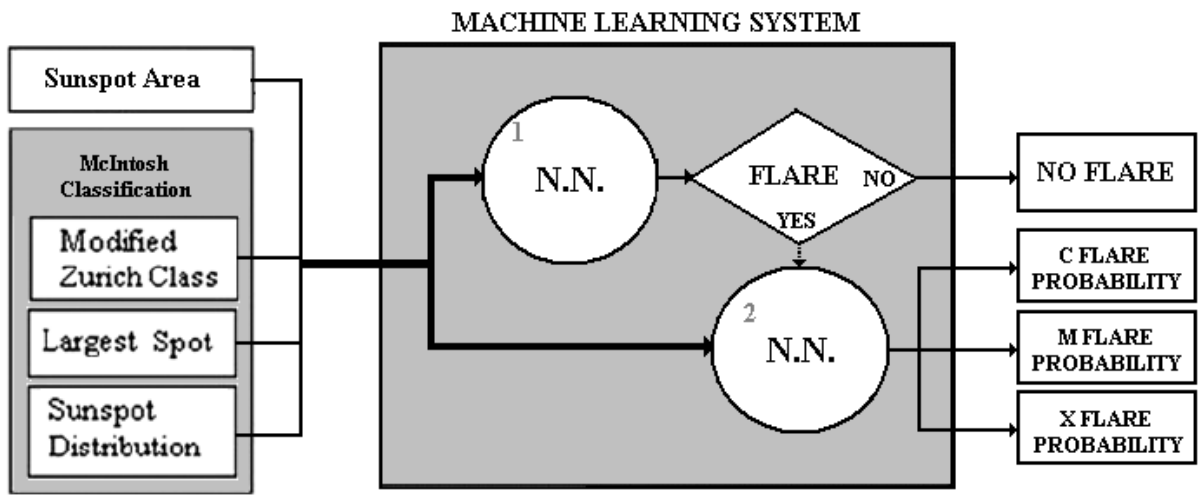




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529 Figure 1: The Stages and results of sunspot detection and grouping process. Image A and  
 530 B are the continuum and magnetogram images respectively. Image C shows the detected  
 531 sunspots, image D shows detected active regions. These images are combined using  
 532 region growing in image E to show the exact locations of active regions. Using Neural  
 533 Networks active regions are classified into groups in image F and this data is also used to  
 534 detect sunspot groups in image G.

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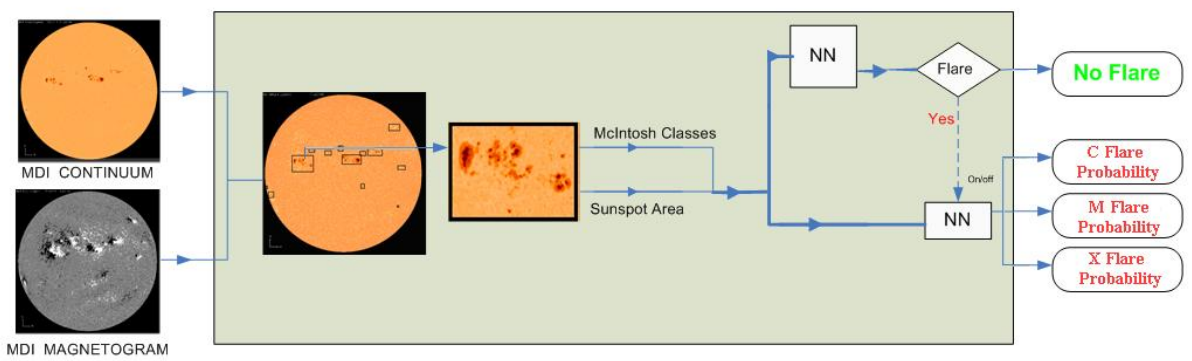
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537 Figure 2: Machine learning system for flare prediction.

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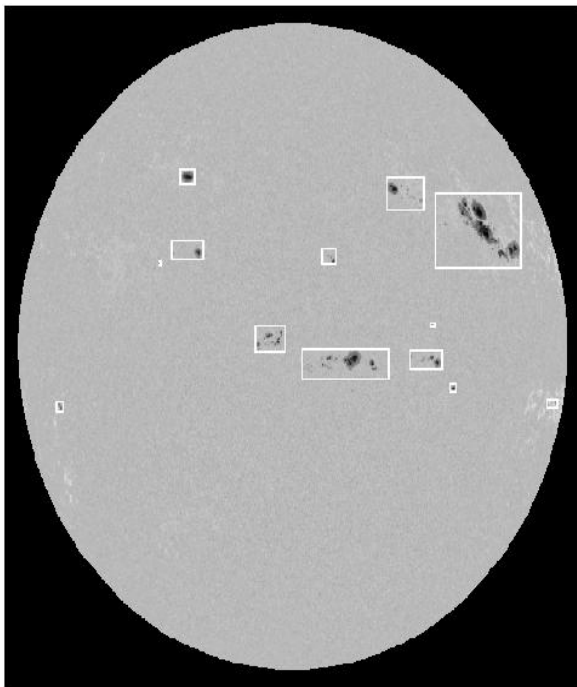
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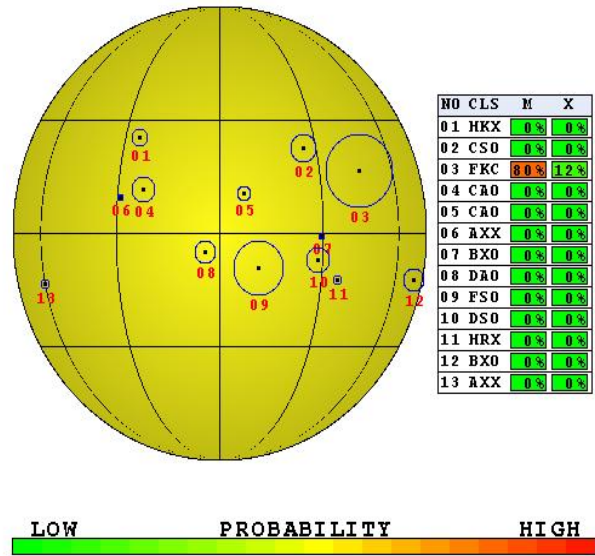


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542 Figure 3: The final hybrid system



**FLARE MONITOR** <http://spaceweather.inf.brad.ac.uk/>  
 Generated by ASAP  
 1/ 4/2001 6:24  
 ! BETA !



543

544 Figure 4: Two images generated by the hybrid system. The image to the left shows the  
 545 detected sunspot groups and the image to the right shows the classification and flare  
 546 probabilities of the detected sunspot groups. The image to the right is updated automatically  
 547 on <http://spaceweather.inf.brad.ac.uk/index.html> every time a new MDI continuum image is  
 548 available on SOHO's website.

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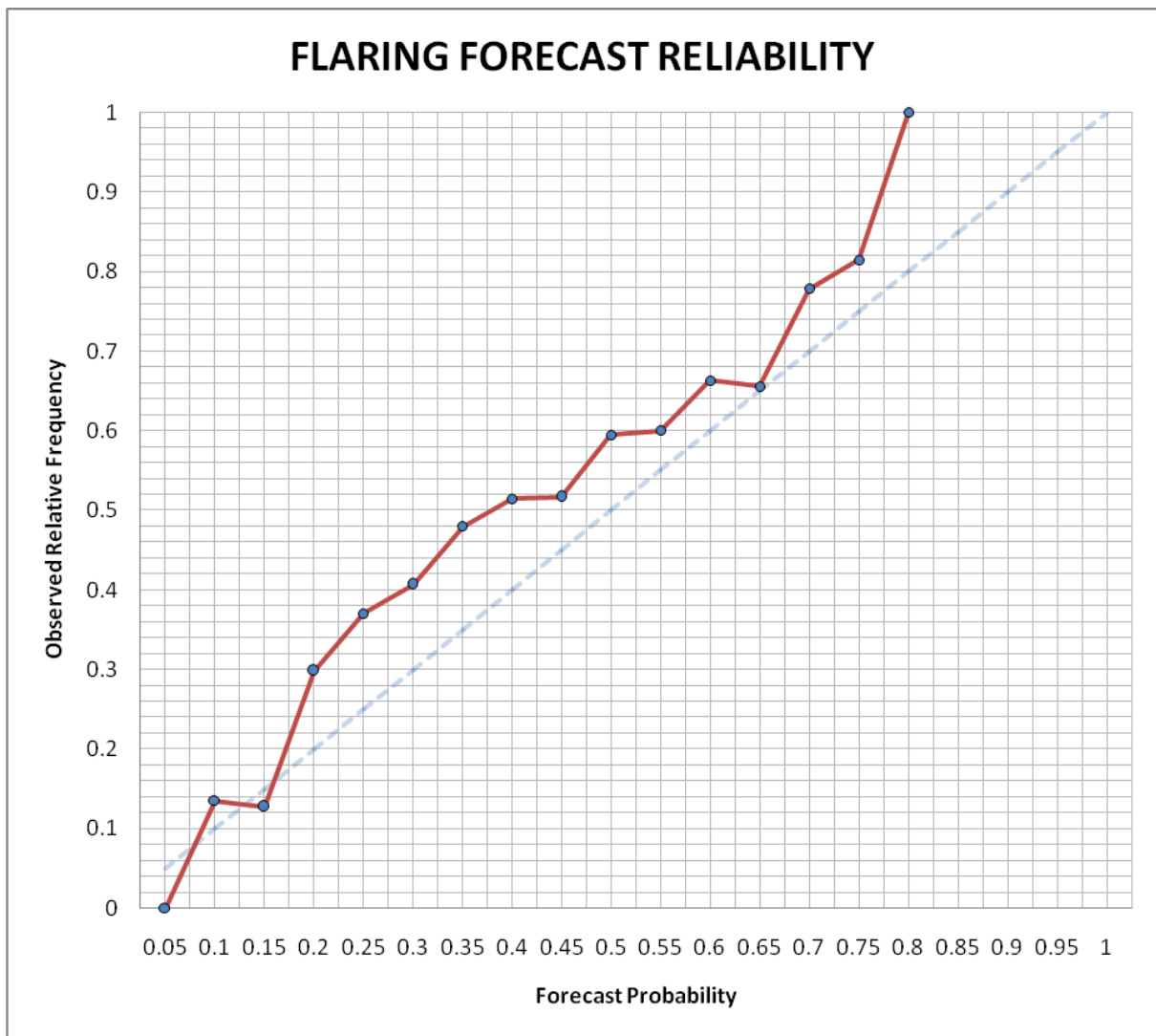
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559 Figure 5: The observed relative frequency of all the flaring sunspot groups against their  
560 corresponding predictions, grouped in 5% (0.05) bins.

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