PIU-CT Gap Measurement using ML Algorithms

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Keywords—template, Scribbr, IEEE, format

# INTRODUCTION

In the context of nuclear power plant maintenance, the accurate measurement of the gap between the calandria tube and the pressure tube in heavy water reactors is regarded as a crucial task to ensure the safe and reliable operation of the reactor (Study on Inspection for Small Diameter Tubes Using Pulsed Remote Field Eddy Current Method, 2021)(Grimberg et al., 2005)(Zhu et al., 2019). The eddy current method has been established as a preferred technique for this application due to its inherent non-invasive nature and capability to detect even minor variations in the gap between these two critical components (Grimberg et al., 2005).

The eddy current method involves the generation of a time-varying magnetic field that induces eddy currents in the conductive materials, such as the calandria tube and pressure tube. The presence of the two tubes with a gap between them affects the flow of the induced eddy currents, which in turn modulates the magnetic field in a manner that can be detected and measured by the eddy current sensor. The specific characteristics of this magnetic field modulation, such as its amplitude, phase, and frequency, are directly correlated with the size and properties of the gap between the tubes, thereby enabling the precise measurement of the gap using advanced signal processing and analysis techniques. Recent advancements in the field of machine learning have provided researchers and engineers with a powerful set of tools to enhance the performance and accuracy of eddy current-based gap measurement systems in heavy water reactors.

One such application of machine learning in this context is the use of advanced signal processing techniques, such as neural networks or support vector machines, to analyze the complex eddy current sensor data and extract more accurate information about the gap between the calandria tube and pressure tube. To develop robust models capable of reliably predicting the gap size and detecting any anomalies or deviations, these machine learning algorithms can be trained on a comprehensive dataset that may encompass both simulated and experimental eddy current measurement data.

The use of machine learning algorithms in the analysis of eddy current data for gap measurement in heavy water reactors offers several advantages over traditional signal processing methods. Firstly, the ability of machine learning models to handle complex, non-linear relationships between the eddy current sensor signals and the gap size can lead to significantly improved accuracy and sensitivity in the gap measurement.(Grimberg et al., 2006)(Park et al., 2019).

Additionally, machine learning techniques can enhance the robustness of the gap measurement system by enabling the detection and classification of various types of defects or anomalies that may be present in the calandria tube or pressure tube.

## Literature Survey

### And this is a level 3 heading: Equations should be typed in either Times New Roman or Symbol font, or, if the equation is multileveled, inserted into your text as a graphic instead. On the far right of the line containing the equation, number it in parentheses, and use this number to refer to it in the text (1).

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### This is another level 3 heading: The body text is divided into two columns on each page, written in 10 pt. Times New Roman, and justified (meaning that the text is spaced in a way that makes the right edge line up neatly). All the appropriate formatting is automatically applied in this template. If anything goes wrong, you can reapply it using the “styles” section in Word.

| Table Head | Table Column Head | | |
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appropriate style is still applied to each section, reapplying styles if necessary.

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* Treat the word “data” as plural, not singular.
* For example, “the data indicate that …”

## Methodology

Place any figures or tables you use at the top or bottom of a column. Don’t place them in the middle of a column. If particularly wide, a table or figure can span across both columns. Insert a table or figure after the point where it is first cited in the text.

When inserting a figure, such as a photograph or infographic, use 8 pt. Times New Roman for any labeling text within the image and for the figure caption. You can see an example of a figure caption in Fig. 1, above. Refer to figures like that, using the abbreviation “Fig.” and the figure’s number.

A table heading (using the “table head” style) appears above a table. This will automatically number the table for you. Any footnotes appear below the table, using the “table footnote” style. Footnotes are indicated by superscript lowercase letters within the table. An example of a table can be seen in Table I, below.

# LITERATURE SURVEY

III. METHODOLOGY

## Dataset

The dataset for this study was acquired using the Eddy Current Testing (ECT) method, which provided raw signal data indicative of the gap between the Poisson injection tube and the Calandria tube in a heavy water reactor. The TSFEL (Time Series Feature Extraction Library) package was employed to transform this raw signal data into a more useful form for machine learning. This package facilitated the extraction of a comprehensive set of features across various domains, including the time domain, frequency domain, and statistical domain. Features such as mean, median, variance, peak-to-peak amplitude, spectral entropy, dominant frequencies, spectral centroid, skewness, kurtosis, and interquartile range were extracted. This feature extraction process transformed the raw ECT signals into a structured dataset with a rich set of attributes, enabling the application of various machine learning algorithms to predict the gap size with greater accuracy and precision.

## Preprocessing

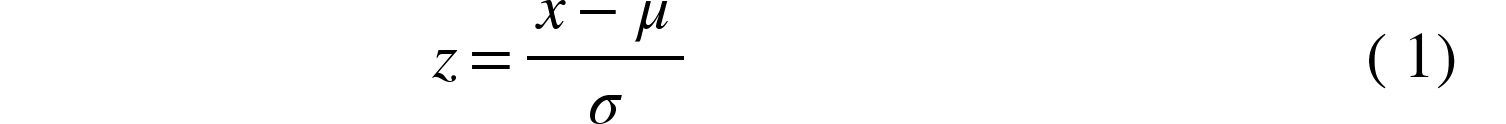
Data preprocessing is a critical step in preparing raw signal data for machine learning applications. It involves a series of transformations aimed at improving data quality and making it suitable for analysis. Key preprocessing steps include noise removal and feature scaling, which enhance the signal-to-noise ratio and standardize the data range, respectively. These steps ensure that the extracted features are robust and the models trained on this data are accurate and reliable.

## *Denoising / scaling / normalization*

To ensure the integrity and quality of the signal data, the Savitzky-Golay filter was employed for noise removal. This filter is particularly effective for smoothing noisy data while preserving the essential features of the signal, such as peak height and width. By fitting successive sub-sets of the data with a polynomial of a specified degree, the Savitzky-Golay filter enhances the signal-to-noise ratio without significantly distorting the signal’s important characteristics. This step was crucial for reducing the impact of noise on subsequent feature extraction and model training processes.(Savitzky, A., & Golay, M. J. E.)(Dombi, J., & Dineva, A.)

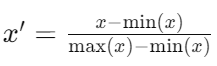
Following noise removal, scaling techniques were applied to standardize the range of features. Two scaling techniques were explored:

* Standard Scaler: This technique standardizes the features by removing the mean and scaling to unit variance, resulting in a distribution with a mean of 0 and a standard deviation of 1. This is particularly useful for algorithms that assume normally distributed data.



where 𝑥 is the original feature value, 𝜇 is the mean of the feature, 𝜎 is the standard deviation of the feature, and 𝑧 is the standardized value.

* MinMax Scaler: This technique normalizes the features to a fixed range, typically [0, 1], by transforming the data based on the minimum and maximum values in each feature. This approach is beneficial for preserving the relationships between the original data values.



where 𝑥 is the original feature value, min(𝑥) is the minimum value of the feature, max(𝑥) is the maximum value of the feature, and 𝑥′ is the normalized value.

Evaluating these scaling techniques allowed us to determine the optimal method for improving model performance and achieving consistent, accurate predictions for the gap size between the Poisson injection tube and the Calandria tube.

## *Feature Extraction: (correlation, tsfel domains)*

After denoising, the raw signal data obtained using the Eddy Current method was proceeded with for feature extraction to facilitate further analysis. The denoised signal data was processed using the Time Series Feature Extraction Library (TSFEL) package. TSFEL is a comprehensive tool designed to automatically extract a wide range of features from time series data. This package is highly regarded for its ability to compute over 60 distinct features, spanning various domains including statistical, temporal, and spectral characteristics. These features include measures such as mean, variance, entropy, and frequency domain features, which are crucial for capturing the underlying patterns in the signal data (Barandas, M., Folgado, D., Fernandes, R., Santos, R., Abreu, P. H., Bota, P., & Gamboa, H.).

Given the high dimensionality of the extracted feature set, which resulted in a total of 378 features, it was crucial to perform feature selection to enhance the performance and interpretability of our predictive models. To address potential multicollinearity, the correlation matrix of the features was initially computed, and pairs of features with a Pearson correlation coefficient greater than 0.9 were identified. For each highly correlated pair, only one feature was retained, thereby reducing redundancy in the dataset. This step yielded a reduced feature set while preserving the most informative features.

## *Feature Importance: (gbc, rf, xgb)*

To further refine our feature set, three different machine learning algorithms were employed to calculate feature importances: Gradient Boosting (GB), Random Forest (RF), and XGBoost (XGB). Each of these algorithms provides a mechanism to rank features based on their importance scores derived from the trained models. Using these models, regressors were trained on the reduced feature set, and feature importances were computed for each algorithm. The features were then ranked according to their importance scores from each model.

* XGBOOST FEATURE IMPORTANCE

XGBoost, an optimized gradient boosting framework for handling large datasets, calculates feature importance based on three main metrics. "Gain" measures the improvement in model performance attributable to each feature across all trees. "Weight" denotes how frequently a feature is used for splitting data. Higher weights signify more crucial features. "Coverage" reflects the number of observations impacted by splits using a feature. XGBoost’s feature importance is accessible post-training via the feature\_importances\_ attribute, offering insights into which features contribute most significantly to model accuracy and aiding in feature selection and interpretation in complex datasets.( Chen, T., & Guestrin, C.)

* RANDOM FOREST FEATURE IMPORTANCE

Random Forest constructs multiple decision trees during training and calculates feature importance based on how much each feature decreases node impurity (e.g., Gini impurity) across all trees in the ensemble. Features that consistently reduce impurity more effectively are considered more important. Random Forest also utilizes permutation importance, measuring the impact of shuffling feature values on model accuracy. These methods provide insights into which features contribute significantly to model predictions, aiding in feature selection and interpretation in complex datasets.(Brieman L.,2001)

* GRADIENT BOOSTING FEATURE IMPORTANCE

Gradient Boosting constructs an ensemble of decision trees sequentially, improving model performance by correcting errors of previous models. Feature importance in Gradient Boosting is determined by how much each feature contributes to the model's performance improvement, such as reducing the loss function (e.g., MSE). The importance is calculated based on the frequency of feature usage in tree splits across the ensemble. Gradient Boosting also utilizes advanced methods like SHAP (SHapley Additive exPlanations) to provide nuanced insights into feature contributions to model predictions.(Friedman, J. H. (2001))

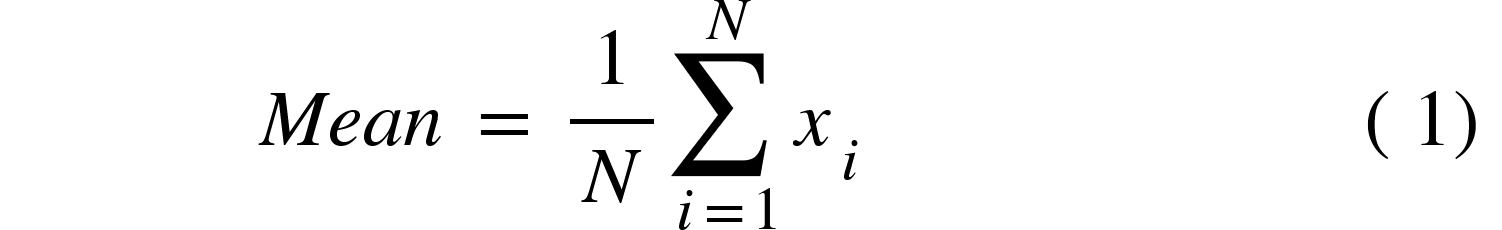
## *TSFEL features: important features\*\**

TSFEL is a Python library designed for automatic extraction of comprehensive features from time series data, facilitating detailed analysis and modeling in various research and industrial applications. It provides a robust set of features across statistical, temporal, and spectral domains, enabling researchers to extract meaningful insights from time series data efficiently. These features play a crucial role in characterizing signal properties, identifying patterns, and enhancing the interpretability of machine learning models applied to time series analysis. (Barandas, M., Folgado, D., Fernandes, R., Santos, R., Abreu, P. H., Bota, P., & Gamboa, H. (2020).)

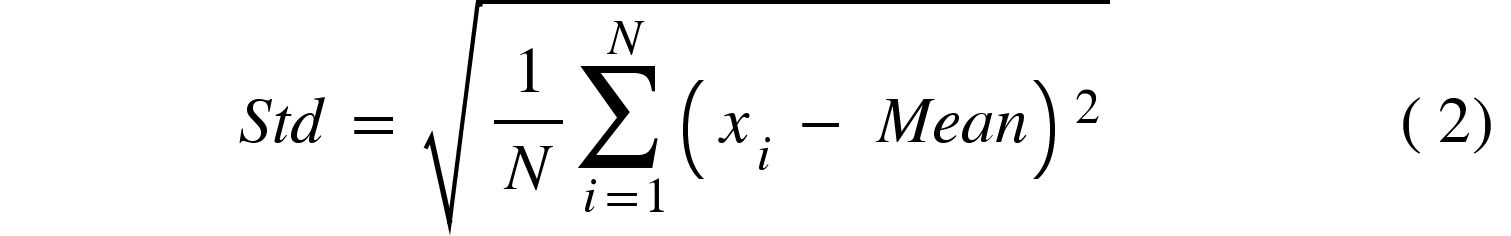
Statistical Features:

Statistical features are derived from the raw time series data and provide summary statistics that describe the distribution and variability of the data. These features help in understanding the overall characteristics and trends within the time series.

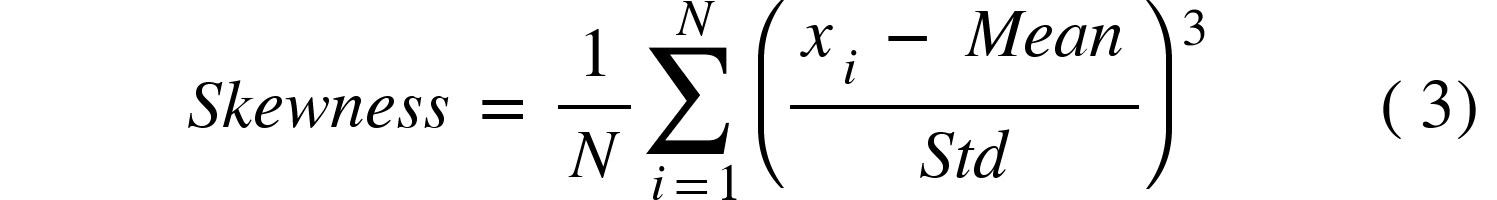
* Mean: Represents the average signal value over the entire series. It provides a measure of the central tendency of the data.



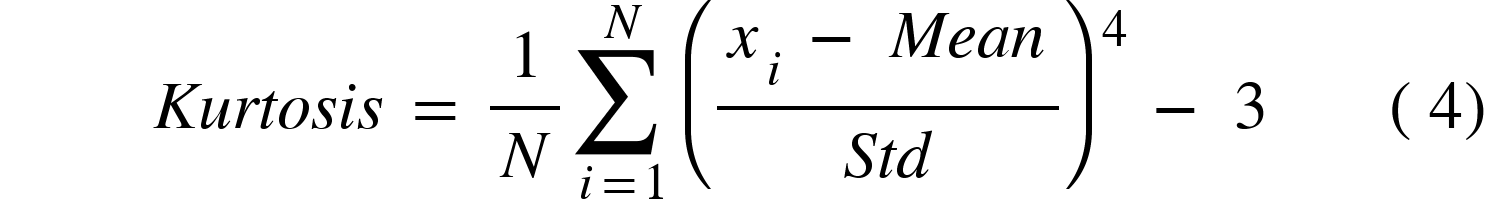
* Standard Deviation: Measures the dispersion of signal values around the mean. A higher standard deviation indicates greater variability in the data.



* Skewness: Indicates the asymmetry of the distribution of signal values. Positive skewness means the distribution tail is longer on the right side, while negative skewness means the tail is longer on the left.



* Kurtosis: Measures the "tailedness" or degree of outlier presence in the signal. High kurtosis indicates heavy tails and potential outliers.

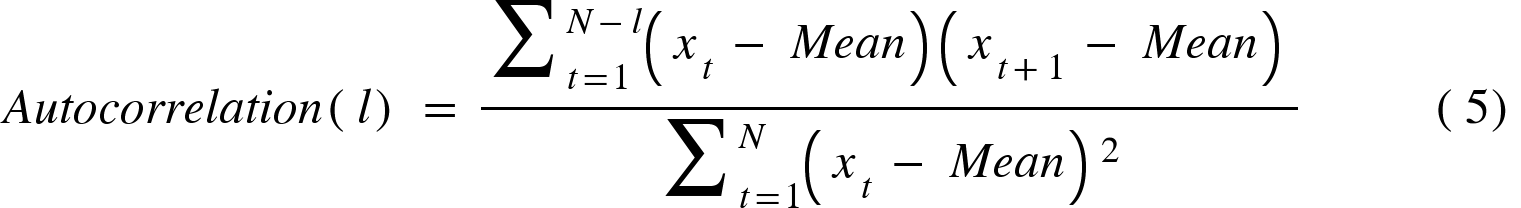


Statistical features provide a foundational understanding of the data’s distribution and variability, which is crucial for identifying patterns and anomalies in time series analysis.

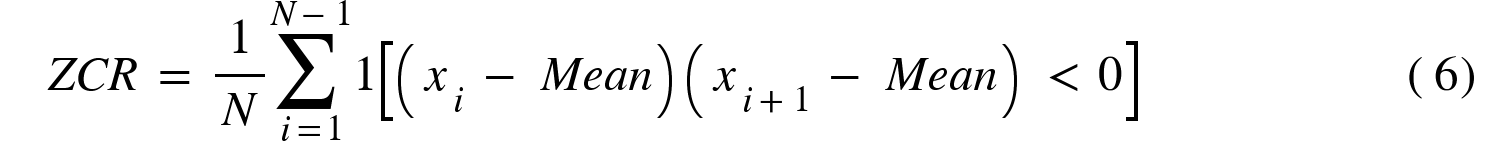
Temporal Features:

Temporal features capture the time-dependent characteristics of the signal, focusing on the structure and behavior over time. These features help in understanding the dynamics and temporal dependencies within the data.

* Autocorrelation: Quantifies the similarity between a signal and a delayed version of itself. It provides insights into the repeating patterns or periodicity in the data.



* Zero Crossing Rate: Counts the number of times the signal crosses the mean value. It is useful for identifying the frequency of oscillations in the time series.



* Peak-to-Peak Distance: Measures the distance between the highest and lowest values in the signal within a given window. It provides a measure of the signal's amplitude variability.

Temporal features capture the sequential and temporal relationships in the data, which are essential for understanding the time-dependent behaviors and trends in time series analysis.

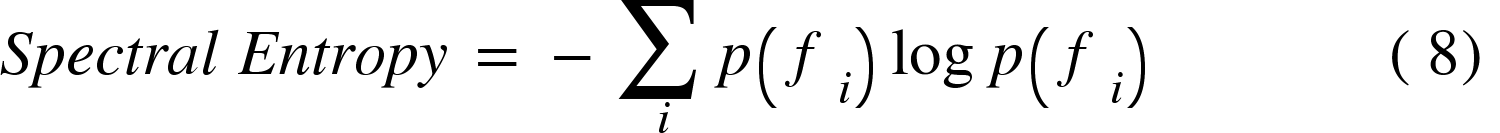
Spectral Features:

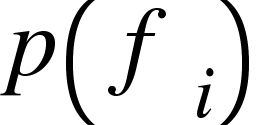
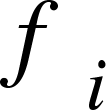
Spectral features are derived from the frequency domain representation of the signal. These features help in understanding the signal’s frequency content and identifying periodicities and frequency-based patterns.

* Power Spectral Density (PSD): Describes the distribution of signal power across different frequencies. It is obtained by performing a Fast Fourier Transform (FFT) on the signal and calculating the power at each frequency component.

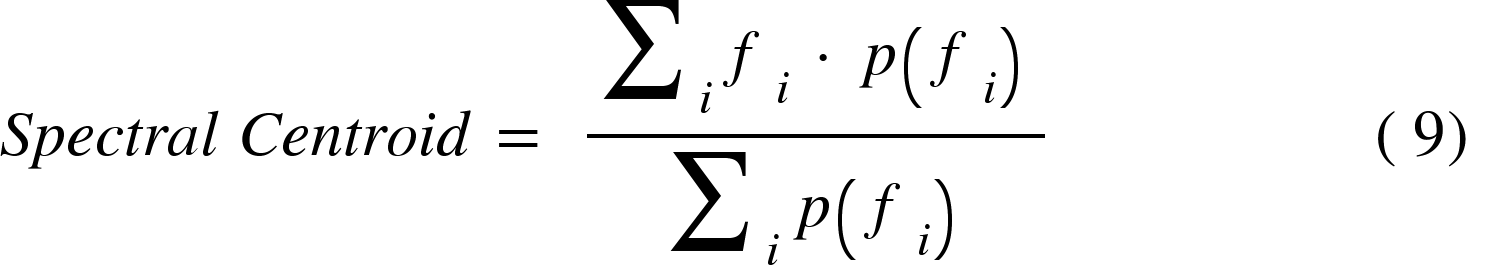
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* Spectral Entropy: Measures the complexity or irregularity of the frequency distribution. Higher spectral entropy indicates a more complex and less predictable signal.



where is the normalized power at frequency .

* Spectral Centroid: Represents the center of mass of the spectrum, providing a measure of the "brightness" of the signal. It is the weighted mean of the frequencies present in the signal.



Spectral features provide insights into the frequency-based characteristics of the signal, helping to identify periodic components, dominant frequencies, and other frequency-related patterns in time series analysis.

## ML Algorithms

Machine learning is a rapidly advancing field that forms the foundation of artificial intelligence and data science, bridging computer science and statistics. It enables data-driven decision-making in numerous domains such as health, production, education, financial modeling, law enforcement, and marketing. This research investigates various machine learning models, particularly in the context of predicting gaps between the Poisson injection tube and the Calandria tube in a pressurized heavy water reactor.

In this study, a range of machine learning algorithms were employed for both classification and regression tasks. The models included Random Forest, Gradient Boosting, Decision Trees, and XGBoost. Each of these models was found to bring unique characteristics to the table, aiding in the analysis and prediction of gap measurements effectively.

*1) Random Forest:* Bagging stands out as a well-known approach in Ensemble learning, categorically grouped into three types – Bagging, Boosting, and Stacking – which are all ensemble learning techniques. Random Forest L. Breiman, "Random Forest," Machine Learning, vol. 45, no. 1, pp. 5-32, 2001., is widely recognized and frequently employed, representing an extended version stemming from Bagging. (Bo Yu and Yuanzheng Zheng, "Research on Algorithms of Machine Learning," Applied and Computational Engineering, vol. 39, no. 1, EWA Publishing, Feb. 2024, pp. 277-281, doi: 10.54254/2755-2721/39/20230614.) Random Forest constructs multiple decision trees during training. It outputs the mode of classes (classification) or the mean prediction (regression) of individual trees. In classification, each tree votes for a class, improving robustness and accuracy through majority voting. In regression, trees predict values and the forest averages these predictions to reduce variance. It uses bootstrap aggregating (bagging) on random data subsets and random feature selection for each split. This creates uncorrelated trees for more accurate, stable predictions, handling large datasets with high dimensionality and providing insights into feature importance in both tasks.

*2) Decision Tree:* A Decision Tree is a versatile model used for both classification and regression tasks. It recursively splits the data into subsets based on feature values, forming a tree-like structure where each node represents a feature, each branch signifies a decision rule, and each leaf denotes a prediction outcome. In classification, each leaf node corresponds to a class label determined by the majority class within that node. For regression, leaf nodes contain average values of the target variable, providing predictions based on these averages. Decision Trees are straightforward to interpret, require minimal data preprocessing, and accommodate both numerical and categorical data. However, they can overfit, particularly with complex structures, and pruning techniques, such as removing unimportant branches, are employed to enhance generalization.(Brieman L.)

*3) Gradient Boosting:* Gradient Boosting Classifier sequentially builds models where each new model corrects errors of the previous ones using gradient descent to optimize a loss function. It combines weak learners, typically decision trees, to form a strong learner by fitting models to the residuals of prior ones, reducing bias. In classification, class labels are predicted by combining tree predictions, iteratively refining them to minimize errors. In regression, it continuous values are predicted by aggregating tree predictions. Key features include handling diverse loss functions, controlling contributions with a learning rate, and achieving high predictive accuracy across various tasks despite its complexity.(Friedman J.H.)

*4) XGBoost:* XGBoost is a scalable decision tree ensemble based on gradient boosting, designed to build models by minimizing a loss function with regularization to control tree complexity. Higher gamma values result in simpler trees by increasing the minimum loss reduction needed to split a node, while shrinkage reduces the step size in the additive model. Randomization techniques like random subsampling for training trees and column subsampling at tree and node levels help reduce overfitting and speed up training. XGBoost optimizes split finding by using a compressed column-based structure to store pre-sorted data, enabling parallel processing and improving efficiency by testing a subset of candidate splits based on percentiles. A sparsity-aware algorithm effectively handles missing values. Key parameters tuned include learning rate, gamma, maximum depth, feature fraction per split, and subsampling rate.(Candice Bentéjac, Anna Csörgő, and Gonzalo Martínez-Muñoz, "A Comparative Analysis of XGBoost," 2019.)

## *5) SVM:* Support Vector Machine (SVM) is a versatile supervised learning algorithm for classification and regression tasks. In classification, SVM finds the optimal hyperplane that maximizes the margin between classes, using support vectors (the closest data points) to define this boundary. In addition to performing linear classification, SVMs can efficiently perform a non-linear classification using what is called the kernel trick, implicitly mapping their inputs into high-dimensional feature spaces (Batta Mahesh, “Machine Learning Algorithms - A Review”, International Journal of Science and Research (IJSR), Volume 9 Issue 1, January 2020, DOI: 10.21275/ART20203995). In regression, SVM fits data within a specified margin of tolerance, the epsilon-tube, and penalizes data points outside this tube. Both applications of SVM rely on maximizing the margin to achieve robust predictions.

*6) AdaBoost:* AdaBoost algorithm is the most typical and widely used algorithm of ensemble 87 learning method, or more specifically, of the boosting family of ensemble learning. The characteristic of 88 AdaBoost is to use the initial training data to generate a weak learner, then adjust the distribution of the 89 training data according to the predicting performance for the next round weak learner training. The training samples with low predicting accuracy in the previous step will get more attention in the next 91 step. Finally the weak learners are integrated together with different weights to a strong learner.(De-Cheng Feng, Zhen-Tao Liu, Xiao-Dan Wang, Zhongming Jiang, "Machine learning-based compressive strength prediction for concrete: An adaptive boosting approach," *Construction and Building Materials*, vol. 230, p. 117000, January 2020. doi:10.1016/j.conbuildmat.2019.117000.)

*7) Linear Regression:* Linear regression, the most common form of regression analysis, is based on a linear relationship between the dependent variable (the variable being predicted, also known as the response or outcome variable) and the independent variable(s) chosen by researchers (the known or hypothesized predictor variable[s]). A "best fit" line is sought to mathematically describe this relationship, typically visualized with a scatter plot featuring a fitted line. For linear regression to be applicable, the outcome variable must be continuous, meaning it has a numerical range rather than categorical outcomes. ([1] A. Worster, J. Fan, and A. Ismaila, “Understanding linear and logistic regression analyses,” Canadian Journal of Emergency Medicine, vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 111–113, 2007. doi:10.1017/S1481803500014883)

*8) Logistic Regression:* Logistic regression is a statistical technique used for binary classification tasks, where the outcome variable is categorical and takes on two possible values. Unlike linear regression, which predicts continuous outcomes, logistic regression models the probability that an observation belongs to a specific category. It employs a logistic (sigmoid) function to transform a linear combination of input variables into a probability score between 0 and 1, indicating the likelihood of the outcome being in one category. This method finds wide application in fields such as healthcare (for disease prediction), finance (credit scoring), and marketing (customer segmentation), offering interpretable results and facilitating decision-making based on calculated probabilities rather than simple categorical predictions.(*(Adapted from)* "Understanding linear and logistic regression analyses," Worster, A., Fan, J., & Ismaila, A., *Canadian Journal of Emergency Medicine*, vol. 9, no. 2, pp. 111–113, 2007. doi:10.1017/S1481803500014883)

*9) Ridge and Lasso Regression:* Ridge regression is known to shrink the coefficients of correlated predictors towards each other, allowing them to borrow strength from one another. In contrast, Lasso tends to be indifferent to highly correlated predictors, often selecting one and ignoring the others (J. H. Friedman, T. Hastie, and R. Tibshirani, “Regularization Paths for Generalized Linear Models via Coordinate Descent”, J. Stat. Soft., vol. 33, no. 1, pp. 1–22, Feb. 2010.). Ridge and Lasso are regularization techniques used in linear regression to prevent overfitting by adding a penalty to the model's coefficients. Ridge regression (L2 regularization) adds the squared magnitude of coefficients as a penalty term to the loss function, which shrinks the coefficients but doesn't eliminate any. This helps in handling multicollinearity and improves model generalization. Lasso regression (L1 regularization), on the other hand, adds the absolute value of coefficients as a penalty term, which can shrink some coefficients to zero, effectively performing feature selection by eliminating less important variables. Both methods enhance model performance, particularly when dealing with high-dimensional data, by introducing a trade-off between fitting the training data and keeping the model simple.(*(Adapted from)* Friedman, J. H., Hastie, T., & Tibshirani, R., "Regularization Paths for Generalized Linear Models via Coordinate Descent," *J. Stat. Soft.*, vol. 33, no. 1, pp. 1–22, Feb. 2010.)

## Neural Models \*\*

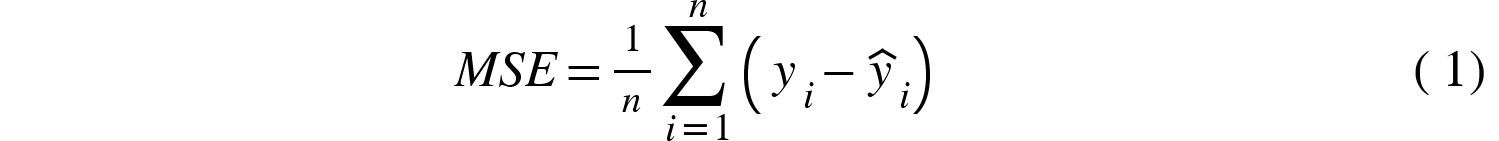
## LSTM....

IV. EXPERIMENTAL SETUP

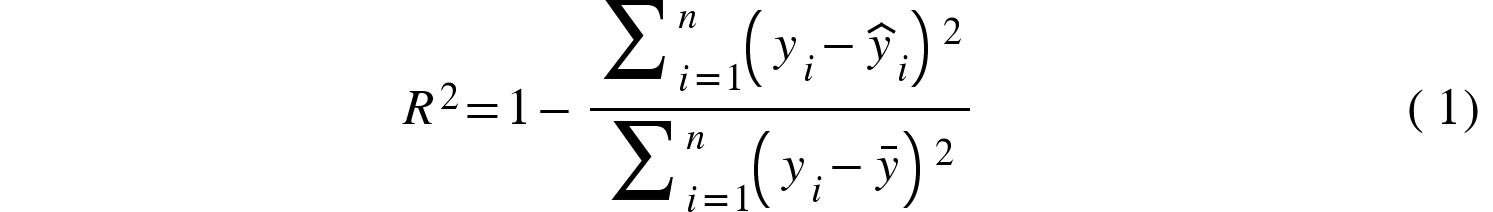
## A. Evaluation Metrics

To evaluate the performance of the machine learning models used in predicting the gap between the Poisson Injection tube and the Calandria tube in a heavy water reactor, regression and classification metrics were employed. Initially, feature extraction was performed on the signal data containing measurements from the eddy current testing (ECT) method to transform it into a suitable format for model training and evaluation.

For regression models, Mean Squared Error (MSE) and the R-squared (R²) score were utilized as the primary metrics. These metrics help in quantifying the accuracy of the continuous gap measurements predicted by the models. The MSE provides insight into the average squared difference between the observed and predicted values, where  are the observed values, and {"mathml":"<math style=\"font-family:stix;font-size:16px;\" xmlns=\"http://www.w3.org/1998/Math/MathML\"><semantics><mstyle mathsize=\"16px\"><msub><mover><mi>y</mi><mo>^</mo></mover><mi>i</mi></msub></mstyle><annotation encoding=\"application/json\">{\"x\":[[236,236,236,236,236,236,236,237,237,237,237,237,237,237,238,238,239,240,240,241,242,243,245,247,249,251,252,254,256,258,260,264,267,269,272,275,278,280,281,282,282,282,282,282,281,278,278,278,278,278,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,277,278,278,278,280,282,282,282,282,282,282,282,282,282,282,282,282,281,280,278,277,276,276,274,274,273,272,267,265,264,262,260,256,251,250,247,247,246,243,242,241,241,241,241,241,241,241,241],[241,241,241,245,247,247,247,247,249,249,249,251,251,251,251,252,252,252,252,254,254,254,255,256,256,256,256,257,260,264,264,264,265,267,268,270,271,272,273,274,275,276,276,276],[292,292,292,292,292,292,292,292,292,292,292,292,292,292,293,294,296,297,299,301,302,304,306,307,308,308,309,310,310,311,311,310],[294,294,294,295,296,297,298,299,299,299,298,296,296,294,294,294,292,292,292,293,293,294,295,296,296,296,296,296]],\"y\":[[108,108,110,113,117,119,122,132,134,136,136,138,140,141,142,144,147,148,149,150,151,153,154,156,158,160,160,160,160,160,158,158,156,155,153,150,148,147,145,143,142,140,139,136,128,122,121,120,119,116,113,112,112,111,112,112,114,117,118,121,126,134,137,140,144,148,152,156,161,165,168,178,187,188,189,190,196,199,201,202,202,204,206,208,209,212,219,224,225,226,226,226,226,227,230,231,231,231,230,230,228,228,225,224,222,221,220,219,216,215,214,212,211,210,209],[87,86,84,72,66,65,64,63,56,54,54,48,47,46,45,40,38,37,36,36,37,38,39,41,42,44,47,50,61,73,74,75,77,80,82,85,87,88,90,92,95,96,97,98],[160,161,171,176,177,178,179,180,184,185,187,188,189,190,191,193,195,196,197,198,198,198,198,198,198,197,196,193,192,191,190,190],[146,146,145,144,144,143,142,141,140,138,138,138,138,138,139,140,140,142,142,143,144,144,144,144,142,142,141,141]],\"t\":[[0,267,300,333,367,400,434,467,500,533,567,600,633,667,700,733,767,800,833,866,900,933,966,1000,1033,1066,1100,1134,1167,1200,1233,1267,1300,1333,1367,1400,1433,1466,1500,1533,1566,1600,1633,1666,1700,1733,1766,1800,1851,1933,1966,1999,2033,2066,2189,2217,2250,2283,2316,2350,2383,2416,2449,2483,2516,2550,2583,2616,2649,2683,2716,2749,2783,2816,2849,2883,2916,2949,2983,3016,3050,3083,3116,3149,3183,3216,3249,3283,3316,3349,3383,3416,3449,3483,3516,3549,3583,3616,3649,3682,3716,3749,3782,3816,3849,3883,3916,3950,3983,4016,4049,4082,4116,4150,4183],[5456,5707,5749,5782,5816,5849,5882,5915,5949,5982,6015,6049,6082,6116,6149,6182,6215,6249,6283,6315,6349,6382,6415,6449,6482,6515,6549,6582,6615,6649,6682,6716,6749,6782,6815,6849,6882,6915,6949,6982,7015,7049,7082,7115],[8871,9081,9115,9148,9181,9215,9248,9292,9315,9348,9382,9415,9462,9481,9515,9548,9581,9615,9648,9681,9715,9748,9782,9815,9849,9882,9915,9948,9981,10015,10048,10091],[11104,11421,11434,11465,11498,11532,11564,11598,11631,11665,11698,11731,11764,11798,11831,11865,11898,11931,11965,11998,12031,12064,12098,12131,12164,12198,12231,12264]],\"version\":\"2.0.0\"}</annotation></semantics></math>","origin":"MathType for Microsoft Add-in"} are the predicted values, and n is the number of observations.

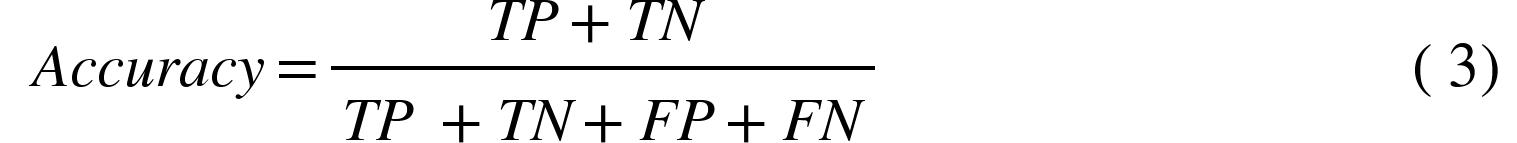


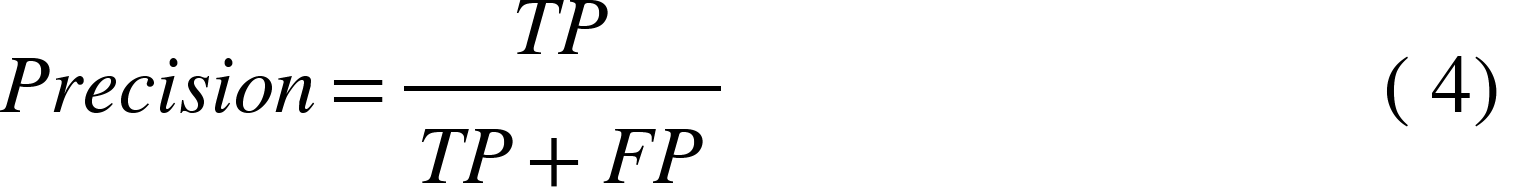
While the R² score indicates the proportion of the variance in the dependent variable that is predictable from the independent variables, where {"mathml":"<math style=\"font-family:stix;font-size:16px;\" xmlns=\"http://www.w3.org/1998/Math/MathML\"><mstyle mathsize=\"16px\"><menclose notation=\"top\"><mi>y</mi></menclose></mstyle></math>","origin":"MathType for Microsoft Add-in"} is the mean of observed values.

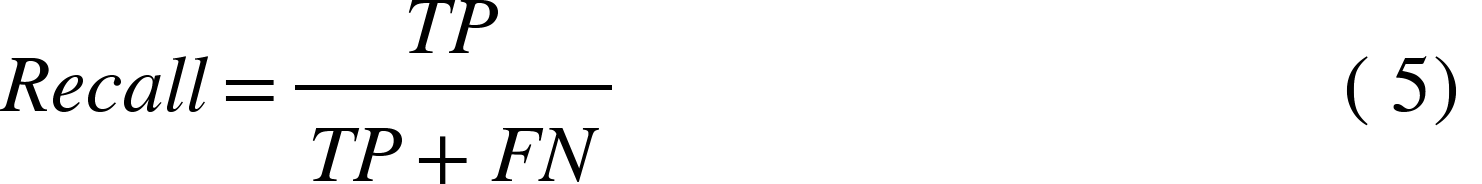


For classification models, accuracy, precision, and recall were used as evaluation metrics. Accuracy measures the proportion of correct predictions among the total number of cases processed. Precision is the ratio of true positive predictions to the total predicted positives, reflecting the exactness of the model. Recall, also known as sensitivity, is the ratio of true positive predictions to the total actual positives, indicating the model's ability to identify all relevant cases.

The formulas for these metrics are as follows:







Where TP is true positive, TN is true negative, FP is false positive and FN false negative.

B. Parameters Setting

Parameter tuning was employed to optimize the hyperparameters of the machine learning models, aiming to enhance their performance. Specifically, randomized search was used, involving randomly sampling a wide range of hyperparameters to quickly identify promising regions in the parameter space, and grid search was also utilized, which exhaustively searched over a specified parameter grid. While randomized search allowed optimal configurations to be explored and found efficiently, grid search, though comprehensive, was time-consuming. These methods are crucial for improving model accuracy, as they help in identifying the best hyperparameter settings for each model. For some models, such as XYZ, significant accuracy improvements were achieved by better capturing underlying data patterns. However, excessive tuning sometimes resulted in overfitting to the training data, leading to decreased accuracy on the validation set. This underscores the importance of careful hyperparameter tuning and validation to achieve optimal performance.

## C. Results and Discussion

V. CONCLUSION AND FUTURE WORK

All the headings in the main body of your paper are numbered (automatically).

Another type of heading is the “component heading”, which is used for other components that aren’t part of the main text. These are usually your acknowledgments and your references, which you can see examples of below. These headings are not numbered. The correct styling for them can be applied using the “Heading 5” style, which is the same as the “Heading 1” style but without numbering.

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##### Acknowledgments

“Acknowledgment(s)” is spelled without an “e” after the “g” in American English.

As you can see, the formatting ensures that the text ends in two equal-sized columns rather than only displaying one column on the last page.

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