

MASTER OF ENGINEERING PROJECT REPORT

Physics-based SAXS Simulation and ML Characterization of LNPs

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Abstract

This study builds upon existing research by leveraging machine learning (ML) techniques to enhance the characterization of lipid nanoparticles (LNPs) for drug delivery applications. By integrating physics-based simulation methods, advanced experimental data preprocessing, and realistic noise modeling, we have developed highly accurate small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS) simulations for dilute aqueous LNP solutions. Our approach employs convolutional neural networks (CNNs) and residual neural networks (ResNets) to effectively classify heterogeneous LNP solutions and precisely predict size distribution parameters for homogeneous systems. This methodology offers a rapid and cost-effective alternative to conventional techniques such as cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM), thereby holding significant promise for advancing nanomedicine.

Keywords: Lipid Nanoparticles, SAXS, Physics-based Simulation, Machine learning

Executive Summary

We developed a physics-based SAXS simulation pipeline and machine-learning framework to characterize lipid nanoparticles (LNPs) rapidly and cost-effectively. Key achievements include:

- **Realistic 3D Models:** Built 81 core-shell ellipsoidal LNP models (21–100 nm) from cryo-EM data to replace the spherical assumption.
- **High-Fidelity SAXS Data:** Employed adaptive zero-padding and a continuous-density (sinc^2) correction to eliminate FFT artifacts and match analytical benchmarks.
- **Efficient Orientation Averaging:** Replaced nested loops with a fully vectorized interpolation and effective-count normalization, cutting runtime dramatically and improving low- and high- q accuracy.
- **Data Augmentation:** Generated homogeneous curves, applied within-type lognormal sampling and cross-type mixing (fraction α), then injected lognormal noise calibrated to photon statistics.
- **ML Characterization:** Trained a CNN classifier (96% accuracy, $F1 \geq 0.97$) and a regression network ($R^2 = 0.964$, $\text{MSE}=0.003$) to distinguish LNP types and predict mixture fractions.

Future Work: Validate on experimental SAXS data, extend to multi-component and polydisperse systems, and optimize for large-scale production via GPU acceleration.

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1 Introduction

Nanoparticle-based drug delivery systems—particularly lipid nanoparticles (LNPs)—have revolutionized therapeutic delivery by enabling highly precise and efficient treatment modalities. LNPs garnered significant global attention during the COVID-19 pandemic due to their critical role in mRNA vaccine development. Their demonstrated versatility, stability, and capacity for targeted tissue delivery have established them as pivotal components in advancing precision medicine.

Accurate characterization of the nanoscale structural and functional properties of LNPs is essential for optimizing their therapeutic potential. Two techniques are commonly employed for this purpose: cryo-electron microscopy (cryo-EM) and small-angle X-ray scattering (SAXS). Cryo-EM provides high resolution, two-dimensional projections of individual LNPs; however, its high operational costs, slow throughput, and limited integration into production environments constrain its routine application. In contrast, SAXS yields an ensemble-averaged one-dimensional scattering profile, which—although offering less direct insight into individual particle morphology—is relatively inexpensive, rapid, and well-suited for incorporation into production lines. Therefore, the objective of this work is to assess the extent to which ML can extract detailed structural information from SAXS data, using cryo-EM as the benchmark standard.

2 Methodology

2.1 Data Generation

This subsection provides a comprehensive overview of the data generation pipeline, as depicted in Fig. 1. The following sections detail each step of the process. In brief, our methodology encompasses the preparation of 3D LNP models, the implementation of an adaptive padding strategy combined with FFT, and the application of a continuous density correction to produce realistic SAXS simulations. Each stage is carefully designed to capture the relevant physical phenomena while ensuring computational efficiency and fidelity to experimental conditions.

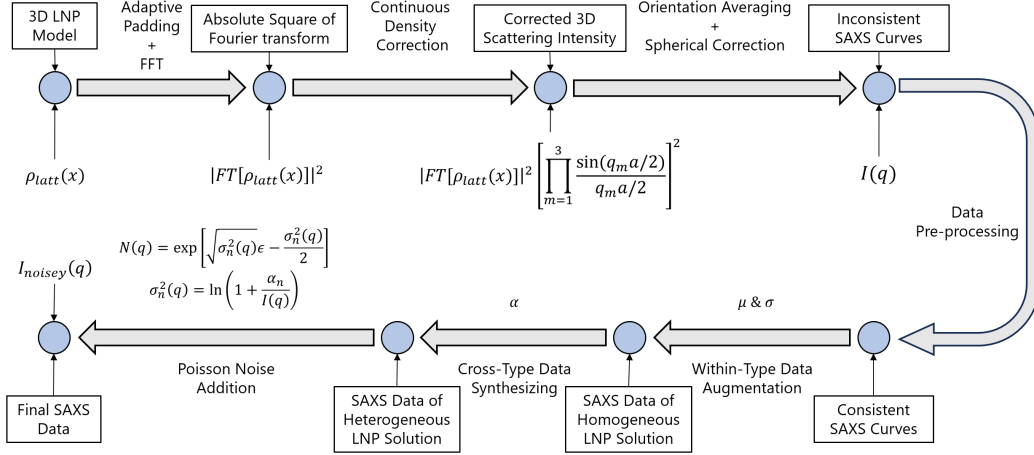


Figure 1: The Data Generation Pipeline Flow Chart. Symbols: $\rho_{latt}(x)$ denotes the 3D LNP model; FT denotes the results of the Fourier Transform; q_m denotes the minimum q value in the reciprocal space; a denotes the real space resolution in nm; μ, σ denote the random variables defining a unique lognormal distribution; α denotes the mixing factor (fraction of Type 3 LNPs); σ_n denotes the q -dependent variance; ϵ denotes a standard normally distributed random variable; α_n denotes a log-uniform scaling factor.

2.1.1 3D Model Preparation

Before diving into the details of how to generate realistic SAXS data, it is also necessary to ensure the 3D LNP models adopted in this project are valid, which means the shapes or sizes should be verified by cryo-EM data. As shown in Fig. 2, it is not suitable to assume the LNPs are spherical, which, however, is the normal practice when analyzing the SAXS data. Therefore, in this project, we try to apply more detailed 3D LNP models to generate the SAXS data and see whether the ML techniques can extract structural information from the generated SAXS data.

The LNP models are constructed to mirror the actual physical structure observed in cryo-EM images and SAXS experiments. Specifically, the models adopt a core-shell ellipsoid design where the core is defined by an equatorial radius that ranges between 21 and 30 nm and an axial ratio of about 1.667—parameters determined from detailed image measurements that shifted the model from an initially assumed oblate shape to a prolate one. The shell, representing the lipid layers, is given a uniform thickness of approximately 4 nm, an intermediate value chosen from experimental estimates between 3 and 5 nm. In MATLAB simulations, this physical structure is further detailed by mapping the electron density in a 3D grid (using a density function that is

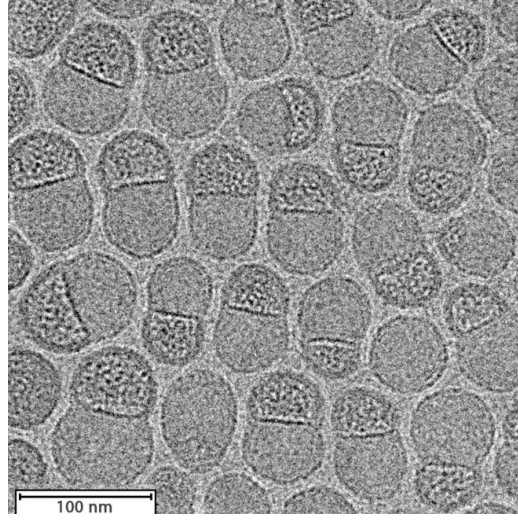


Figure 2: Cryo-EM image of mRNA-LNP

constant inside the particle and zero outside) and performing Fourier transforms to generate SAXS curves. To further diversify the dataset, a scaling factor is employed to control the size of 3D models, resulting in the simulated LNPs' sizes ranging from 20 to 100 nm .

At this stage of the project, we created 4 types of different models as shown in Fig. 3, both of which can be found in either Fig. 2 or other cryo-EM data sources. Under the current settings, the model is $100 \times 100 \times 100$ in total, where each voxel corresponds to 1 nm^3 cube in real space. According to [1], LNPs in the size range of 40 to 80 nm are more desired in production. Therefore, both the classifier and the prediction model are designed to classify the solution type and predict the size distribution within the range of 20 to 100 nm . Thus, there are 81 models in total with 1 nm increment in diameter, which are regarded as ground truth in the following data synthesizing process. These models will be used for SAXS data simulation since they represent the electron density of the LNPs. Hence, we have obtained:

$$\rho_{latt}(x)$$

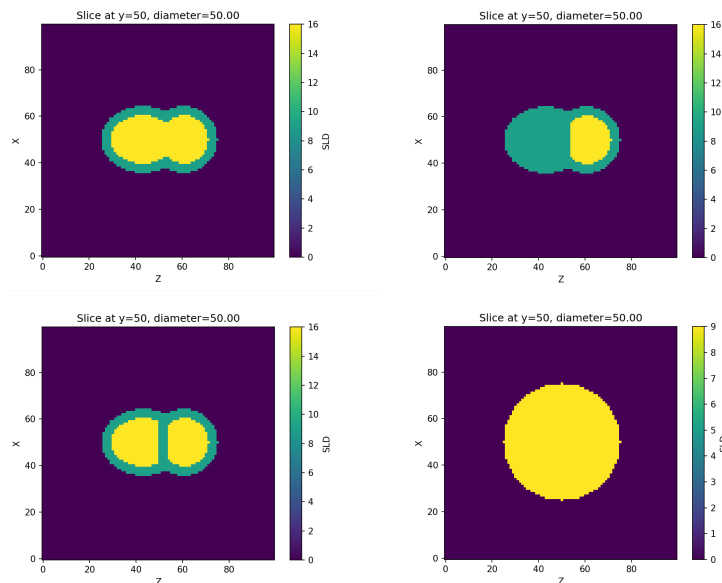


Figure 3: Four Different Types of 3D LNP Model. SLD denotes the scattering length density, reflecting the material’s scattering ability to X-rays or neutron beams

2.1.2 Adaptive Padding + FFT

In SAXS simulations using a finite computational cube, discontinuities at the boundaries can introduce artifacts in the Fast Fourier Transform (FFT). These discontinuities result in distortions and spurious oscillations in the computed scattering intensity. The FFT inherently assumes periodic input data, effectively replicating the electron density cube in all directions (as illustrated in Fig. 3). When the density at the boundaries does not seamlessly match the surrounding values (which, for an isolated particle, is zero), a sharp discontinuity occurs as the data “wraps around.” Such abrupt transitions, akin to step functions in real space, inherently contain a wide range of frequencies—a phenomenon related to the Gibbs effect. Consequently, power “leaks” into many frequencies, manifesting as spectral leakage that appears as noise or artificial ripples in the output. For example, Fig. 4 compares simulated SAXS data for a 50 nm LNP model using two different padding sizes (200 nm and 600 nm), clearly demonstrating that reduced padding exacerbates distortion.

Although windowing techniques can smooth the edges to mitigate these effects, they unavoidably alter the amplitude and finer details of the signal.

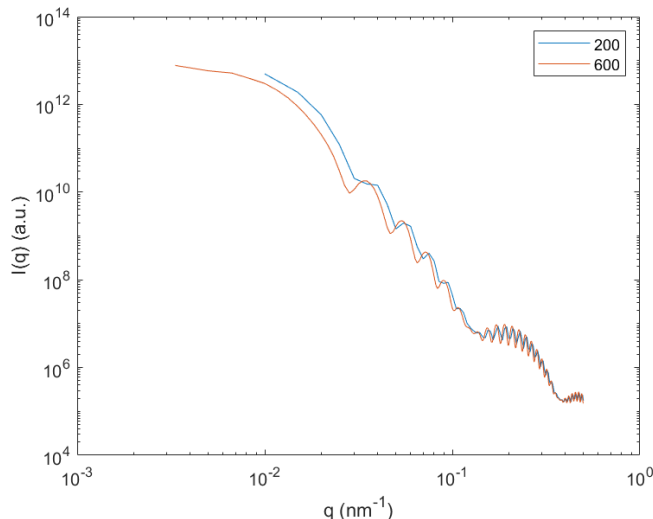


Figure 4: Illustration of the FFT Boundary Effect

To preserve the physical accuracy of the simulation, the optimal approach is to enlarge the computational domain so that the electron density naturally decays to zero at the boundaries, thereby avoiding the need for artificial windowing. A common strategy for simulating an isolated particle is zero-padding, where the cube is extended with zeros (representing a vacuum) around the particle. This method increases the domain size and separates the particle from its periodic images, ensuring a smooth transition to zero at the boundaries. A widely adopted guideline is to restrict the particle to no more than half the linear dimension of the computational box to prevent overlap with its periodic replicas.

In this project, the primary goal is to design a ML algorithm that extracts genuine physical information from the simulated SAXS data—such as distinguishing between LNP solution types or predicting the mean size—without relying on numerical artifacts. Employing a fixed padding size would result in different relative padding for small and large LNPs, yielding FFTs with different absolute resolutions. Such variations could inadvertently provide cues to the ML model that are unrelated to the intrinsic properties of the LNPs.

To overcome this challenge, we adopt an adaptive padding strategy that

maintains a fixed ratio between the padded cube size and the effective electron density cube. This approach offers several benefits:

- **Uniform Relative Boundary Effects:** A constant padding-to-model ratio ensures that the effective distance from the model to the boundaries is proportional for all samples, leading to consistent truncation-induced discontinuities and spectral leakage.
- **Consistent Relative FFT Resolution:** Although the absolute FFT resolution (i.e., the spacing in reciprocal space) varies with the overall cube size, adaptive padding ensures that the resolution remains consistent relative to the model dimensions. This consistency is preserved when interpolating to a unified reciprocal axis, thereby maintaining the physical features of the scattering data.
- **Prevention of Spurious Cues for ML:** By standardizing the relative padding, the FFT artifacts (e.g., due to boundary discontinuities) are uniformly distributed, reducing the risk that the ML algorithm will associate these numerical differences with intrinsic particle properties.
- **Physical Consistency:** Scaling the simulation environment in proportion to the effective model better represents the natural decay of electron density, preserving the physical integrity of the simulation.

Under this strategy, for example, a 50 nm electron density cube is padded to 300 nm, and a 100 nm cube to 600 nm before performing the FFT. This uniformity in relative boundary effects compels the ML model to rely on features that genuinely reflect the LNP models' shape and size, rather than on numerical artifacts arising from differences in FFT resolution.

Before implementing the correction algorithm, it is necessary to establish the method for constructing reciprocal (q) space. In our approach, the padding size is specified in terms of grid points rather than physical units. For instance, if the original electron density cube consists of 50 points, a padded cube may be defined with 300 points (denoted as n_x) to capture maximal information from the real-space model. The minimum and maximum q values are then defined as:

$$q_{\min} = q^{(1)} = \frac{2\pi}{n_x a}, \quad q_{\max} = q^{N/2} = \frac{\pi}{a}, \quad \text{where } a = 1 \text{ nm.}$$

The maximum q is defined as $q^{N/2}$ because the FFT output is shifted so that the zero-frequency component is centered—a necessary condition for orientation averaging. With the padded cube prepared, a three-dimensional FFT is performed. Notably, the number of FFT points is not constrained to be a power of 2, as empirical tests have shown negligible performance loss. The resulting quantity is given by:

$$|FT[\rho(x)]|^2.$$

2.1.3 Continuous Density Correction

In numerical simulations, the electron density is defined only at discrete lattice points, whereas the physical electron density is continuous. To generate the most realistic SAXS data, it is therefore necessary to implement a continuous density correction [2]. As illustrated in Fig. 5, this correction bridges the gap between discrete density peaks and a continuous density distribution by convolving the discrete peaks (as used in numerical DFT) with an elementary “box” function of width a [2].

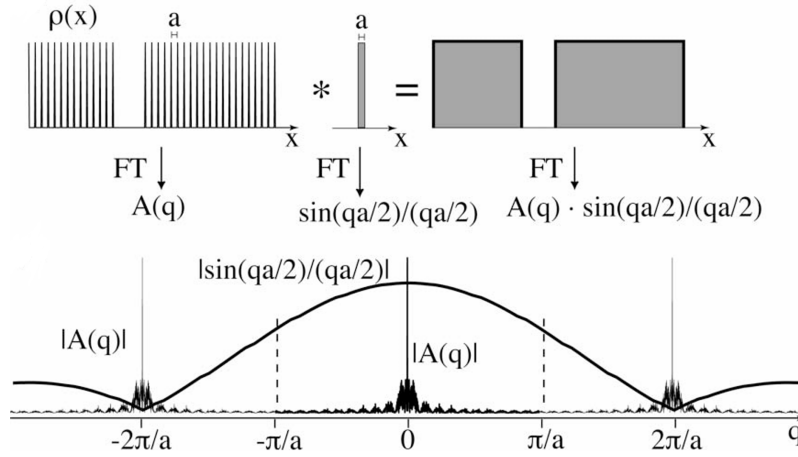


Figure 5: Continuous-Discrete Density Distribution Correction Symbols: $A(q)$ denotes the result of Discrete Fourier Transform [2]

Mathematically, the Fourier Transform (FT) of a convolution is equal to the product of the FTs of the individual functions. Thus, the corrected scattering

intensity can be expressed as:

$$I(\mathbf{q}) = |FT[\rho_{\text{latt}}]|^2 \left[\prod_{m=1}^3 \frac{\sin(q_m a/2)}{q_m a/2} \right]^2 \quad [2]$$

where ρ_{latt} denotes the discretely defined electron density. In other words, we approximate the scattering intensity obtained from the continuous density by multiplying the intensity from the discrete density by the correction factor

$$\left[\frac{\sin(q m_a/2)}{q m_a/2} \right]^2$$

in each dimension ($m = 1, 2, 3$). This procedure is illustrated in Fig. 5 for a one-dimensional case. For discrete q values, we define

$$q^{(k)} = \frac{2k}{Na},$$

and multiplying by $a/2$ yields

$$\frac{q^{(k)} a}{2} = \frac{k}{N}$$

Thus, along one dimension, the k th point (out of N) in the IDFT(q) data field is multiplied by

$$\left\{ \frac{\sin \left[\frac{(k-N/2-1)}{N} \right]}{\frac{(k-N/2-1)}{N}} \right\}^2$$

taking into account that the point corresponding to $q = 0$ is located at $N/2 + 1$. In three dimensions, with a lattice spacing given by

$$q_s = \frac{2}{Na}$$

the continuous scattering intensity is obtained via

$$I_{\text{cont}}(n_1 q_s, n_2 q_s, n_3 q_s) = I_{\text{DFT}}(n_1 q_s, n_2 q_s, n_3 q_s) \prod_{m=1}^3 \left\{ \frac{\sin \left[\frac{(n_m-N/2-1)}{N} \right]}{\frac{(n_m-N/2-1)}{N}} \right\}^2 \quad (1)$$

For small q (or equivalently, for large structures, which are most relevant in small-angle scattering), the sinc functions in Equation (1) are nearly unity and leave $I(q)$ virtually unchanged. This is expected since small q values correspond to large distances where the fine details of the electron density do not significantly affect the scattering intensity. At the limit of the first Nyquist zone, $|q| = \pi/a$, the scattering intensity $I(\pi/a)$ is reduced by a factor of $(2/\pi)^2 \approx 0.4$. Therefore, the corrected scattering intensity is given by:

$$|FT[\rho_{latt}]|^2 \left[\prod_{m=1}^3 \frac{\sin(q_m a/2)}{q_m a/2} \right]^2$$

2.1.4 Orientation Averaging + Spherical Correction

After applying the necessary correction functions, the next step is to perform orientation averaging to convert the full three-dimensional scattering data into a one-dimensional intensity curve, $I(q)$. The fundamental idea is to compute the scattering intensity at a given q by averaging the intensities of all points in 3D q space with $|\mathbf{q}| \approx q$. This is equivalent to averaging over a spherical shell in q space, hence the term “Orientation Averaging” or “Spherical Mean”. In our implementation, the FFT yields n_x^3 points in the 3D q space, after which a one-dimensional q axis with n_{xf} uniformly spaced bins is defined. The following discussion first outlines the original algorithm proposed in [2] and then introduces an improved algorithm along with a comparative analysis.

Original Algorithm

The primary objective of the original algorithm is to distribute the scattering intensity from each of the n_x^3 points onto the n_{xf} bins. Since the bins are uniformly spaced over the overall q range, each value $q = |\mathbf{q}|$ must be mapped onto this discretized axis. The process can be summarized as follows. First, the n_x^3 points are flattened into a one-dimensional array, and the q value for the κ^{th} point is computed as:

$$q = |\mathbf{q}| = \frac{2\pi\kappa}{n_x a},$$

where a denotes the unit length. With the new 1D q axis consisting of n_{xf}

bins, let k be the bin index corresponding to the nearest value

$$q' = \frac{2\pi k}{n_{xf} a}$$

to $\frac{2\pi\kappa}{n_x a}$. Because q generally lies between two consecutive q' values, the intensity $I_{\text{DFT}}(\mathbf{q})$ is apportioned between the adjacent bins. Specifically, a fraction

$$1 - \frac{|q' - q|}{\Delta q} = 1 - |k - \kappa|, \quad \text{where } \Delta q = \frac{2\pi}{n_{xf} a},$$

is allocated to the bin at

$$q' = \frac{2\pi k}{n_{xf} a},$$

while the remaining fraction

$$\frac{|q' - q|}{\Delta q} = |k - \kappa|$$

is assigned to the adjacent bin at

$$q' = \frac{2\pi (k + \text{sgn}(q' - q))}{n_{xf} a}.$$

In formal terms, this process can be written as:

$$(1 - |\kappa - k|) I_{\text{DFT}}(\mathbf{q}) \rightarrow I' \left(\frac{2\pi k}{n_{xf} a} \right), \quad |\kappa - k| I_{\text{DFT}}(\mathbf{q}) \rightarrow I' \left(\frac{2\pi (k + \text{sgn}(\kappa - k))}{n_{xf} a} \right).$$

Since the FFT of real-valued functions is symmetric about zero frequency, this “channel sharing” process is performed for every point in one-eighth of the n_x^3 grid, effectively accumulating their contributions into the n_{xf} uniformly distributed bins. Additionally, to compensate for the uneven number of points in different regions, the central point is assigned a weight of 1 while other points are weighted by 2, reflecting their double counting in the complete n_x^3 dataset.

Because the number of points with $q = |\mathbf{q}|$ in a spherical shell increases proportionally to the square of the radius (as noted in [2] and [3]), the aggregated

scattering intensity from the cubic lattice is given by:

$$I'(q) = I(q)q^2$$

Without proper correction, the scattering intensities at higher q values will be overestimated due to the larger number of points in the spherical shell, leading to a statistical bias. Therefore, to obtain the correct scattering intensity, $I'(\mathbf{q})$ must be divided by q^2 to yield $I(\mathbf{q})$ [2].

Fig. 6 compares SAXS data generated for a spherical particle using the original algorithm with an analytical solution provided by Professor Peter Dorschuk. The analytical result, derived from a simple mathematical model, serves as a benchmark since spherical particles are the only case for which an analytical expression is available. The comparison indicates that while the original algorithm approximates the scattering intensity well at high q , discrepancies exist in the low q region.

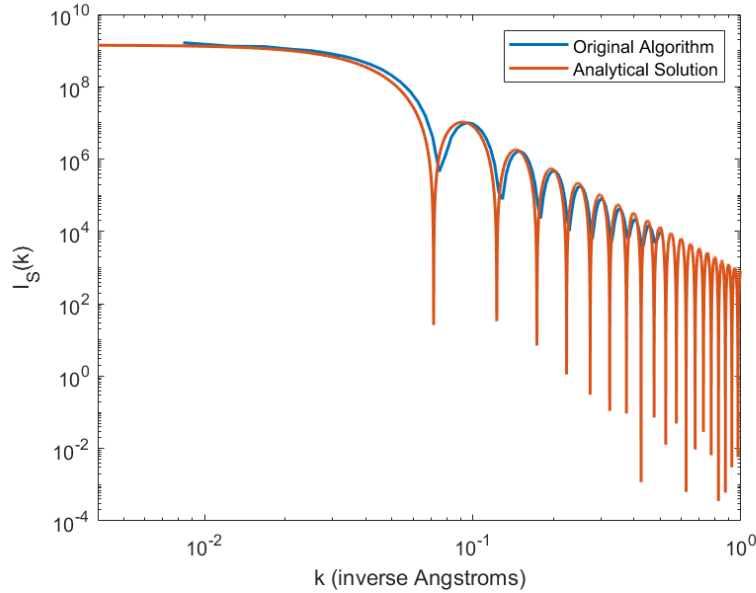


Figure 6: Original Orientation Averaging Algorithm vs Analytical Solution

Improved Algorithm

While the original algorithm offers a clear, step-by-step procedure for dis-

tributing scattering intensities across bins, its nested `for`-loop structure can be computationally expensive—especially for large grids where n_x or n_{xf} may exceed several hundred points. Furthermore, our analysis identifies two primary issues that lead to discrepancies between the algorithm’s output and the analytical predictions.

First Issue:

Rounding κ to the nearest integer bin index, followed by applying a linear “channel sharing” between adjacent bins, introduces subtle interpolation errors in the low- q region. For example, as shown in Fig. 6, the scattering intensity appears to be shifted to the right by approximately one bin. This shift is attributable to the design of the rounding function. To avoid division by zero, the algorithm initiates the sharing of scattering intensity from bin 1 rather than bin 0 (where $q = |\mathbf{q}| = 0$). Although this approach prevents division by zero, it results in a shifted scattering intensity once the correction $I'(q) = I(q)q^2$ is applied.

Second Issue:

The second problem also stems from the correction $I'(q) = I(q)q^2$. As depicted in Fig. 7, although the effective point counts as a function of q follow a quadratic trend for approximately 60% of the q range, this trend fails in the high- q region, leading to an underestimation of the scattering intensity in those bins. The effective counts are computed based on the weighted contributions of each point to each bin. Given the finite extent of the cube, the number of points within a spherical shell of radius q is not strictly proportional to q^2 when the radius approaches half the cube size. For q values beyond this threshold, fewer points are present since a portion of the spherical shell lies outside the cube.

To address these concerns, we propose an improved, more efficient method with three key modifications:

1. **Full-vectorization Approach:** Instead of iterating through all n_x^3 points using three nested loops, we first generate the entire 3D coordinate grid via `ndgrid` (or an equivalent function) to compute $|\mathbf{q}|$ values in a single vectorized operation. This mesh approach directly provides

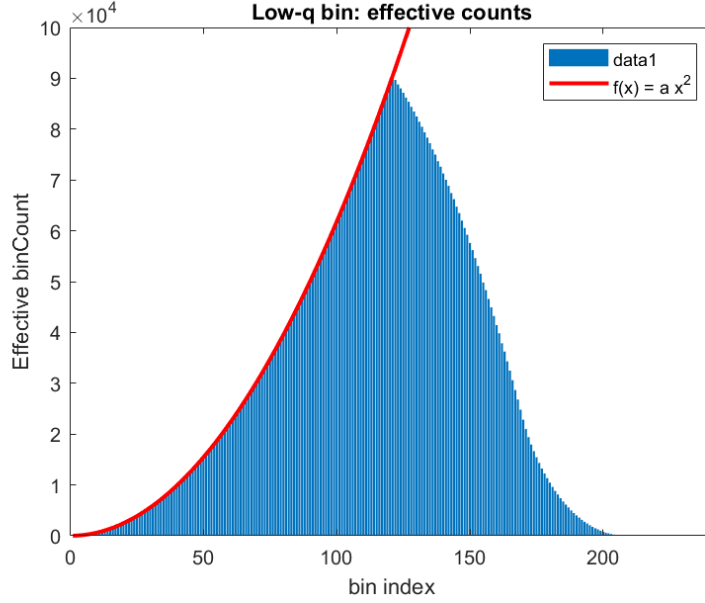


Figure 7: Effective Bin counts vs q . data1 denotes the effective counts of points falling into the bins along the q axis.

the spherical radius for each voxel in the frequency domain:

$$\mathbf{R} = \sqrt{X^2 + Y^2 + Z^2}$$

where (X, Y, Z) spans the 3D domain $\{-\frac{n_x}{2}, \dots, \frac{n_x}{2} - 1\}$ after shifting the zero-frequency component to the center. The corresponding intensities I_{q3D} and correction factors (sinc^2) are likewise extracted in vector form.

2. **Weighted Linear Interpolation via Accumulation:** Once each voxel's radius R_κ is known, we use a linear interpolation scheme to distribute its scattering intensity $I_{\text{DFT}}(\mathbf{q}_\kappa)$ across two adjacent bins. Denoting $\lfloor R_\kappa \rfloor$ by r_{floor} and the fractional part by $r_{\text{frac}} = R_\kappa - \lfloor R_\kappa \rfloor$, each voxel's intensity is apportioned to bin r_{floor} with weight $(1 - r_{\text{frac}})$ and to bin $(r_{\text{floor}} + 1)$ with weight r_{frac} . Mathematically:

$$I_{\text{scatt}}(r_{\text{floor}}) += I_{\text{DFT}}(\mathbf{q}_\kappa) (1 - r_{\text{frac}}), \quad I_{\text{scatt}}(r_{\text{floor}} + 1) += I_{\text{DFT}}(\mathbf{q}_\kappa) r_{\text{frac}}.$$

Crucially, we implement this “accumulation” in a vectorized manner

(e.g. via `accumarray` in MATLAB). This not only *eliminates* the triple nested loops but also ensures all voxel intensities are distributed in a single pass, dramatically reducing runtime.

3. **Better Normalization:** As in the original algorithm, we still apply the normalization by r^2 (or q^2) to account for the increasing number of points in concentric spherical shells at larger radii. However, as demonstrated above, this will cause the scattering intensities to be underestimated. To fix that, we normalize the scattering intensity with the effective counts of points instead of q^2 .

By combining these three modifications, the improved algorithm offers the following advantages:

- **Significantly Reduced Computational Cost:** The use of vectorized routines and direct accumulations avoids $\mathcal{O}(n_x^3)$ triple-loop overhead, thus scaling better to larger grids.
- **Better Physical Explanation:** The employment of a better normalization method avoids shifting the intensities intentionally, which makes more sense concerning physical meaning since there is scattering intensity at the center of the grid.
- **More Accurate Ripple Behavior:** Empirically, we observe better agreement with analytical scattering curves for spherical models, especially in the ripples, which was proved to be most significant for pattern recognition.

Figure 8 highlights these improvements. Compared to the original algorithm, the proposed scheme aligns more closely with the analytical result across all q ranges. As in the original approach, the high- q region still exhibits minor fluctuations due to finite sampling and boundary effects, but these are substantially reduced by using adaptive padding (Section 2.2.1) and continuous density correction (Section 2.2.2). Overall, this improved orientation averaging framework produces higher-quality SAXS curves in less time, thereby facilitating more efficient large-scale data generation for ML workflows [2, 3].

2.1.5 Data Pre-processing

After generating the simulated SAXS data for models of varying sizes and shapes, it is necessary to address the issue of inconsistent data lengths caused

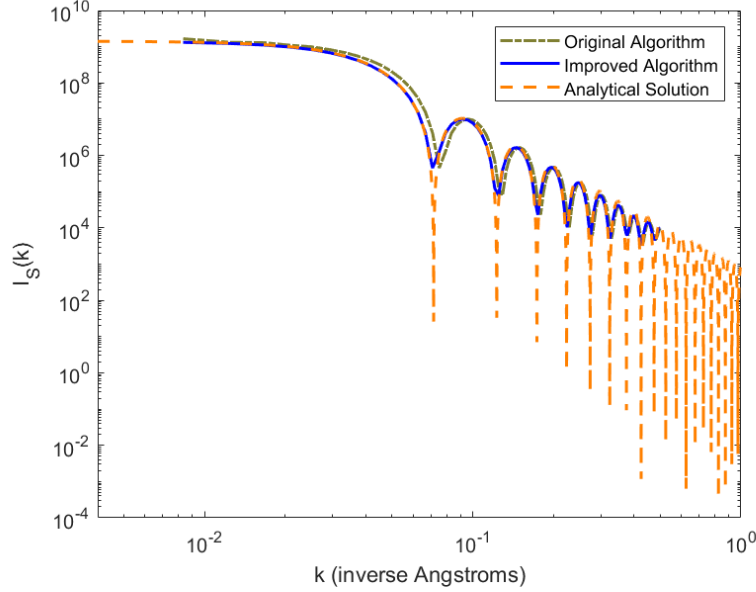


Figure 8: Comparison of the improved orientation averaging algorithm (red) with the original method (blue) and an analytical scattering curve (yellow) for a spherical LNP model.

by adaptive padding. Larger LNP models result in increased padding and a higher number of grid points (n_x), which leads to differences in the number of data points in the final SAXS curves. To overcome this, we adopt the solution proposed in [3], in which the scattering intensities are simulated for 500 (n_x) q values, uniformly distributed between:

$$q_{\min} \approx 0.04 \text{ nm}^{-1} \quad \text{and} \quad q_{\max} \approx 3.00 \text{ nm}^{-1},$$

These values were derived from an in-house experimental setup using an Anton Paar SAXSpoint 2.0 (Anton Paar, Graz, Austria) and represent a typical SAXS probing range while maintaining general applicability. Consequently, a global q range is defined for all LNP models. Although the LNPs are not assumed to be spherical, extrapolation using a Guinier function—defined as

$$I(q) = e^{A+Bq^2} \quad [4]$$

can provide a reasonable approximation for the scattering intensities of small LNPs before the Guinier region. To perform a weighted summation, we choose q_{\min} as the smallest q_{\min} value across the entire dataset. Mathemati-

cally, the universal q range is expressed as:

$$q_{\min} = \frac{2\pi}{n_x a} = 2\pi \times 0.00167 \text{ nm}^{-1}, \quad q_{\max} = \frac{\pi}{a} = \pi \times 0.5 \text{ nm}^{-1}.$$

With a universal q range established for all SAXS data, each dataset can be interpolated or extrapolated to conform to the same q axis with a fixed number of points (e.g., 500 points). Comprehensive experiments indicate that cubic spline interpolation yields superior results.

2.1.6 Data Synthesizing

This section outlines the methodology for dataset creation, as illustrated by the flow chart in Fig. 9. The process is divided into three sequential steps: Within-Type Data Augmentation, Cross-Type Data Synthesizing, and Poisson Noise Addition. At this stage, the ML algorithm is developed using two distinct types of LNPs (Type 3 and Type 4, as shown in Fig. 3). Due to computational constraints, 81 samples of 500-point SAXS curves have been generated, covering LNP sizes ranging from 20 nm to 100 nm in 1 nm increments. These samples form the basis for further augmentation, which is essential for mitigating fitting challenges and enhancing the model’s ability to capture relevant patterns in the data.

2.1.7 Within-Type Data Augmentation

In this study, the focus is on pure, dilute aqueous LNP solutions. Here, “pure” indicates that only LNPs are present in the sample, and “aqueous” signifies that water is the solvent. Given that water molecules contribute negligibly to the scattering intensity due to their small size relative to LNPs, we assume that only the LNPs contribute to the total scattering intensity. Moreover, as the solutions are dilute, interparticle interactions can be neglected. According to [4], the total scattering intensity of the sample can thus be treated as the weighted sum of the scattering intensities of individual particles, where each weight represents the number of particles of a specific size or type.

The first step in data augmentation is to increase the number of SAXS curves available for each LNP type. Based on the random residence time approach, the particle size distribution in finely divided systems is often observed to

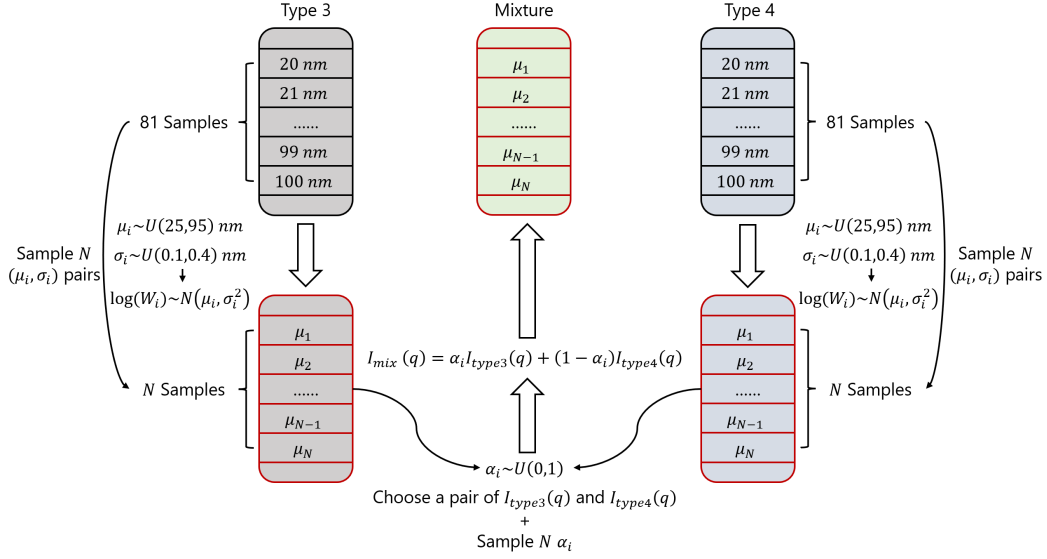


Figure 9: The Flow Chart of Data Synthesizing. Symbols: $U(a, b)$ denotes uniform distribution over interval (a, b) .

follow a lognormal distribution [5]. To capture this behavior, we uniformly sample a mean value, μ , within the range of 25 to 95, and a corresponding standard deviation, σ , within the range of 1 to 4. Each μ - σ pair defines a unique lognormal distribution. This distribution is divided into 81 intervals, from which 81 normalized weights (summing to 1) are extracted—each weight corresponding to one of the original samples. Fig. 10 illustrates the whole process by taking pure Type 3 LNP solutions as examples.

For each LNP type, the 81 original 500-point SAXS curves are multiplied by their respective weights, and the weighted intensities are summed to produce a new 500-point curve. By repeating this procedure N times, each LNP type is expanded into N samples. Each resulting SAXS curve is interpreted as the scattering result of a dilute LNP solution characterized by a size distribution determined by the sampled μ and σ . In this framework, μ serves as the label for the sample, while σ is regarded as a noise factor.

2.1.8 Cross-Type Data Synthesizing

To more accurately mimic real-world samples, heterogeneous LNP solutions are simulated via a weighted linear combination approach. Specifically, two

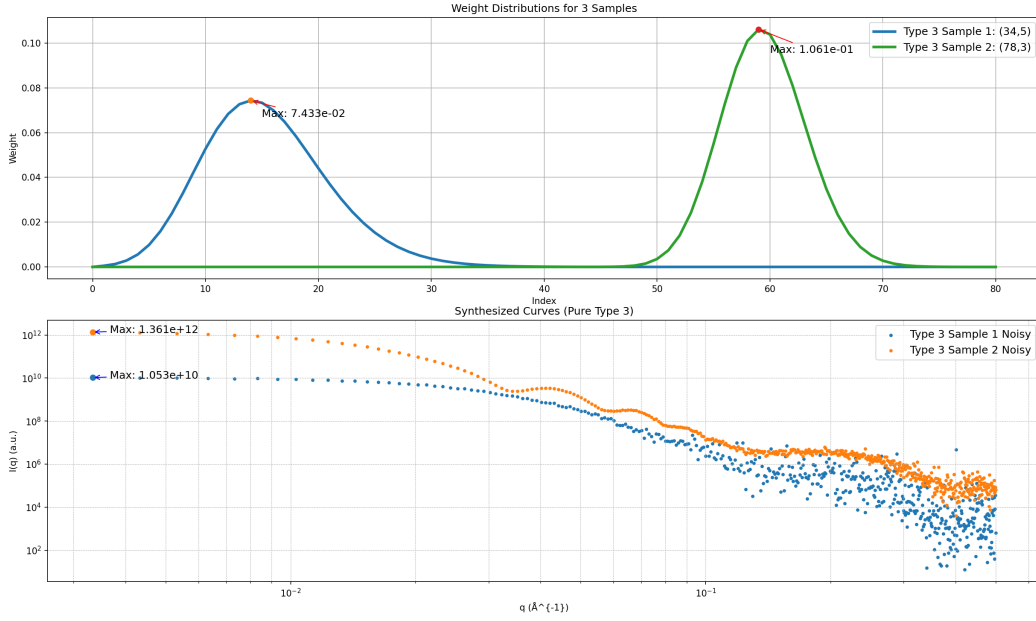


Figure 10: Demonstration of Within-Class Data Augmentation (With Poisson Noise Implemented)

samples are randomly selected from two different LNP types (e.g., Type 3 and Type 4), denoted as Curve 1 and Curve 2 with corresponding labels μ_1 and μ_2 . A random weight α is then drawn from a uniform distribution on the interval $(0, 1)$ to determine the relative contributions of each sample. The resulting heterogeneous SAXS curve is computed as:

$$\text{Curve}_{\text{heter}} = \alpha \times \text{Curve}_1 + (1 - \alpha) \times \text{Curve}_2,$$

with the associated label defined by the weighted average:

$$\mu_{\text{heter}} = \alpha \times \mu_1 + (1 - \alpha) \times \mu_2.$$

Here, α represents the fraction of one LNP type in the mixture, serving as a target for regression. In addition to predicting α , determining μ_{heter} provides further insights into the size distribution of the constituent LNP types. Both α and μ_{heter} are therefore recorded in the synthesized heterogeneous dataset.

2.1.9 Poisson Noise Addition

To accurately simulate the experimental measurement process, it is crucial to model the inherent noise originating from photon counting statistics [3, 6]. In SAXS experiments, the number of photons detected in each q -bin is governed by Poisson statistics, meaning that the variance of the measured intensity is proportional to its mean. However, when simulating theoretical SAXS curves, since it is impossible to know the devices' real-world calibration coefficients (if they exist), directly applying a Poisson noise model would produce unrealistic noise levels.

To address this, we adopt a lognormal noise model that ensures the added noise remains strictly positive and effectively handles multiplicative effects. For each theoretical SAXS curve $I(q)$, we introduce a multiplicative noise factor $N(q)$ defined as:

$$N(q) = \exp \left(\sqrt{\sigma_n^2(q)} \epsilon - \frac{\sigma_n^2(q)}{2} \right),$$

where $\epsilon \sim \mathcal{N}(0, 1)$ is a standard normally distributed random variable. This formulation leverages the properties of the lognormal distribution to guarantee that

$$E[N(q)] = 1,$$

thereby ensuring that the expected value of the noisy intensity remains $I(q)$, i.e.,

$$E[I_{\text{noisy}}(q)] = I(q).$$

The q -dependent variance $\sigma_n^2(q)$ is computed by:

$$\sigma_n^2(q) = \ln \left(1 + \frac{\alpha_n}{I(q)} \right),$$

where the noise scaling parameter α_n is sampled from a log-uniform distribution over a range (e.g., $[10^4, 10^{7.5}]$). This range is chosen based on extensive experimental evaluation to reflect the wide dynamic range observed in real SAXS measurements. Under this model, the variance of the noisy intensity approximates $\alpha I(q)$, consistent with the statistical behavior expected from

photon counting. Finally, the noisy SAXS curve is obtained by:

$$I_{\text{noisy}}(q) = I(q) \times N(q),$$

The examples of simulated SAXS curves are illustrated in Fig. 11 with a setting of $[10^5, 10^{8.5}]$ to provide more realistic results.

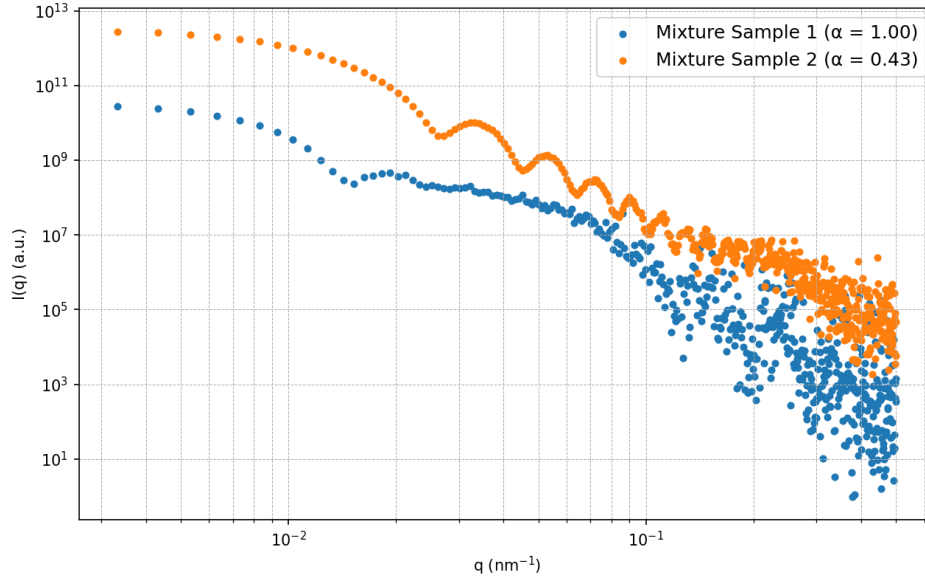


Figure 11: Example of simulated SAXS curves (With different mixing factor α)

2.2 ML Model Design

At this stage, two distinct convolutional neural network (CNN) architectures have been developed: one for classifying LNP solution types and another for regressing the fraction α . Both models incorporate effective normalization techniques—including batch normalization and feature scaling—to mitigate the effects of the large dynamic range present in the scattering intensity data, thereby enabling the networks to focus on the underlying shape of the SAXS curves.

The classification network (see Fig. 12) comprises two convolutional layers with 32 and 64 output channels and kernel sizes of 5 and 3, respectively. Each convolutional layer is followed by batch normalization and a ReLU activation

function. The feature maps are then flattened and passed through two fully connected layers, with a dropout layer (rate 0.3) inserted between them to reduce overfitting. A softmax function at the output layer generates a valid probability distribution over the target classes.

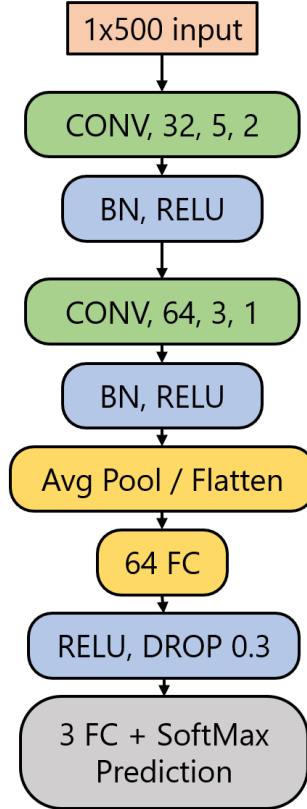


Figure 12: Network Architecture for Classification

The regression network (see Fig. 13) is designed to predict the mixing factor α and consists of three convolutional blocks. The convolutional layers in these blocks are configured with 32, 64, and 128 output channels and kernel sizes of 5, 5, and 3, respectively. Each layer is accompanied by batch normalization and a ReLU activation function. The final feature representation is then processed by three fully connected layers, with dropout layers (rate 0.15) inserted between them to mitigate overfitting. A sigmoid activation function at the final layer produces the regression output.

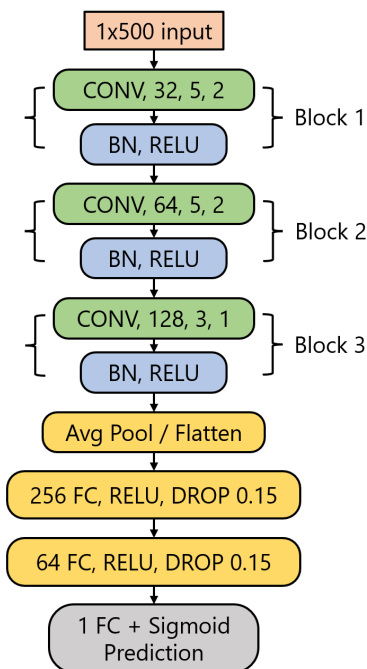


Figure 13: Network Architecture for Regression

3 Results

This section presents the experimental outcomes obtained from the developed data synthesizing pipeline and ML models. The results are organized into two subsections: one addressing the classification of LNP solution types and the other concerning the regression of the mixture fraction.

3.1 Results for Classification

The classification model demonstrated robust performance in differentiating between LNP solution types. As shown in Fig. 14, both the training and validation loss curves exhibit smooth convergence. The detailed classification metrics (see Table 1) indicate high precision and recall across all classes, with the F1-scores of 0.97 for Type 3, 0.98 for Type 4, and 0.93 for the Mixture category. An overall accuracy of 96% was achieved on a test set comprising 1200 samples. Furthermore, the confusion matrix in Fig. 15 reveals that misclassifications were minimal, thereby reinforcing the model’s discriminative capability in handling heterogeneous LNP solutions.

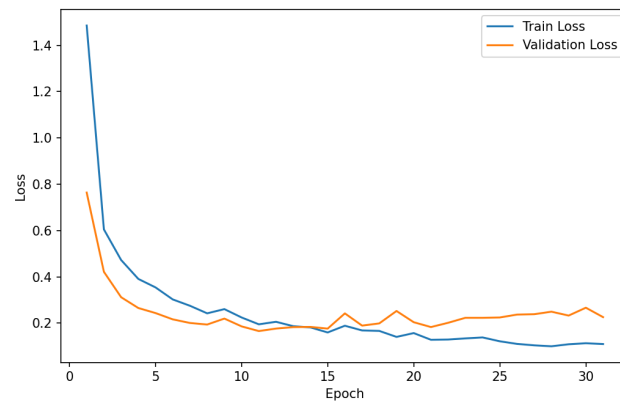


Figure 14: Training/Validation loss for classification

Table 1: Classification Report

Individual Classes				
Class	Precision	Recall	F1-score	Support
Type 3	0.95	0.99	0.97	437
Type 4	0.95	1.00	0.98	380
Mixture	0.98	0.89	0.93	383
Aggregate Metrics				
Accuracy	0.96			1200

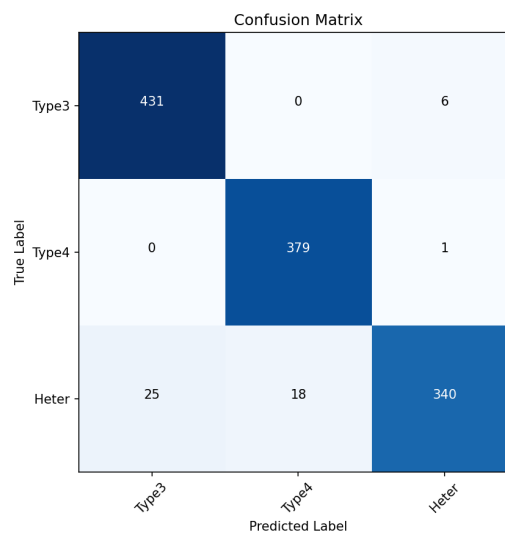


Figure 15: Confusion matrix for classification

3.2 Results for Fraction Regression

The regression model, designed to predict the fraction (α) in heterogeneous samples, exhibited excellent predictive performance. The model achieved an R^2 score of 0.9636 and a total test mean squared error (MSE) of 0.003019. The training losses are summarized in Fig. 16. These results underscore the model’s capacity to capture the underlying relationships in the SAXS data. Additionally, the regression performance is further corroborated by the log-scaled prediction results displayed in Fig. 17, which demonstrate a high degree of correlation between the predicted and true fraction values with minimal bias.

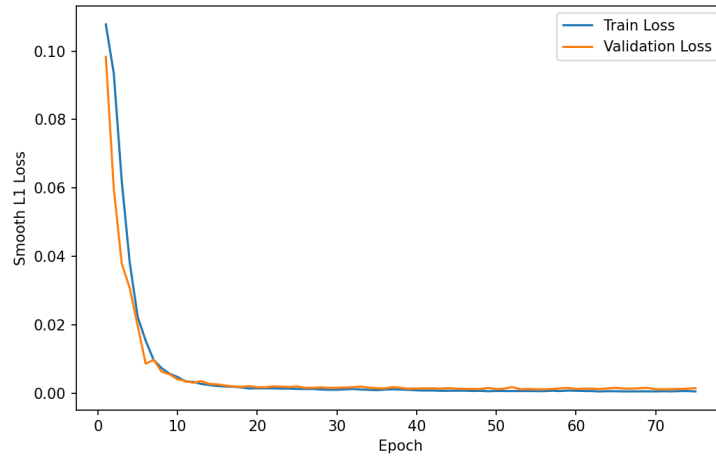
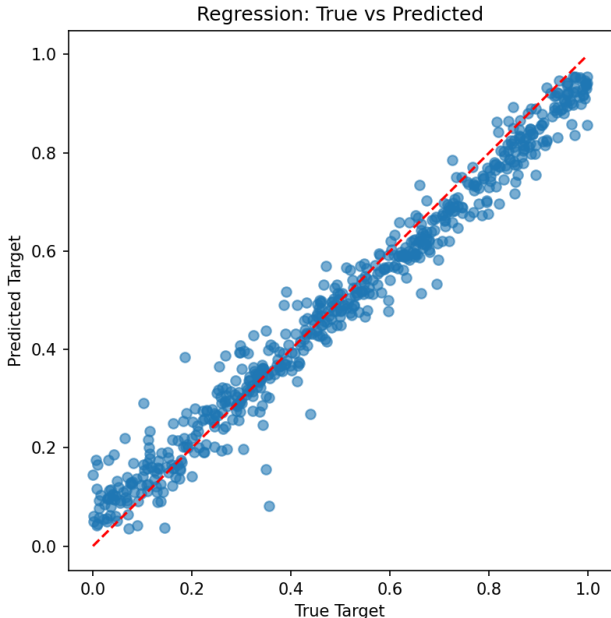


Figure 16: Training Losses for Regression Model

4 Conclusion

In this work, we presented a physics-based simulation pipeline and corresponding ML models for the characterization of LNP drug delivery vehicles using SAXS data. By carefully constructing realistic 3D LNP models, applying adaptive padding in the fast Fourier transform, introducing a continuous density correction factor, and incorporating lognormal and Poisson-like noise, we generated high-fidelity SAXS data across a broad range of particle sizes and mixture fractions.

Figure 17: Prediction Results of Mixing Factor α

We then trained CNNs for two tasks: (1) classifying LNP solution types, and (2) predicting the mixture fraction in heterogeneous samples. The classification network achieved an overall accuracy of 96%, demonstrating its strong ability to distinguish between pure LNP solutions of different types and their mixtures. The regression model achieved a high R^2 of 0.9636, successfully capturing the underlying relationships in the data to predict the mixture fraction (α) of two LNP types.

These results highlight the potential of ML-driven SAXS analysis as a rapid and cost-effective complement or alternative to more resource-intensive methods such as cryo-EM. By offering quantitative insights into LNP size distributions and compositional fractions, the proposed approach paves the way for more efficient formulation development and quality control in nanomedicine. Nevertheless, future work is needed to further validate our pipeline with real experimental SAXS datasets, investigate the impact of sample polydispersity and other solvent effects, and extend the methodology to more complex multi-type LNP mixtures.

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5 Appendix

5.1 Codes for SAXS simulation

```
1 function [q, Iq] = get_Iq(filename, ratio)
2     % cubic_effective_norm: Computes the scattering intensity I(q)
3     % and normalizes it using the effective voxel count in each bin.
4     %
5     % Inputs:
6     % - filename: Path to the .mat file containing density data
7     % (should include the variable rhoS)
8     % - ratio: Ratio between the padded cube size and the non-zero
9     % region size M (default = 6)
10    %
11    % Outputs:
12    % - q: Array of scattering vector magnitudes
13    % - Iq: Corresponding scattering intensities I(q)
14
15    if nargin < 2
16        ratio = 6;
17    end
18
19    %% 1. Load data and extract the effective region
20    data = load(filename);
21    small_cube = data.rhoS;
22    M_full = size(small_cube, 1);
23
24    % Extract the actual effective region size M from the filename
25    % (e.g., 'd20' implies M = 20)
26    token = regexp(filename, 'd(\d+)', 'tokens');
27    if ~isempty(token)
28        M = str2double(token{1}{1});
29    else
30        M = M_full;
31    end
32
33    % Extract the center MMM region from the full-size data
34    start_small = floor((M_full - M) / 2) + 1;
35    end_small = start_small + M - 1;
36    effective_model = small_cube(start_small:end_small, ...
```

```
37         start_small:end_small, ...
38         start_small:end_small);
39
40 %% 2. Embed the effective model into a larger cube
41 nx = ratio * M;
42
43 rhoS = zeros(nx, nx, nx);
44 center_position = nx / 2;
45 start_pos = floor(center_position - M / 2) + 1;
46 end_pos = start_pos + M - 1;
47 rhoS(start_pos:end_pos, start_pos:end_pos, start_pos:end_pos) =
    effective_model;
48
49 %% 3. Perform FFT and compute 3D scattering amplitude squared (I
    (q) in 3D)
50 Iq3D = abs(fftn(rhoS)).^2;
51 Iq3D = fftshift(Iq3D);
52
53 %% 4. Prepare sinc correction factor
54 iqcent = nx/2 + 1;
55 iq1 = (1:nx) - iqcent;
56 q1ad2 = pi * iq1 / nx + 1e-8; % avoid division by zero
57 sincsq_1d = (sin(q1ad2) ./ q1ad2).^2;
58
59 %% 5. Perform spherical averaging using vectorization
60 % Construct a 3D meshgrid (origin at center)
61 [X, Y, Z] = ndgrid(-floor(nx/2):(ceil(nx/2)-1));
62 R = sqrt(X.^2 + Y.^2 + Z.^2); % avoid R=0
63
64 % Linearly interpolate between two adjacent bins
65 rFloor = floor(R);
66 rFrac = R - rFloor;
67 rFloor(rFloor < 1) = 1;
68 rFloor(rFloor > nx) = nx;
69 rFloorP1 = rFloor + 1;
70 rFloorP1(rFloorP1 < 1) = 1;
71 rFloorP1(rFloorP1 > nx) = nx;
72
73 % Lookup FFT values for each voxel and apply sinc correction
74 idxX = X + iqcent;
```



```
75     idxY = Y + iqcent;
76     idxZ = Z + iqcent;
77     vals_Iq3D = Iq3D(sub2ind(size(Iq3D), idxX, idxY, idxZ));
78     vals_sinc = sincsqr_1d(idxX) .* sincsqr_1d(idxY) .* sincsqr_1d(
        idxZ);
79     vals = vals_Iq3D .* vals_sinc;
80
81     % Assign weights
82     wFloor = 1 - rFrac;
83     wFloorP1 = rFrac;
84
85     % Use accumarray to accumulate scattering intensity
        contributions per bin
86     Iscatt_part1 = accumarray(rFloor(:), vals(:) .* wFloor(:), [nx
        ,1]);
87     Iscatt_part2 = accumarray(rFloorP1(:), vals(:) .* wFloorP1(:), [
        nx,1]);
88     Iscatt = Iscatt_part1 + Iscatt_part2;
89
90     % Also accumulate effective voxel counts (sum of interpolation
        weights)
91     count_part1 = accumarray(rFloor(:), wFloor(:), [nx,1]);
92     count_part2 = accumarray(rFloorP1(:), wFloorP1(:), [nx,1]);
93     binCount = count_part1 + count_part2;
94
95     %% 6. Normalize using effective voxel count in each bin
96     nxd2 = nx / 2;
97     IqVal = zeros(nxd2 - 1, 1);
98     for iq = 2:nxd2
99         if binCount(iq) > 0
100             IqVal(iq - 1) = Iscatt(iq) / binCount(iq);
101         else
102             IqVal(iq - 1) = 0;
103         end
104     end
105
106     %% 7. Compute q-axis and plot (optional)
107     a = 1; % Real length per voxel (e.g., 1 /pt)
108     dq = 1 / (nx * a); % q-step
109     q = dq * (2 : nxd2); % q-axis
```

```
110
111     Iq = IqVal;
112 end
```

Listing 1: MATLAB code to get the scattering intensity of single LNP model

```
1 clear;
2 clc;
3
4 % 1. Batch read all .mat files from ./type_i_model/
5 fileList = dir('./type_4_model/*.mat');
6
7 % 2. Prepare output directory and HDF5 file path
8 outputDir = './output';
9 if ~exist(outputDir, 'dir')
10     mkdir(outputDir);
11 end
12 hdf5_filename = fullfile(outputDir, 'raw4.h5');
13
14 % If the file already exists, delete it to avoid conflict with old
    data
15 if exist(hdf5_filename, 'file')
16     delete(hdf5_filename);
17 end
18
19 % 3. Process each .mat file one by one
20 for k = 1:length(fileList)
21     % Get the full path of the .mat file
22     filename = fullfile(fileList(k).folder, fileList(k).name);
23
24     % 4. Call get_Iq function to compute q and Iq (use ratio = 6,
        modify if needed)
25     [q, Iq] = get_Iq(filename, 6);
26
27     % 5. Combine q and Iq into a two-column array (N2) for easier
        access
28     data_qIq = [q(:), Iq(:)];
29
30     % 6. Extract filename (without path or extension) for dataset
        naming
31     [~, name, ~] = fileparts(filename);
```

```
32 dataset_name = ['/ ', name, '_qIq']; % e.g., /XX_qIq
33
34 % 7. Create dataset in HDF5 file and write the data
35 h5create(hdf5_filename, dataset_name, size(data_qIq));
36 h5write(hdf5_filename, dataset_name, data_qIq);
37
38 disp(['Processed and saved: ', name]);
39 end
```

Listing 2: MATLAB main script for data collection

```
1 import numpy as np
2 import scipy.io
3 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
4 import os
5 import time
6
7 def is_point_inside_ellipsoid(points, ellipsoid):
8     a, b, c, x0, y0, z0 = ellipsoid
9     return (((points[..., 0] - x0) / a) ** 2 +
10             ((points[..., 1] - y0) / b) ** 2 +
11             ((points[..., 2] - z0) / c) ** 2) <= 1
12
13 def is_point_inside_sphere(points, radius, center):
14     return np.sum((points - center) ** 2, axis=-1) <= radius ** 2
15
16 def is_point_inside_cylinder(points, radius, height, center):
17     x, y, z = points[..., 0] - center[0], points[..., 1] - center
18             [1], points[..., 2] - center[2]
19     return (x**2 + y**2 <= radius**2) & (np.abs(z) <= height / 2)
20
21 def lnp(cube_size, sld_core, sld_shell, sld_fill, sld_solvent,
22         alpha, type_option):
23     # Create 3D coordinate grid
24     x, y, z = np.meshgrid(np.arange(cube_size), np.arange(cube_size)
25                             , np.arange(cube_size), indexing='ij')
26     points = np.stack([x, y, z], axis=-1)
27     cube = np.zeros((cube_size, cube_size, cube_size))
28
29     # Define geometric parameters
30     r1 = 28.57 * alpha
```

```
28 r2 = 35.71 * alpha
29 shell = 4
30 l = 100
31
32 outer1 = np.array([r1, r1, r1, 50, 50, (1 + alpha) * l / 2 - r1
33 ])
34 outer2 = np.array([r1, r1, r2, 50, 50, (1 - alpha) * l / 2 + r2
35 ])
36 inner1 = np.array([r1 - shell, r1 - shell, r1 - shell, 50, 50,
37 (1 + alpha) * l / 2 - r1])
38 inner2 = np.array([r1 - shell, r1 - shell, r2 - shell, 50, 50,
39 (1 - alpha) * l / 2 + r2])
40
41 # Calculate the z-plane for cutoff
42 z0_inner1 = inner1[5]
43 z0_inner2 = inner2[5]
44 plane0 = (z0_inner1 + z0_inner2) / 2
45 plane_up = plane0 + 2
46 plane_down = plane0 - 2
47
48 # Check point membership for each region
49 inside_inner1 = is_point_inside_ellipsoid(points, inner1)
50 inside_inner2 = is_point_inside_ellipsoid(points, inner2)
51 inside_outer1 = is_point_inside_ellipsoid(points, outer1)
52 inside_outer2 = is_point_inside_ellipsoid(points, outer2)
53
54 if type_option == 1:
55     # Type 1: Standard coreshell structure
56     core_mask = inside_inner1 | inside_inner2
57     shell_mask = inside_outer1 | inside_outer2
58     cube[core_mask] = sld_core
59     cube[shell_mask & ~core_mask] = sld_shell
60     cube[~(core_mask | shell_mask)] = sld_solvent
61
62 elif type_option == 2:
63     # Type 2: Core only in upper half, fill in lower half
64     core_mask = (inside_inner1 & (points[..., 2] >= plane_up))
65     fill_mask = (inside_inner2 & (points[..., 2] <= plane_down))
66     shell_mask = (inside_outer1 | inside_outer2) & ~core_mask &
67         ~fill_mask
```

```
63     cube[core_mask] = sld_core
64     cube[fill_mask] = sld_fill
65     cube[shell_mask] = sld_shell
66     cube[~(core_mask | fill_mask | shell_mask)] = sld_solvent
67
68     elif type_option == 3:
69         # Type 3: Core in both ends, hollow middle
70         core_mask = (inside_inner1 & (points[..., 2] >= plane_up)) |
71             \
72             (inside_inner2 & (points[..., 2] <= plane_down))
73         shell_mask = inside_outer1 | inside_outer2
74         cube[core_mask] = sld_core
75         cube[shell_mask & ~core_mask] = sld_shell
76         cube[~(core_mask | shell_mask)] = sld_solvent
77
78     elif type_option == 4:
79         # Type 4: Sphere-only model
80         radius = 50 * alpha
81         center = np.array([cube_size // 2, cube_size // 2, cube_size
82             // 2])
83         sphere_mask = np.sum((points - center) ** 2, axis=-1) <=
84             radius ** 2
85         cube[sphere_mask] = sld_shell # or sld_core if needed
86
87     elif type_option == 5:
88         # Type 5: Cylinder model
89         cylinder_radius = 10
90         cylinder_height = 50
91         cylinder_center = np.array([cube_size // 2, cube_size // 2,
92             cube_size // 2])
93         cylinder_mask = is_point_inside_cylinder(points,
94             cylinder_radius, cylinder_height, cylinder_center)
95         cube[cylinder_mask] = 1 # Set to sld_core or 1
96
97     else:
98         raise ValueError("Invalid type_option. Choose between 1, 2,
99             3, 4 or 5.")
100
101     return cube
```

```
97 def visualize_lnp(cube, sld_core, sld_shell, sld_fill, sld_solvent)
98 :
99     # Define a boolean mask for all visible voxels
100     voxels = (cube == sld_core) | (cube == sld_shell) | (cube ==
101                 sld_fill) | (cube == sld_solvent)
102
103     # Assign colors based on material types
104     colors = np.empty(cube.shape, dtype=object)
105     colors[cube == sld_core] = 'red'
106     colors[cube == sld_shell] = 'green'
107     colors[cube == sld_fill] = 'blue'
108     colors[cube == sld_solvent] = 'cyan'
109
110     # Create 3D plot
111     fig = plt.figure()
112     ax = fig.add_subplot(111, projection='3d')
113     ax.voxels(voxels, facecolors=colors, edgecolor='k')
114
115     # Set axis labels
116     ax.set_xlabel('X')
117     ax.set_ylabel('Y')
118     ax.set_zlabel('Z')
119     plt.show()
120
121 def visualize_slice(cube, slice_index, alpha):
122     # Visualize a 2D slice of the 3D model at a specified Y index
123     slice_data = cube[:, slice_index, :]
124     plt.figure()
125     plt.imshow(slice_data, cmap='viridis', origin='lower')
126     plt.colorbar(label='SLD')
127     plt.title(f'Slice at y={slice_index}, diameter={100 * alpha:.2f}')
128
129     plt.xlabel('Z')
130     plt.ylabel('X')
131     plt.show(block=True)
132
133 def save_lnp_data(alpha, cube, X, Y, Z):
134     # Save the 3D LNP model and coordinate axes to a .mat file
135     directory = 'type_4_model'
136     os.makedirs(directory, exist_ok=True)
```

```
134 filename = os.path.join(directory, f'd{int(round(alpha*100))}.  
    mat')  
135 scipy.io.savemat(filename, {'rhoS': cube, 'X': X, 'Y': Y, 'Z': Z  
    })  
136  
137 def main():  
138     # Model parameters  
139     cube_size = 100  
140     sld_core = 16.0  
141     sld_shell = 9.0  
142     sld_fill = sld_shell  
143     sld_solvent = 0.0  
144  
145     # Generate coordinate grids  
146     X = np.linspace(-cube_size / 2, cube_size / 2, cube_size)  
147     Y = np.linspace(-cube_size / 2, cube_size / 2, cube_size)  
148     Z = np.linspace(-cube_size / 2, cube_size / 2, cube_size)  
149  
150     # Alpha controls overall particle size  
151     alphas = np.linspace(0.2, 1, 81)  
152  
153     for alpha in alphas:  
154         cube = lnp(cube_size, sld_core, sld_shell, sld_fill,  
            sld_solvent, alpha, type_option=4)  
155         save_lnp_data(alpha, cube, X, Y, Z)  
156         # visualize_slice(cube, 50, alpha)  
157         # visualize_lnp(cube, sld_core, sld_shell, sld_fill,  
            sld_solvent)  
158  
159 if __name__ == "__main__":  
160     st = time.time()  
161     main()  
162     et = time.time()  
163     print(et - st)
```

Listing 3: Python script to generate LNP 3D models

```
1 import h5py  
2 import numpy as np  
3 from scipy.interpolate import CubicSpline  
4 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
```

```
5
6 # Read the input HDF5 file
7 input_file_path = "./output/raw4.h5" # Modify this to the actual
  path
8 output_file_path = "./output/clean4.h5" # Path for the output file
9
10 with h5py.File(input_file_path, "r") as h5_file:
11     dataset_names = list(h5_file.keys())
12
13     # Extract the q_min from each dataset and find the minimum q_min
      across all
14     q_mins = [h5_file[name][0, 0] for name in dataset_names]
15     q_min = min(q_mins)
16     q_max = 0.5 # Fixed q_max
17
18     # Generate a unified q-axis
19     N_fixed = 500
20     q_fixed = np.linspace(q_min, q_max, N_fixed)
21
22     # Create a new HDF5 file for output
23     with h5py.File(output_file_path, "w") as h5_out:
24         # Store the standardized q-axis
25         h5_out.create_dataset("q_fixed", data=q_fixed)
26
27         # Interpolate each dataset and write to new HDF5
28         for dataset in dataset_names:
29             q_orig, Iq_orig = h5_file[dataset][:]
30
31             # Apply cubic spline interpolation
32             spline_func = CubicSpline(q_orig, Iq_orig, extrapolate=
                True)
33             Iq_spline = spline_func(q_fixed) # Interpolated I(q)
                without noise
34
35             h5_out.create_dataset(dataset, data=Iq_spline)
36
37 print(f"All datasets have been interpolated and saved to {
  output_file_path}")
```

Listing 4: Python script to preprocess the SAXS data collected by MATLAB main script


```
1 import re
2 import numpy as np
3 import h5py
4 import torch
5 import torch.nn as nn
6 import torch.optim as optim
7 from torch.utils.data import DataLoader, TensorDataset
8 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
9 from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score, classification_report,
    confusion_matrix
10
11
12 def load_separately_with_names(file_path):
13     """
14     Read all datasets in an HDF5 file except 'q_fixed', extract
15     numbers from dataset names,
16     and return a list of names (numbers) and a corresponding
17     array of data.
18     Assumes dataset names follow the pattern "d20_qIq", "
19     d100_qIq", etc.
20     """
21     names = []
22     data_list = []
23     with h5py.File(file_path, 'r') as f:
24         for key in f.keys():
25             if key == 'q_fixed':
26                 continue
27             match = re.search(r'd(\d+)_qIq', key)
28             if match:
29                 num = int(match.group(1))
30                 names.append(num)
31                 data_list.append(f[key][:])
32     sorted_indices = np.argsort(names)
33     sorted_names = [names[i] for i in sorted_indices]
34     sorted_data = np.vstack([data_list[i] for i in sorted_indices])
35     return sorted_names, sorted_data
36
37 def load_all_types(file_type3, file_type4):
38     """
```

```
36         Load datasets for Type 3 and Type 4 separately and return
           two tuples: (names, data)
37     """
38     names3, data3 = load_separately_with_names(file_type3)
39     names4, data4 = load_separately_with_names(file_type4)
40     return (names3, data3), (names4, data4)
41
42 def augment_type_data(names, X, new_sample_count=2000):
43     """
44     Augment data for one type.
45     For each sample, generate a log-normal weighted sum of the
         original data using a random mean and sigma.
46     Labels are not needed here since the type label will be
         assigned externally.
47     """
48     new_samples = []
49     diameters = np.array(names, dtype=np.float32)
50     for _ in range(new_sample_count):
51         mean_real = np.random.uniform(25, 95)
52         sigma_real = np.random.uniform(0.1, 0.4)
53         mu = np.log(mean_real ** 2 / np.sqrt(mean_real ** 2 +
           sigma_real ** 2))
54         sigma_log = np.sqrt(np.log(1 + (sigma_real ** 2 / mean_real
           ** 2)))
55         weights = (1.0 / (diameters * sigma_log * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)
           )) * \
56             np.exp(- (np.log(diameters) - mu) ** 2 / (2 *
           sigma_log ** 2))
57         weights /= np.sum(weights)
58         new_curve = np.sum(weights[:, np.newaxis] * X, axis=0)
59         new_samples.append(new_curve)
60     return np.array(new_samples), None
61
62 # Apply lognormal noise
63 def add_noise_to_curve(curve):
64     """
65     Add lognormal noise to a single scattering curve using
         Poisson-like scaling.
66     """
67     curve_safe = np.maximum(curve, 1e-12)
```

```
68     log_alpha = np.random.uniform(np.log(1e4), np.log(10 ** 7.5))
69     alpha = np.exp(log_alpha)
70     sigma2 = np.log(1 + alpha / curve_safe)
71     epsilon = np.random.randn(curve.shape[0])
72     noise_factor = np.exp(np.sqrt(sigma2) * epsilon - sigma2 / 2)
73     return curve * noise_factor
74
75 def add_noise_to_data(data):
76     """
77     Apply add_noise_to_curve to each curve in the dataset.
78     """
79     return np.array([add_noise_to_curve(data[i]) for i in range(data
80                             .shape[0])])
81
82 # Mix samples from two types
83 def generate_heter_data(X0, _, X1, __, desired_count=1000):
84     """
85     Generate heterogeneous samples by linearly mixing random
86     pairs of Type 3 and Type 4 samples.
87     Labels for mixture ratios are ignored; all are treated as a
88     new class in classification.
89     """
90     n0, n1 = X0.shape[0], X1.shape[0]
91     X_heter_list = []
92     for _ in range(desired_count):
93         idx0 = np.random.randint(n0)
94         idx1 = np.random.randint(n1)
95         alpha = np.random.rand()
96         mixed_curve = alpha * X0[idx0] + (1 - alpha) * X1[idx1]
97         X_heter_list.append(mixed_curve)
98     return np.array(X_heter_list), None, None
99
100 # Generate and prepare dataset for classification
101 def load_hdf5_data_for_classification(file_type3, file_type4,
102                                     desired_count=2000, heter_count=1000):
103     """
104     Load, augment, add noise, and prepare training data for
105     classification of 3 classes:
106     Type 3 (label 0), Type 4 (label 1), and heterogeneous
107     mixtures (label 2).
```

```
102         Data is also transformed to log10 scale after noise
           injection.
103     """
104     (names3, data3), (names4, data4) = load_all_types(file_type3,
           file_type4)
105     X_type3, _ = augment_type_data(names3, data3, desired_count)
106     X_type4, _ = augment_type_data(names4, data4, desired_count)
107     X_heter, _, _ = generate_heter_data(X_type3, None, X_type4, None
           , heter_count)
108     y_type3 = np.zeros(X_type3.shape[0], dtype=np.int64)
109     y_type4 = np.ones(X_type4.shape[0], dtype=np.int64)
110     y_heter = np.full(X_heter.shape[0], 2, dtype=np.int64)
111     X_type3 = np.log10(np.maximum(add_noise_to_data(X_type3), 1e-12)
           )
112     X_type4 = np.log10(np.maximum(add_noise_to_data(X_type4), 1e-12)
           )
113     X_heter = np.log10(np.maximum(add_noise_to_data(X_heter), 1e-12)
           )
114     X_all = np.concatenate([X_type3, X_type4, X_heter], axis=0)
115     y_all = np.concatenate([y_type3, y_type4, y_heter], axis=0)
116     return X_all, y_all
117
118 # CNN Model Definition
119 class ClassificationCNN(nn.Module):
120     """
121     CNN model definition for classifying SAXS curves into 3 classes.
122     """
123     def __init__(self, input_length, num_classes=3):
124         super(ClassificationCNN, self).__init__()
125         self.layer1 = nn.Sequential(
126             nn.Conv1d(1, 32, kernel_size=5, padding=2),
127             nn.BatchNorm1d(32),
128             nn.ReLU()
129         )
130         self.layer2 = nn.Sequential(
131             nn.Conv1d(32, 64, kernel_size=3, padding=1),
132             nn.BatchNorm1d(64),
133             nn.ReLU()
134         )
135         self.fc = nn.Sequential(
```

```
136         nn.Linear(64 * input_length, 64),
137         nn.ReLU(),
138         nn.Dropout(0.3),
139         nn.Linear(64, num_classes)
140     )
141
142     def forward(self, x):
143         x = x.unsqueeze(1)
144         x = self.layer1(x)
145         x = self.layer2(x)
146         x = x.view(x.size(0), -1)
147         return self.fc(x)
148
149 def train_the_model_classification(file_type3, file_type4,
150     desired_count):
151     """
152     End-to-end training routine:
153     - Load data and augment
154     - Add noise and transform
155     - Normalize and split into train/val/test
156     - Train CNN with early stopping
157     - Plot loss curves
158     - Evaluate and print classification metrics
159     """
160
161     X, y = load_hdf5_data_for_classification(file_type3, file_type4,
162         desired_count, desired_count)
163     print("X shape:", X.shape)
164     print("y shape:", y.shape)
165     print("Class counts:", {cls: int(np.sum(y == cls)) for cls in np
166         .unique(y)})
167
168     # Normalize input features
169     from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
170     scaler = StandardScaler()
171     X = scaler.fit_transform(X)
172
173     # Split into train/val/test
174     from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
175     X_train_val, X_test, y_train_val, y_test = train_test_split(X, y
```

```
    , test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
173 X_train, X_val, y_train, y_val = train_test_split(X_train_val,
    y_train_val, test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
174
175 # Convert to PyTorch tensors
176 X_train_tensor = torch.tensor(X_train, dtype=torch.float32)
177 X_val_tensor = torch.tensor(X_val, dtype=torch.float32)
178 X_test_tensor = torch.tensor(X_test, dtype=torch.float32)
179 y_train_tensor = torch.tensor(y_train, dtype=torch.long)
180 y_val_tensor = torch.tensor(y_val, dtype=torch.long)
181 y_test_tensor = torch.tensor(y_test, dtype=torch.long)
182
183 train_loader = DataLoader(TensorDataset(X_train_tensor,
    y_train_tensor), batch_size=256, shuffle=True)
184 val_loader = DataLoader(TensorDataset(X_val_tensor, y_val_tensor
    ), batch_size=256, shuffle=False)
185 test_loader = DataLoader(TensorDataset(X_test_tensor,
    y_test_tensor), batch_size=256, shuffle=False)
186
187 device = torch.device("cuda" if torch.cuda.is_available() else "
    cpu")
188 model = ClassificationCNN(input_length=X.shape[1]).to(device)
189 criterion = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()
190 optimizer = optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr=0.001)
191
192 epochs = 120
193 patience = 20
194 best_val_loss = float('inf')
195 best_model_weights = None
196 counter = 0
197 train_losses, val_losses = [], []
198
199 for epoch in range(epochs):
200     model.train()
201     total_train_loss = 0
202     for X_batch, y_batch in train_loader:
203         X_batch, y_batch = X_batch.to(device), y_batch.to(device)
204         optimizer.zero_grad()
205         outputs = model(X_batch)
206         loss = criterion(outputs, y_batch)
```

```
207         loss.backward()
208         optimizer.step()
209         total_train_loss += loss.item()
210     train_loss = total_train_loss / len(train_loader)
211     train_losses.append(train_loss)
212
213     model.eval()
214     total_val_loss = 0
215     with torch.no_grad():
216         for X_batch, y_batch in val_loader:
217             X_batch, y_batch = X_batch.to(device), y_batch.to(
218                 device)
219             outputs = model(X_batch)
220             loss = criterion(outputs, y_batch)
221             total_val_loss += loss.item()
222     val_loss = total_val_loss / len(val_loader)
223     val_losses.append(val_loss)
224     print(f"Epoch {epoch + 1}: Train Loss = {train_loss:.6f},
225           Val Loss = {val_loss:.6f}")
226
227     if val_loss < best_val_loss:
228         best_val_loss = val_loss
229         best_model_weights = model.state_dict()
230         counter = 0
231     else:
232         counter += 1
233         if counter >= patience:
234             print(f"Early stopping triggered at epoch {epoch +
235                 1}. Best Val Loss: {best_val_loss:.6f}")
236             break
237
238     if best_model_weights is not None:
239         model.load_state_dict(best_model_weights)
240
241     # Plot training vs validation loss
242     plt.figure()
243     plt.plot(train_losses, label="Train Loss")
244     plt.plot(val_losses, label="Validation Loss")
245     plt.legend()
246     plt.xlabel("Epoch")
```

```
244 plt.ylabel("Loss")
245 plt.title("Training vs Validation Loss")
246 plt.show()
247
248 # Evaluate on test set
249 model.eval()
250 y_preds, y_true = [], []
251 with torch.no_grad():
252     for X_batch, y_batch in test_loader:
253         X_batch = X_batch.to(device)
254         outputs = model(X_batch)
255         predicted = torch.argmax(outputs, dim=1)
256         y_preds.extend(predicted.cpu().numpy())
257         y_true.extend(y_batch.numpy())
258
259 print("Test Accuracy:", accuracy_score(y_true, y_preds))
260 print("Classification Report:")
261 print(classification_report(y_true, y_preds))
262 print("Confusion Matrix:")
263 cm = confusion_matrix(y_true, y_preds)
264 print(cm)
265
266 # Confusion matrix heatmap
267 plt.figure(figsize=(6, 6))
268 plt.imshow(cm, interpolation='nearest', cmap=plt.cm.Blues)
269 plt.title("Confusion Matrix")
270 classes = ['Type 3', 'Type 4', 'Heter']
271 plt.xticks(np.arange(len(classes)), classes, rotation=45)
272 plt.yticks(np.arange(len(classes)), classes)
273 thresh = cm.max() / 2.0
274 for i in range(cm.shape[0]):
275     for j in range(cm.shape[1]):
276         plt.text(j, i, format(cm[i, j], 'd'),
277                 ha="center", color="white" if cm[i, j] > thresh
278                 else "black")
279 plt.ylabel("True Label")
280 plt.xlabel("Predicted Label")
281 plt.tight_layout()
282 plt.show()
```



```
283 # Entry point
284 if __name__ == "__main__":
285     np.random.seed(31)
286     torch.manual_seed(31)
287     file_type3 = "./output/clean3.h5"
288     file_type4 = "./output/clean4.h5"
289     desired_count = 2000
290     train_the_model_classification(file_type3, file_type4,
                                   desired_count)
```

Listing 5: Python main script for 2-types (Type 3 4) classification

```
1 import re
2 import numpy as np
3 import h5py
4 import torch
5 import torch.nn as nn
6 import torch.optim as optim
7 from torch.utils.data import DataLoader, TensorDataset
8 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
9 from sklearn.metrics import mean_squared_error, r2_score
10
11 from model import Resnet, CNN, simpleCNN # You can switch
    architectures here
12
13 def load_separately_with_names(file_type):
14     """
15     Load all datasets from an HDF5 file except 'q_fixed', extract
        numbers from dataset names (e.g., 'd20_qIq'),
16     and return sorted (names, data) arrays.
17     """
18     names = []
19     data_list = []
20     with h5py.File(file_type, 'r') as f:
21         for key in f.keys():
22             if key == 'q_fixed':
23                 continue
24             m = re.search(r'd(\d+)_qIq', key)
25             if m:
26                 num = int(m.group(1))
27                 names.append(num)
```

```
28         data_list.append(f[key][:])
29     sorted_indices = np.argsort(names)
30     sorted_names = [names[i] for i in sorted_indices]
31     sorted_data = np.vstack([data_list[i] for i in sorted_indices])
32     return sorted_names, sorted_data
33
34 def load_all_types(file_type3, file_type4):
35     """
36     Load Type 3 and Type 4 data separately, ensuring sorted order.
37     """
38     names3, data3 = load_separately_with_names(file_type3)
39     names4, data4 = load_separately_with_names(file_type4)
40     return (names3, data3), (names4, data4)
41
42 def augment_type_data(names, X, new_sample_count=2000):
43     """
44     Augment data using lognormal-weighted mixing from the original
45     81 SAXS curves.
46     Each generated sample gets a synthetic label (mean diameter).
47     """
48     new_samples = []
49     labels = []
50     diameters = np.array(names, dtype=np.float32)
51     for _ in range(new_sample_count):
52         mean_real = np.random.uniform(25, 95)
53         sigma_real = np.random.uniform(0.1, 0.4)
54         mu = np.log(mean_real ** 2 / np.sqrt(mean_real ** 2 +
55         sigma_real ** 2))
56         sigma_log = np.sqrt(np.log(1 + (sigma_real ** 2 / mean_real
57         ** 2)))
58         weights = (1.0 / (diameters * sigma_log * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)
59         )) * \
60             np.exp(- (np.log(diameters) - mu) ** 2 / (2 *
61             sigma_log ** 2))
62         weights /= np.sum(weights)
63         new_curve = np.sum(weights[:, np.newaxis] * X, axis=0)
64         new_samples.append(new_curve)
65         labels.append(mu)
66     return np.array(new_samples), np.array(labels)
```

```
63 def add_noise_to_curve(curve):
64     """
65     Add lognormal (Poisson-like) noise to a SAXS curve.
66     """
67     curve_safe = np.maximum(curve, 1e-12)
68     log_alpha = np.random.uniform(np.log(1e4), np.log(10 ** 7.5))
69     alpha = np.exp(log_alpha)
70     sigma2 = np.log(1 + alpha / curve_safe)
71     epsilon = np.random.randn(curve.shape[0])
72     noise_factor = np.exp(np.sqrt(sigma2) * epsilon - sigma2 / 2)
73     return curve * noise_factor
74
75 def add_noise_to_data(data):
76     """
77     Add lognormal noise to each sample (row) in the dataset.
78     """
79     return np.array([add_noise_to_curve(sample) for sample in data])
80
81 def generate_heter_data(X0, labels0, X1, labels1, desired_count
82                        =1000):
83     """
84     Generate heterogeneous SAXS curves by mixing Type 3 and Type 4
85     data.
86     For each mixed sample, return:
87     - the mixed curve,
88     - its alpha (mixing ratio),
89     - and its weighted mean diameter (mu).
90     """
91     X_heter_list = []
92     alpha_list = []
93     mu_heter_list = []
94     for _ in range(desired_count):
95         idx0 = np.random.randint(len(X0))
96         idx1 = np.random.randint(len(X1))
97         alpha = np.random.rand()
98         mixed_curve = alpha * X0[idx0] + (1 - alpha) * X1[idx1]
99         mu_val = alpha * labels0[idx0] + (1 - alpha) * labels1[idx1]
100        X_heter_list.append(mixed_curve)
101        alpha_list.append(alpha)
102        mu_heter_list.append(mu_val)
```

```
101     return np.array(X_heter_list), np.array(alpha_list, dtype=np.  
        float32), np.array(mu_heter_list, dtype=np.float32)  
102  
103 def load_hdf5_data_for_regression(file_type3, file_type4,  
    desired_count=2000, heter_count=1000, target="alpha"):  
104     """  
105     Main data preparation for regression:  
106     - Augment Type 3 and Type 4 separately.  
107     - Mix them to create heterogeneous samples.  
108     - Add noise.  
109     - Return X and the selected target ("alpha" or "mu").  
110     """  
111     (names3, data3), (names4, data4) = load_all_types(file_type3,  
        file_type4)  
112     X0, labels0 = augment_type_data(names3, data3, new_sample_count=  
        desired_count)  
113     X1, labels1 = augment_type_data(names4, data4, new_sample_count=  
        desired_count)  
114     X_heter, alphas, mu_heter = generate_heter_data(X0, labels0, X1,  
        labels1, desired_count=heter_count)  
115     X_heter_noisy = add_noise_to_data(X_heter)  
116     if target == "alpha":  
117         labels = alphas  
118     elif target == "mu":  
119         labels = mu_heter  
120     else:  
121         raise ValueError("target must be 'alpha' or 'mu'")  
122     return X_heter_noisy, labels  
123  
124 def train_the_model(file_type3, file_type4, desired_count,  
    heter_count):  
125     X, y = load_hdf5_data_for_regression(file_type3, file_type4,  
        desired_count, heter_count, target="alpha")  
126     print("X shape:", X.shape)  
127     print("y shape:", y.shape)  
128     print("Target stats: min = {:.3f}, max = {:.3f}, mean = {:.3f}".  
        format(y.min(), y.max(), y.mean()))  
129  
130     from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler  
131     X = StandardScaler().fit_transform(X)
```

```
132
133 from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
134 X_train_val, X_test, y_train_val, y_test = train_test_split(X, y
    , test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
135 X_train, X_val, y_train, y_val = train_test_split(X_train_val,
    y_train_val, test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
136
137 # Convert to PyTorch tensors
138 X_train_tensor = torch.tensor(X_train, dtype=torch.float32)
139 X_val_tensor = torch.tensor(X_val, dtype=torch.float32)
140 X_test_tensor = torch.tensor(X_test, dtype=torch.float32)
141 y_train_tensor = torch.tensor(y_train, dtype=torch.float32)
142 y_val_tensor = torch.tensor(y_val, dtype=torch.float32)
143 y_test_tensor = torch.tensor(y_test, dtype=torch.float32)
144
145 train_loader = DataLoader(TensorDataset(X_train_tensor,
    y_train_tensor), batch_size=256, shuffle=True)
146 val_loader = DataLoader(TensorDataset(X_val_tensor, y_val_tensor
    ), batch_size=256, shuffle=False)
147 test_loader = DataLoader(TensorDataset(X_test_tensor,
    y_test_tensor), batch_size=256, shuffle=False)
148
149 device = torch.device("cuda" if torch.cuda.is_available() else "
    cpu")
150 model = CNN(input_length=X.shape[1]).to(device)
151 criterion = nn.SmoothL1Loss()
152 optimizer = optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr=0.001)
153
154 epochs = 120
155 patience = 20
156 best_val_loss = float('inf')
157 best_model_weights = None
158 counter = 0
159 train_losses, val_losses = [], []
160
161 for epoch in range(epochs):
162     model.train()
163     total_train_loss = 0
164     for X_batch, y_batch in train_loader:
165         X_batch, y_batch = X_batch.to(device), y_batch.to(device)
```

```
166         optimizer.zero_grad()
167         outputs = model(X_batch).squeeze()
168         loss = criterion(outputs, y_batch)
169         loss.backward()
170         optimizer.step()
171         total_train_loss += loss.item()
172     train_losses.append(total_train_loss / len(train_loader))
173
174     model.eval()
175     total_val_loss = 0
176     with torch.no_grad():
177         for X_batch, y_batch in val_loader:
178             X_batch, y_batch = X_batch.to(device), y_batch.to(
179                 device)
180             outputs = model(X_batch).squeeze()
181             loss = criterion(outputs, y_batch)
182             total_val_loss += loss.item()
183     val_loss = total_val_loss / len(val_loader)
184     val_losses.append(val_loss)
185     print(f"Epoch {epoch+1}/{epochs}: Train Loss = {train_losses
186           [-1]:.6f}, Val Loss = {val_loss:.6f}")
187
188     if val_loss < best_val_loss:
189         best_val_loss = val_loss
190         best_model_weights = model.state_dict()
191         counter = 0
192     else:
193         counter += 1
194         if counter >= patience:
195             print("Early stopping triggered.")
196             break
197
198     if best_model_weights is not None:
199         model.load_state_dict(best_model_weights)
200
201     # Plot loss
202     plt.figure()
203     plt.plot(train_losses, label="Train")
204     plt.plot(val_losses, label="Validation")
205     plt.xlabel("Epoch")
```

```
204 plt.ylabel("Loss")
205 plt.legend()
206 plt.title("Training and Validation Loss")
207 plt.show()
208
209 # Evaluate on test set
210 model.eval()
211 y_preds, y_true = [], []
212 with torch.no_grad():
213     for X_batch, y_batch in test_loader:
214         X_batch = X_batch.to(device)
215         outputs = model(X_batch).squeeze()
216         y_preds.extend(outputs.cpu().numpy())
217         y_true.extend(y_batch.numpy())
218
219 y_preds = np.array(y_preds)
220 y_true = np.array(y_true)
221 print(f"Test MSE: {mean_squared_error(y_true, y_preds):.6f}, R:
      {r2_score(y_true, y_preds):.6f}")
222
223 plt.figure()
224 plt.scatter(y_true, y_preds, alpha=0.6)
225 plt.plot([y_true.min(), y_true.max()], [y_true.min(), y_true.max()], 'r--')
226 plt.xlabel("True Value")
227 plt.ylabel("Predicted Value")
228 plt.title("Regression: Prediction vs True")
229 plt.grid(True)
230 plt.show()
231
232 # Main entry point
233 if __name__ == "__main__":
234     np.random.seed(42)
235     torch.manual_seed(42)
236     file_type3 = "./output/clean3.h5"
237     file_type4 = "./output/clean4.h5"
238     desired_count = 3000
239     heter_count = 3000
240     train_the_model(file_type3, file_type4, desired_count,
                     heter_count)
```

Listing 6: Python main script for 2-types (Type 3-4) mixing factor prediction

```
1 import re
2 import numpy as np
3 import h5py
4 import torch
5 import torch.nn as nn
6 import torch.optim as optim
7 from torch.utils.data import DataLoader, TensorDataset
8 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
9 from sklearn.metrics import accuracy_score, classification_report,
    confusion_matrix
10
11 #####
12 # 1. Data Loading and Preprocessing
13 #####
14
15 def load_separately_with_names(file_type):
16     """
17     Load SAXS data from a single HDF5 file, excluding 'q_fixed'.
18     Extract numeric identifiers from keys and return:
19     - sorted_names: list of numeric identifiers (sorted),
20     - sorted_data: corresponding stacked data in sorted order.
21     """
22     names = []
23     data_list = []
24     with h5py.File(file_type, 'r') as f:
25         for key in f.keys():
26             if key == 'q_fixed':
27                 continue
28             m = re.search(r'd(\d+)_qIq', key)
29             if m:
30                 num = int(m.group(1))
31                 names.append(num)
32                 data_list.append(f[key][:])
33
34     sorted_indices = np.argsort(names)
35     sorted_names = [names[i] for i in sorted_indices]
```



```
37     sorted_data = np.vstack([data_list[i] for i in sorted_indices])
38     return sorted_names, sorted_data
39
40
41 def load_all_4_types(file_type1, file_type2, file_type3, file_type4
42 ):
43     """
44     Load SAXS data from four HDF5 files corresponding to clean1 to
45     clean4.
46     Returns a tuple of (names, data) for each type.
47     """
48     names1, data1 = load_separately_with_names(file_type1)
49     names2, data2 = load_separately_with_names(file_type2)
50     names3, data3 = load_separately_with_names(file_type3)
51     names4, data4 = load_separately_with_names(file_type4)
52     return (names1, data1), (names2, data2), (names3, data3), (
53         names4, data4)
54
55
56 def augment_type_data(names, X, new_sample_count=2000):
57     """
58     Augment SAXS data for a single type by:
59     - Randomly sampling log-normal weights based on diameters;
60     - Using the weights to combine original curves into new
61     synthetic samples.
62     Returns (new_samples, None).
63     """
64     new_samples = []
65     diameters = np.array(names, dtype=np.float32)
66
67     for _ in range(new_sample_count):
68         mean_real = np.random.uniform(25, 95)
69         sigma_real = np.random.uniform(0.1, 0.4)
70         mu = np.log(mean_real**2 / np.sqrt(mean_real**2 + sigma_real
71             **2))
72         sigma_log = np.sqrt(np.log(1 + (sigma_real**2 / mean_real
73             **2)))
74         weights = (1.0 / (diameters * sigma_log * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)
75             )) * \
76             np.exp(- (np.log(diameters) - mu)**2 / (2 *
```

```

        sigma_log**2))
70     weights /= np.sum(weights)
71     new_curve = np.sum(weights[:, np.newaxis] * X, axis=0)
72     new_samples.append(new_curve)
73
74     return np.array(new_samples), None
75
76
77 def add_noise_to_curve(curve):
78     """
79     Add realistic multiplicative noise to a single SAXS curve using
80     log-normal noise.
81     Returns the noisy curve.
82     """
83     curve_safe = np.maximum(curve, 1e-12)
84     log_alpha = np.random.uniform(np.log(1e4), np.log(10**7.5))
85     alpha = np.exp(log_alpha)
86     sigma2 = np.log(1 + alpha / curve_safe)
87     epsilon = np.random.randn(curve.shape[0])
88     noise_factor = np.exp(np.sqrt(sigma2)*epsilon - sigma2/2)
89     curve_noisy = curve * noise_factor
90     return curve_noisy
91
92 def add_noise_to_data(data):
93     """
94     Add noise to every SAXS curve in the dataset.
95     """
96     noisy_data = np.array([add_noise_to_curve(data[i]) for i in
97                             range(data.shape[0])])
98     return noisy_data
99
100 def generate_heter_data_4(X1, X2, X3, X4, desired_count=1000):
101     """
102     Generate synthetic heterogeneous samples by mixing one curve
103     from each of the four types.
104     Weighted sums are created with random normalized coefficients.
105     Returns (X_heter, None).
106     """
```

```
106     n1, n2, n3, n4 = X1.shape[0], X2.shape[0], X3.shape[0], X4.shape
        [0]
107     X_heter_list = []
108
109     for _ in range(desired_count):
110         idx1 = np.random.randint(n1)
111         idx2 = np.random.randint(n2)
112         idx3 = np.random.randint(n3)
113         idx4 = np.random.randint(n4)
114         alphas = np.random.rand(4)
115         alphas /= np.sum(alphas)
116         mixed_curve = (alphas[0] * X1[idx1]
117                        + alphas[1] * X2[idx2]
118                        + alphas[2] * X3[idx3]
119                        + alphas[3] * X4[idx4])
120         X_heter_list.append(mixed_curve)
121
122     return np.array(X_heter_list), None
123
124
125 def load_hdf5_data_for_classification_5types(file_type1, file_type2
        , file_type3, file_type4,
126                                             desired_count=2000,
127                                             heter_count=1000):
128     """
129     Complete pipeline to prepare 5-class classification data:
130     1) Load clean SAXS data from four HDF5 files;
131     2) Augment each type to desired_count samples;
132     3) Generate heterogeneous mixtures;
133     4) Label the samples: Types 1-4 -> 0, Heter -> 1;
134     5) Add noise, apply log10, and return all samples and labels.
135     """
136     (names1, data1), (names2, data2), (names3, data3), (names4,
137         data4) = \
138         load_all_4_types(file_type1, file_type2, file_type3,
139             file_type4)
140
141     X_type1, _ = augment_type_data(names1, data1, new_sample_count=
142         desired_count)
143     X_type2, _ = augment_type_data(names2, data2, new_sample_count=
```

```
desired_count)
140 X_type3, _ = augment_type_data(names3, data3, new_sample_count=
    desired_count)
141 X_type4, _ = augment_type_data(names4, data4, new_sample_count=
    desired_count)
142
143 X_heter, _ = generate_heter_data_4(X_type1, X_type2, X_type3,
    X_type4, desired_count=heter_count)
144
145 # Adjust labels for binary classification (clean -> 0, heter ->
    1)
146 y_type1 = np.full(X_type1.shape[0], 0, dtype=np.int64)
147 y_type2 = np.full(X_type2.shape[0], 0, dtype=np.int64)
148 y_type3 = np.full(X_type3.shape[0], 0, dtype=np.int64)
149 y_type4 = np.full(X_type4.shape[0], 0, dtype=np.int64)
150 y_heter = np.full(X_heter.shape[0], 1, dtype=np.int64)
151
152 # Add noise and apply log10 transform
153 X_type1_noisy = np.log10(np.maximum(add_noise_to_data(X_type1),
    1e-12))
154 X_type2_noisy = np.log10(np.maximum(add_noise_to_data(X_type2),
    1e-12))
155 X_type3_noisy = np.log10(np.maximum(add_noise_to_data(X_type3),
    1e-12))
156 X_type4_noisy = np.log10(np.maximum(add_noise_to_data(X_type4),
    1e-12))
157 X_heter_noisy = np.log10(np.maximum(add_noise_to_data(X_heter),
    1e-12))
158
159 X_all = np.concatenate([X_type1_noisy, X_type2_noisy,
160                          X_type3_noisy, X_type4_noisy,
161                          X_heter_noisy], axis=0)
162 y_all = np.concatenate([y_type1, y_type2, y_type3, y_type4,
163                          y_heter], axis=0)
164
165 return X_all, y_all
166
167 #####
168 # 2. Define Classification CNN
```

```
169 #####
170
171 class ClassificationCNN(nn.Module):
172     """
173     A simple 1D CNN for SAXS-based classification with two
174     convolutional layers
175     followed by a fully connected classifier.
176     """
177     def __init__(self, input_length, num_classes=5):
178         super(ClassificationCNN, self).__init__()
179         self.layer1 = nn.Sequential(
180             nn.Conv1d(in_channels=1, out_channels=32, kernel_size=5,
181                       padding=2),
182             nn.BatchNorm1d(32),
183             nn.ReLU()
184         )
185         self.layer2 = nn.Sequential(
186             nn.Conv1d(in_channels=32, out_channels=64, kernel_size=3,
187                       padding=1),
188             nn.BatchNorm1d(64),
189             nn.ReLU()
190         )
191         self.fc = nn.Sequential(
192             nn.Linear(64 * input_length, 64),
193             nn.ReLU(),
194             nn.Dropout(0.3),
195             nn.Linear(64, num_classes),
196         )
197
198     def forward(self, x):
199         # Input x shape: (batch_size, feature_dim)
200         x = x.unsqueeze(1) # -> (batch_size, 1, feature_dim)
201         x = self.layer1(x)
202         x = self.layer2(x)
203         x = x.view(x.size(0), -1) # flatten
204         x = self.fc(x)
205         return x
```

```
206 #####
207 # 3. Training and Evaluation
208 #####
209
210 def train_the_model_classification_5(file_type1, file_type2,
211     file_type3, file_type4, desired_count):
212     """
213     Train and evaluate the classification model on 5-class SAXS data
214     :
215     clean types (1-4) vs. heterogeneously mixed (5th class).
216     Includes training loop, early stopping, and evaluation metrics.
217     """
218     X, y = load_hdf5_data_for_classification_5types(
219         file_type1, file_type2, file_type3, file_type4,
220         desired_count=desired_count, heter_count=desired_count
221     )
222     print("X shape:", X.shape)
223     print("y shape:", y.shape)
224     print("Class distribution:", {cls: int(np.sum(y == cls)) for cls
225         in np.unique(y)})
226
227     # Standardize features
228     from sklearn.preprocessing import StandardScaler
229     scaler = StandardScaler()
230     X = scaler.fit_transform(X)
231
232     # Split dataset
233     from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
234     X_train_val, X_test, y_train_val, y_test = train_test_split(X, y
235         , test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
236     X_train, X_val, y_train, y_val = train_test_split(X_train_val,
237         y_train_val, test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
238
239     # Create DataLoaders
240     X_train_tensor = torch.tensor(X_train, dtype=torch.float32)
241     X_val_tensor = torch.tensor(X_val, dtype=torch.float32)
242     X_test_tensor = torch.tensor(X_test, dtype=torch.float32)
243     y_train_tensor = torch.tensor(y_train, dtype=torch.long)
244     y_val_tensor = torch.tensor(y_val, dtype=torch.long)
245     y_test_tensor = torch.tensor(y_test, dtype=torch.long)
```

```
241
242 train_dataset = TensorDataset(X_train_tensor, y_train_tensor)
243 val_dataset = TensorDataset(X_val_tensor, y_val_tensor)
244 test_dataset = TensorDataset(X_test_tensor, y_test_tensor)
245
246 train_loader = DataLoader(train_dataset, batch_size=256, shuffle
    =True)
247 val_loader = DataLoader(val_dataset, batch_size=256, shuffle=
    False)
248 test_loader = DataLoader(test_dataset, batch_size=256, shuffle=
    False)
249
250 # Model, optimizer, loss
251 device = torch.device("cuda" if torch.cuda.is_available() else "
    cpu")
252 model = ClassificationCNN(input_length=X.shape[1], num_classes
    =5).to(device)
253 criterion = nn.CrossEntropyLoss()
254 optimizer = optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr=0.0001)
255
256 # Training loop with early stopping
257 epochs = 200
258 patience = 40
259 best_val_loss = float('inf')
260 best_model_weights = None
261 counter = 0
262 train_losses, val_losses = [], []
263
264 for epoch in range(epochs):
265     model.train()
266     total_train_loss = 0.0
267     for X_batch, y_batch in train_loader:
268         X_batch, y_batch = X_batch.to(device), y_batch.to(device)
269         optimizer.zero_grad()
270         outputs = model(X_batch)
271         loss = criterion(outputs, y_batch)
272         loss.backward()
273         optimizer.step()
274         total_train_loss += loss.item()
275     train_loss = total_train_loss / len(train_loader)
```

```
276     train_losses.append(train_loss)
277
278     model.eval()
279     total_val_loss = 0.0
280     with torch.no_grad():
281         for X_batch, y_batch in val_loader:
282             X_batch, y_batch = X_batch.to(device), y_batch.to(
283                 device)
284             outputs = model(X_batch)
285             loss = criterion(outputs, y_batch)
286             total_val_loss += loss.item()
287     val_loss = total_val_loss / len(val_loader)
288     val_losses.append(val_loss)
289
290     print(f"Epoch {epoch+1}/{epochs} - Train Loss: {train_loss
291           :.6f}, Val Loss: {val_loss:.6f}")
292
293     if val_loss < best_val_loss:
294         best_val_loss = val_loss
295         best_model_weights = model.state_dict()
296         counter = 0
297     else:
298         counter += 1
299         if counter >= patience:
300             print(f"Early stopping triggered at epoch {epoch+1}.
301                   Best Val Loss: {best_val_loss:.6f}")
302             break
303
304     if best_model_weights is not None:
305         model.load_state_dict(best_model_weights)
306
307     # Plot loss curve
308     plt.figure(figsize=(8, 5))
309     plt.plot(range(1, len(train_losses) + 1), train_losses, label="
310             Train Loss")
311     plt.plot(range(1, len(val_losses) + 1), val_losses, label="
312             Validation Loss")
313     plt.xlabel("Epoch")
314     plt.ylabel("Loss")
315     plt.legend()
```



```
311 plt.show()
312
313 # Evaluate on test set
314 model.eval()
315 y_preds, y_true = [], []
316 with torch.no_grad():
317     for X_batch, y_batch in test_loader:
318         X_batch = X_batch.to(device)
319         outputs = model(X_batch)
320         predicted = torch.argmax(outputs, dim=1)
321         y_preds.extend(predicted.cpu().numpy())
322         y_true.extend(y_batch.numpy())
323
324 accuracy = accuracy_score(y_true, y_preds)
325 print("Test Accuracy:", accuracy)
326 print("Classification Report:")
327 print(classification_report(y_true, y_preds))
328
329 # Confusion matrix
330 cm = confusion_matrix(y_true, y_preds)
331 print("Confusion Matrix:")
332 print(cm)
333
334 plt.figure(figsize=(6, 6))
335 plt.imshow(cm, interpolation='nearest', cmap=plt.cm.Blues)
336 plt.title("Confusion Matrix")
337 classes = ["Double-ellipsoid", "Spherical", "x", "x", "x"] #
338     Replace 'x' with actual labels if needed
339 tick_marks = np.arange(len(classes))
340 plt.xticks(tick_marks, classes, rotation=45)
341 plt.yticks(tick_marks, classes)
342
343 thresh = cm.max() / 2.0
344 for i in range(cm.shape[0]):
345     for j in range(cm.shape[1]):
346         plt.text(j, i, format(cm[i, j], 'd'),
347                 horizontalalignment="center",
348                 color="white" if cm[i, j] > thresh else "black")
349
350 plt.ylabel('True Label')
```

```
350 plt.xlabel('Predicted Label')
351 plt.tight_layout()
352 plt.show()
353
354
355 #####
356 # 4. Main Entry Point
357 #####
358 if __name__ == "__main__":
359     np.random.seed(31)
360     torch.manual_seed(31)
361
362     # Modify paths as needed
363     file_type1 = "./output/clean1.h5"
364     file_type2 = "./output/clean2.h5"
365     file_type3 = "./output/clean3.h5"
366     file_type4 = "./output/clean4.h5"
367
368     desired_count = 4000 # Augmented sample count per clean type
369
370     train_the_model_classification_5(file_type1, file_type2,
                                     file_type3, file_type4, desired_count)
```

Listing 7: Python main script for 4-types classification

```
1 import re
2 import numpy as np
3 import h5py
4 import torch
5 import torch.nn as nn
6 import torch.optim as optim
7 from torch.utils.data import DataLoader, TensorDataset
8 import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
9 from sklearn.model_selection import train_test_split
10 from sklearn.metrics import r2_score
11
12
13 # -----
14 # 1. Data Loading & Augmentation
15 # -----
16
```

```
17 def load_separately_with_names(file_type):
18     """
19     Load SAXS data from a single HDF5 file, excluding 'q_fixed'.
20     Extract numeric identifiers from keys (e.g., 'd20_qIq') and
21     return:
22     - sorted_names: sorted list of diameters
23     - sorted_data: corresponding data (stacked vertically)
24     """
25     names = []
26     data_list = []
27     with h5py.File(file_type, 'r') as f:
28         for key in f.keys():
29             if key == 'q_fixed':
30                 continue
31             m = re.search(r'd(\d+)_qIq', key)
32             if m:
33                 num = int(m.group(1))
34                 names.append(num)
35                 data_list.append(f[key][:])
36     sorted_indices = np.argsort(names)
37     sorted_names = [names[i] for i in sorted_indices]
38     sorted_data = np.vstack([data_list[i] for i in sorted_indices])
39     return sorted_names, sorted_data
40
41 def load_all_3_types(file_type1, file_type2, file_type3):
42     """
43     Load SAXS datasets from three HDF5 files.
44     Returns (names, data) tuples for each file.
45     """
46     names1, data1 = load_separately_with_names(file_type1)
47     names2, data2 = load_separately_with_names(file_type2)
48     names3, data3 = load_separately_with_names(file_type3)
49     return (names1, data1), (names2, data2), (names3, data3)
50
51
52 def augment_type_data(names, X, new_sample_count=2000):
53     """
54     Augment data by generating synthetic SAXS curves:
55     - Sample log-normal weight distributions using random (mean,
```

```
        sigma),
56     - Weight and combine real curves to generate synthetic ones.
57     """
58     new_samples = []
59     diameters = np.array(names, dtype=np.float32)
60     for _ in range(new_sample_count):
61         mean_real = np.random.uniform(25, 95)
62         sigma_real = np.random.uniform(1, 4)
63         mu = np.log(mean_real**2 / np.sqrt(mean_real**2 + sigma_real
64             **2))
65         sigma_log = np.sqrt(np.log(1 + (sigma_real**2 / mean_real
66             **2)))
67         weights = (1.0 / (diameters * sigma_log * np.sqrt(2 * np.pi)
68             )) * \
69             np.exp(- (np.log(diameters) - mu)**2 / (2 *
70                 sigma_log**2))
71         weights /= np.sum(weights)
72         new_curve = np.sum(weights[:, np.newaxis] * X, axis=0)
73         new_samples.append(new_curve)
74     return np.array(new_samples), None
75
76 def add_noise_to_curve(curve):
77     """
78     Add multiplicative log-normal noise to a single SAXS curve.
79     """
80     curve_safe = np.maximum(curve, 1e-12)
81     log_alpha = np.random.uniform(np.log(1e4), np.log(10**7.5))
82     alpha = np.exp(log_alpha)
83     sigma2 = np.log(1 + alpha / curve_safe)
84     epsilon = np.random.randn(len(curve))
85     noise_factor = np.exp(np.sqrt(sigma2) * epsilon - sigma2 / 2)
86     return curve * noise_factor
87
88 def add_noise_to_data(data):
89     """
90     Apply noise to each curve in the dataset.
91     """
92     return np.array([add_noise_to_curve(x) for x in data])
```

```
91
92
93 def generate_weighted_mixture_data_3(X1, X2, X3, sample_count=1000,
94     add_noise=False, do_log10=False):
95     """
96     Generate mixture data from three types:
97     - Randomly sample one curve from each,
98     - Generate Dirichlet weights,
99     - Mix the curves using the weights.
100     Optionally adds noise and log10 transform.
101     Returns (X_mix, alphas).
102     """
103     n1, n2, n3 = X1.shape[0], X2.shape[0], X3.shape[0]
104     feature_dim = X1.shape[1]
105     X_mix = np.zeros((sample_count, feature_dim), dtype=np.float32)
106     alphas = np.zeros((sample_count, 3), dtype=np.float32)
107
108     for i in range(sample_count):
109         idx1, idx2, idx3 = np.random.randint(0, n1), np.random.
110             randint(0, n2), np.random.randint(0, n3)
111         alpha = np.random.dirichlet([1, 1, 1])
112         alphas[i] = alpha
113         curve = alpha[0] * X1[idx1] + alpha[1] * X2[idx2] + alpha[2]
114             * X3[idx3]
115         if add_noise:
116             curve = add_noise_to_curve(curve)
117         if do_log10:
118             curve = np.log10(np.maximum(curve, 1e-12))
119         X_mix[i] = curve
120     return X_mix, alphas
121
122 # -----
123 # 2. CNN Regression Model
124 # -----
125
126 class WeightsRegressionCNN(nn.Module):
127     """
128     CNN model to regress 3 mixing weights (alphas) from SAXS curves.
129     Final output is soft-normalized to sum to 1.
```

```
128     """
129     def __init__(self, input_length):
130         super(WeightsRegressionCNN, self).__init__()
131         self.layer1 = nn.Sequential(
132             nn.Conv1d(in_channels=1, out_channels=32, kernel_size=5,
133                       padding=2),
134             nn.BatchNorm1d(32),
135             nn.ReLU()
136         )
137         self.layer2 = nn.Sequential(
138             nn.Conv1d(in_channels=32, out_channels=64, kernel_size=3,
139                       padding=1),
140             nn.BatchNorm1d(64),
141             nn.ReLU()
142         )
143         self.fc = nn.Sequential(
144             nn.Linear(64 * input_length, 64),
145             nn.ReLU(),
146             nn.Linear(64, 3),
147         )
148
149     def forward(self, x):
150         x = x.unsqueeze(1) # (batch_size, 1, feature_dim)
151         x = self.layer1(x)
152         x = self.layer2(x)
153         x = x.view(x.size(0), -1)
154         logits = self.fc(x)
155         sig_out = torch.sigmoid(logits)
156         norm_out = sig_out / (sig_out.sum(dim=1, keepdim=True) + 1e
157                               -8)
158         return norm_out
159
160 # -----
161 # 3. Training Pipeline
162 # -----
163
164 def train_weight_regression(file_type1, file_type2, file_type3,
165                             each_type_count=500,
166                             mix_count=4000,
```

```
165         add_noise=True,
166         do_log10=True):
167     """
168     Train CNN to predict mixing weights of 3 SAXS types.
169     """
170     # Load & augment data
171     (names1, data1), (names2, data2), (names3, data3) =
172         load_all_3_types(file_type1, file_type2, file_type3)
173     X1, _ = augment_type_data(names1, data1, each_type_count)
174     X2, _ = augment_type_data(names2, data2, each_type_count)
175     X3, _ = augment_type_data(names3, data3, each_type_count)
176
177     # Generate synthetic mixtures
178     X_mix, alphas = generate_weighted_mixture_data_3(X1, X2, X3,
179         mix_count, add_noise, do_log10)
180
181     # Split data
182     X_train_val, X_test, y_train_val, y_test = train_test_split(
183         X_mix, alphas, test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
184     X_train, X_val, y_train, y_val = train_test_split(X_train_val,
185         y_train_val, test_size=0.2, random_state=42)
186
187     # Create DataLoaders
188     def to_loader(X, y):
189         X_tensor = torch.tensor(X, dtype=torch.float32)
190         y_tensor = torch.tensor(y, dtype=torch.float32)
191         return DataLoader(TensorDataset(X_tensor, y_tensor),
192             batch_size=512, shuffle=True)
193
194     train_loader = to_loader(X_train, y_train)
195     val_loader = to_loader(X_val, y_val)
196     test_loader = to_loader(X_test, y_test)
197
198     # Initialize model
199     device = torch.device("cuda" if torch.cuda.is_available() else "
200         cpu")
201     model = WeightsRegressionCNN(input_length=X_train.shape[1]).to(
202         device)
203     optimizer = optim.Adam(model.parameters(), lr=0.0005)
204     criterion = nn.MSELoss()
```

```
198
199 # Training loop with early stopping
200 epochs = 800
201 patience = 80
202 best_val_loss = float('inf')
203 best_state_dict = None
204 no_improve_count = 0
205 train_losses, val_losses = [], []
206
207 for epoch in range(epochs):
208     model.train()
209     total_train_loss = sum(
210         criterion(model(X.to(device)), y.to(device)).item()
211         for X, y in train_loader
212     ) / len(train_loader)
213     train_losses.append(total_train_loss)
214
215     model.eval()
216     with torch.no_grad():
217         total_val_loss = sum(
218             criterion(model(X.to(device)), y.to(device)).item()
219             for X, y in val_loader
220         ) / len(val_loader)
221     val_losses.append(total_val_loss)
222
223     print(f"Epoch {epoch+1}/{epochs}: Train Loss = {
224         total_train_loss:.6f}, Val Loss = {total_val_loss:.6f}")
225
226     if total_val_loss < best_val_loss:
227         best_val_loss = total_val_loss
228         best_state_dict = model.state_dict()
229         no_improve_count = 0
230     else:
231         no_improve_count += 1
232         if no_improve_count >= patience:
233             print("Early stopping triggered.")
234             break
235
236 if best_state_dict:
237     model.load_state_dict(best_state_dict)
```



```
237
238 # Plot loss curve
239 plt.figure()
240 plt.plot(range(1, len(train_losses)+1), train_losses, label="
    Train Loss")
241 plt.plot(range(1, len(val_losses)+1), val_losses, label="Val
    Loss")
242 plt.xlabel("Epoch")
243 plt.ylabel("MSE Loss")
244 plt.legend()
245 plt.show()
246
247 # Final evaluation
248 model.eval()
249 y_pred, y_true = [], []
250 with torch.no_grad():
251     for X, y in test_loader:
252         y_pred.append(model(X.to(device)).cpu().numpy())
253         y_true.append(y.cpu().numpy())
254
255 y_pred = np.concatenate(y_pred, axis=0)
256 y_true = np.concatenate(y_true, axis=0)
257
258 mse = np.mean((y_pred - y_true) ** 2)
259 mae = np.mean(np.abs(y_pred - y_true))
260 print("Test MSE:", mse)
261 print("Test MAE:", mae)
262
263 print("MSE per alpha:", np.mean((y_pred - y_true) ** 2, axis=0))
264 print("MAE per alpha:", np.mean(np.abs(y_pred - y_true), axis=0)
    )
265
266 r2 = [r2_score(y_true[:, i], y_pred[:, i]) for i in range(3)]
267 print("R per alpha:", r2)
268 print("Overall R:", r2_score(y_true.flatten(), y_pred.flatten())
    )
269
270 # Show some examples
271 n_show = 8
272 idx = np.random.choice(len(y_true), n_show, replace=False)
```

```
273 print(f"\nShowing {n_show} random test samples:")
274 for i in idx:
275     print(f"True: {y_true[i]}, Pred: {y_pred[i]}")
276
277
278 if __name__ == "__main__":
279     np.random.seed(42)
280     torch.manual_seed(42)
281
282     file_type1 = "./output/clean1.h5"
283     file_type2 = "./output/clean2.h5"
284     file_type3 = "./output/clean3.h5"
285
286     train_weight_regression(
287         file_type1, file_type2, file_type3,
288         each_type_count=100000,
289         mix_count=100000,
290         add_noise=True,
291         do_log10=False
292     )
```

Listing 8: Python main script for 4-types mixing factor prediction

```
1 import torch
2 import torch.nn as nn
3 import torch.nn.functional as F
4
5
6 # -----
7 # 1. Residual Block & ResNet
8 # -----
9
10 class ResidualBlock1D(nn.Module):
11     """
12     A 1D residual block with two convolutional layers and skip
13     connection.
14     """
15     def __init__(self, channels):
16         super().__init__()
17         self.conv1 = nn.Conv1d(channels, channels, kernel_size=3,
18                                 padding=1)
```

```
17         self.bn1 = nn.BatchNorm1d(channels)
18         self.relu = nn.ReLU()
19         self.conv2 = nn.Conv1d(channels, channels, kernel_size=3,
20                                padding=1)
21         self.bn2 = nn.BatchNorm1d(channels)
22
23     def forward(self, x):
24         residual = x
25         out = self.relu(self.bn1(self.conv1(x)))
26         out = self.bn2(self.conv2(out))
27         return self.relu(out + residual)
28
29 class Resnet(nn.Module):
30     """
31     1D ResNet for multi-class classification (default 4 outputs with
32     softmax).
33     """
34     def __init__(self, input_length):
35         super().__init__()
36         self.entry = nn.Sequential(
37             nn.Conv1d(1, 64, kernel_size=7, padding=3),
38             nn.BatchNorm1d(64),
39             nn.ReLU()
40         )
41         self.block1 = ResidualBlock1D(64)
42         self.block2 = ResidualBlock1D(64)
43         self.block3 = ResidualBlock1D(64)
44         self.pool = nn.AdaptiveAvgPool1d(1)
45         self.fc = nn.Linear(64, 4) # Default: 4-class output
46
47     def forward(self, x):
48         x = x.unsqueeze(1) # (batch_size, 1, input_length)
49         x = self.entry(x)
50         x = self.block1(x)
51         x = self.block2(x)
52         x = self.block3(x)
53         x = self.pool(x).squeeze(-1) # (batch_size, 64)
54         return F.softmax(self.fc(x), dim=1)
```

```
55
56 # -----
57 # 2. CNN (Deep) for Binary Classification
58 # -----
59
60 class CNN(nn.Module):
61     """
62     Deep 1D CNN for binary classification. Final output: sigmoid
63     scalar in [0,1].
64     """
65     def __init__(self, input_length):
66         super(CNN, self).__init__()
67         self.layer1 = nn.Sequential(
68             nn.Conv1d(in_channels=1, out_channels=32, kernel_size=5,
69                       padding=2),
70             nn.BatchNorm1d(32),
71             nn.ReLU()
72         )
73         self.layer2 = nn.Sequential(
74             nn.Conv1d(in_channels=32, out_channels=64, kernel_size=5,
75                       padding=2),
76             nn.BatchNorm1d(64),
77             nn.ReLU()
78         )
79         self.layer3 = nn.Sequential(
80             nn.Conv1d(in_channels=64, out_channels=128, kernel_size
81                       =3, padding=1),
82             nn.BatchNorm1d(128),
83             nn.ReLU()
84         )
85         self.fc = nn.Sequential(
86             nn.Linear(128 * input_length, 256),
87             nn.ReLU(),
88             nn.Dropout(0.15),
89             nn.Linear(256, 64),
90             nn.ReLU(),
91             nn.Dropout(0.15),
92             nn.Linear(64, 1),
93             nn.Sigmoid() # Output in [0,1]
94         )
```

```
91
92     def forward(self, x):
93         x = x.unsqueeze(1) # (batch_size, 1, input_length)
94         x = self.layer1(x)
95         x = self.layer2(x)
96         x = self.layer3(x)
97         x = x.view(x.size(0), -1)
98         x = self.fc(x)
99         return x.squeeze(1)
100
101
102 # -----
103 # 3. Simple CNN for Binary Classification
104 # -----
105
106 class simpleCNN(nn.Module):
107     """
108     Simpler version of CNN with fewer layers for binary
109     classification.
110     """
111     def __init__(self, input_length):
112         super(simpleCNN, self).__init__()
113         self.layer1 = nn.Sequential(
114             nn.Conv1d(in_channels=1, out_channels=32, kernel_size=5,
115                       padding=2),
116             nn.ReLU()
117         )
118         self.layer2 = nn.Sequential(
119             nn.Conv1d(in_channels=32, out_channels=64, kernel_size=3,
120                       padding=1),
121             nn.ReLU()
122         )
123         self.fc = nn.Sequential(
124             nn.Linear(64 * input_length, 64),
125             nn.ReLU(),
126             nn.Dropout(0.15),
127             nn.Linear(64, 1),
128             nn.Sigmoid() # Output in [0,1]
129         )
```

```
128     def forward(self, x):
129         x = x.unsqueeze(1) # (batch_size, 1, input_length)
130         x = self.layer1(x)
131         x = self.layer2(x)
132         x = x.view(x.size(0), -1)
133         x = self.fc(x)
134         return x.squeeze(1)
135
136
137 # -----
138 # 4. Example Usage
139 # -----
140
141 if __name__ == "__main__":
142     model = Resnet(input_length=500)
143     sample_input = torch.randn(8, 500) # batch size = 8, input
        length = 500
144     output = model(sample_input)
145     print("Output shape:", output.shape) # Expected: (8, 4)
```

Listing 9: Python main script ML models